

**The Effects of High-Performance Work Practices
and Psychological Capital on Hotel Employees'
Outcomes: The Mediating Role of Work Engagement**

Georgiana Karadaş

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Approval of the Institute of Graduate Studies and Research

Prof. Dr. Mustafa Tumer
Acting Director

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

Prof. Dr. Hasan Kılıç
Dean, Faculty of Tourism

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

Prof. Dr. Osman M. Karatepe
Supervisor

Examining Committee

1. Prof. Dr. Turgay Avcı _____
2. Prof. Dr. Kemal Birdir _____
3. Prof. Dr. Osman. M. Karatepe _____
4. Prof. Dr. Hasan Kılıç _____
5. Prof. Dr. M. Mithat Üner _____

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis is to develop and test a research model that examines the interrelationships of high-performance work practices, psychological capital, work engagement, quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance. To serve this purpose, data were collected from customer-contact employees and their immediate supervisors in the international five- and four-star hotels in Romania. Data were obtained from customer-contact employees with a time lag of two weeks in three waves.

The results reveal that all hypotheses shown in the research model are supported. Specifically, high-performance work practices, as manifested by selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, teamwork, and career opportunities, enhance hotel employees' psychological capital and work engagement. Psychological capital triggers also work engagement. These results show that psychological capital is a mediator in the abovementioned relationships. In addition, both psychological capital and work engagement foster creative and extra-role performances, while they alleviate employees' intent to quit. Work engagement is a mediator in the relationships given above.

The theoretical and practical contributions to the relevant literature are discussed in light of the study findings and recommendations for future research are given.

Keywords: Employee outcomes, High-performance work practices, Psychological capital, Romania, Work engagement

ÖZ

Bu tezin amacı, yüksek performanslı insan kaynakları uygulamaları, psikolojik sermaye, işe angaje olma, işten ayrılma niyeti, yaratıcı performans ve ekstra performans arasındaki ilişkileri inceleyen bir araştırma modelini geliştirip test etmektir. Bu amaca ulaşmak için, Romanya’da uluslararası beş ve dört yıldızlı zincir otel işletmelerindeki sınır birim işgörenleri ve onların bağlı olduğu yöneticilerden veri toplanmıştır. İşgörenden veri, üç dalgada iki haftalık zaman aralığında toplanmıştır.

Çalışmanın bulguları, araştırma modelinin geçerli olduğunu ve tüm hipotezlerin desteklendiğini göstermiştir. Şöyle ki, dikkatli personel alımı, iş güvenliği, eğitim, güçlendirme, ödüllendirme, takım çalışması ve kariyer olanaklarından oluşan yüksek performanslı insan kaynakları uygulamaları otel çalışanlarının psikolojik sermayesi ile işe angaje olmasını artırmıştır. Psikolojik sermaye, aynı zamanda işe angaje olmayı tetiklemektedir. Burada psikolojik sermaye, aracı rolü oynamaktadır. Bu bulgulara ek olarak, hem psikolojik sermaye hem de işe angaje olma yaratıcı ve ekstra performansı artırırken, otel çalışanlarının işten ayrılma niyetini düşürmektedir. Burada işe angaje olma aracı rolüne sahiptir.

Yukarıda verilen bulgular ışığında, bu çalışmanın teorik ve uygulama açısından ilgili yazına katkıları tartışılmış, gelecek araştırmalar için birtakım önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İşe angaje olma, İşgörenin sonuç değişkenleri, Psikolojik sermaye, Romanya, Yüksek performanslı insan kaynakları uygulamaları

DEDICATION

To my loving husband...

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A	Alpha Coefficient
AMO	Ability-Motivation-Opportunity Model
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CO	Career Opportunities
CP	Creative Performance
CR	Composite Reliability
DF	Degree of Freedom
EMP	Empowerment
ERP	Extra-role Performance
FHEs	Frontline Hotel Employees
Gen	Gender
HERO	Hope, Efficacy, Resilience, Optimism
HPWPs	High-Performance Work Practices
JD-R	Job Demand-Resources
JS	Job Security
LISREL	Linear Structural Relations
OPT	Optimism
OT	Organizational Tenure
PNFI	Parsimony-Normed Fit Index
PsyCap	Psychological Capital
RES	Resilience
REW	Rewards

RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SD	Standard Deviation
SEFF	Self-efficacy
SHRM	Strategic Human Resource Management
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Science
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
SS	Selective Staffing
TEAM	Teamwork
TRA	Training
WE	Work Engagement

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The reader is able to grasp the main aspects of the thesis within the introduction chapter. The introduction chapter includes the research philosophy and theoretical framework. The purpose of the study and its contribution to the existing literature are also explained. High-performance work practices (HPWPs), psychological capital, and work engagement are the main study constructs that potentially contribute to the current literature. The introduction chapter offers an overview of the methodological strategies employed. Specifically, it presents information about participants and procedure, instrumentation, and analytic methods. The introduction chapter also provides a shortened plan of the entire thesis.

1.1 Research Philosophy

1.1.1 HPWPs, Psychological Capital, and Work Engagement

The current dynamic market environment compels service companies to attract and retain employees who are creative, are able to use their capabilities effectively, and are keen to deliver excellent service quality. Great service deliveries rest essentially on employees' creative and genuine performance, especially when they contribute to the organization by exceeding what is written in job descriptions (Victorino & Bolinger, 2012). This is critical because frontline hotel employees (FHEs) represent the image of the organization and are the ones who achieve customer or complainant satisfaction and delight by offering novel ideas for service improvement and going

beyond their role requirements (Karatepe, 2013a; Kim, 2011; Solnet, Kandampully, & Kralj, 2010).

If management expects FHEs to be the main actors in the accomplishment of customer satisfaction and delight, it should create an environment where FHEs can take advantage of HPWPs. According to Karatepe (2013b), HPWPs are performance-enhancing human resource practices. These HPWPs may consist of plenty of effective human resource practices. Studies have reported that employees who have the opportunity to take advantage of various effective human resource practices contribute to the organization through higher levels of motivation and positive outcomes (Karatepe, 2013a, b; Takeuchi, Lepak, Wang, & Takeuchi, 2007).

Training and development, rewards, career opportunities, and job security are among the most important HPWPs that motivate employees to display desirable outcomes (Posthuma, Campion, Masimova, & Campion, 2013). An observation made in the service management and marketing literature has revealed that selective staffing (e.g., Tang & Tang, 2012; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016; Wirtz, Heracleous, & Pangarkar, 2008), job security (e.g., Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014; Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007), training (e.g., Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003; Karatepe, 2013a), empowerment (e.g., Babakus et al., 2003; Karatepe, 2013a; Kuslivan, Kuslivan, Ilhan, & Buyruk, 2010; Solnet et al., 2010), rewards (e.g., Babakus et al., 2003; Karatepe, 2013a), teamwork (e.g., Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014; Wirtz et al., 2008), and career opportunities (e.g., Hinkin & Tracey, 2010; Kuslivan et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2007) are often considered among the most critical HPWPs. Indeed, these HPWPs are reported in Posthuma et al.'s (2013)

list of HPWPs that has been made using 193 articles published between 1992 and 2011.

The presence of HPWPs boosts employees' personal resources. For example, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2007) have shown that job resources enhance employees' personal resources (i.e., generalized self-efficacy, optimism, and organization-based self-esteem). Karatepe (2015a) have also found that management of hotels providing sufficient support to customer-contact employees and offering them effective human resource practices boost their personal resources (i.e., positive affectivity, intrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy). In this thesis, we use psychological capital as a critical personal resource for FHEs (Jung & Yoon, 2015; Paek, Schuckert, Kim, & Lee, 2015).

The relevant literature focusing on psychological capital demonstrates its importance not only within the positive psychological field, but also within the human resource management field. Psychological capital refers to “an individual’s positive psychological state of development and is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success” (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007, p. 3). Moreover, Luthans (2012) states that the first letters of these constructs (i.e., self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism) become the acronym HERO and highlights that psychological capital refers to “... who we are, the HERO that lies within us” (p. 7).

The presence of HPWPs activates employees' personal resources or psychological capital that leads to work engagement. Work engagement is defined as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzáles-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74). Vigor, dedication, and absorption are the three components of work engagement. When employees are engaged in their work, they feel energetic (vigor), are inspired by and find purpose in what they do (dedication), and are engrossed in their work (absorption) (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Work engagement is also one of the critical constructs in the positive occupational health psychology (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008) that still draws attention of academicians and practitioners (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012; Mäkikangas, Feldt, Kinnunen, & Mauno, 2013; Mills, Fleck, & Kozikowski, 2013; Paek et al., 2015). An observation emerging from the relevant literature is that both psychological capital and work engagement give rise to a number of desirable employee outcomes such as job satisfaction, job performance, reduced quitting intentions, organizational commitment, and extra-role performance (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

1.1.2 Deductive Approach

What has been discussed so far clearly shows that this thesis uses deductive approach. The relationships were advanced via deductive approach, which "entails the development of a conceptual and theoretical structure prior to its testing through empirical observation" (Gill & Johnson, 2002, p. 34). That is, the concepts that are chosen by the researcher to be investigated and the relationships between them that are generated in line with certain theories are given in the form of hypotheses. These hypotheses are tested through primary data collected. What makes this noteworthy is how the deductions are rationalized and verified (Gill & Johnson, 2002).

Accordingly, this thesis aims to propose and test a research model that examines the interrelationships of HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance. Broadly speaking, the research model tests psychological capital as a mediator between HPWPs and work engagement and assesses work engagement as a mediator between psychological capital and the aforesaid outcomes. The relationships mentioned here are developed based on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008) and employees' human resources attribution process (Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008). Data were collected from FHEs and their immediate supervisors at three different points in time with a two-week interval in Romania.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

1.2.1 The JD-R Model

The JD-R model is a theoretical underpinning linking both job demands and job resources to employee outcomes through burnout and work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, 2008). According to the JD-R model, job characteristics can be distinguished as demands and resources. This can be done for every specific occupation and job demands and resources are specified based on the characteristics of the relevant occupation. Job demands are described as “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). Role ambiguity, role conflict, emotional demands, work overload, and emotional dissonance are among these job demands (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Karatepe, 2011; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

Job resources are associated with “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either/or: functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). Job resources include work social support (i.e., supervisor and coworkers), performance feedback, training, autonomy, career opportunities, and mentoring (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Karatepe, 2013a; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

The JD-R model undertakes two processes: the health impairment and motivational processes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). The health impairment process proposes that job demands intensify individuals’ burnout (strain) that in turn results in negative employee outcomes (e.g., poor health, poor job performance, job dissatisfaction, quitting intentions) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The motivational process of the JD-R model proposes that job resources, because of its motivational role, enhance individuals’ work engagement that in turn engenders positive employee outcomes such as organizational commitment, extra-role performance, service recovery performance, and low levels of proclivity to leave (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Karatepe, 2012; Karatepe, 2013a).

As an extension of the JD-R model, personal resources are considered a mediator in the relationship between job resources and work engagement (e.g., Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). It has been discussed that the presence of job resources or HPWPs fosters employees’ personal resources. Employees high on personal resources stay engaged in their work (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Heuven, Demereouti, & Schaufeli, 2008). Also as an extension of the JD-R model, job resources are

treated as a buffer against the detrimental influences of job demands on burnout and employee outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Based on what has been explained about the JD-R model, this thesis contends that psychological capital (i.e., personal resource) is a mediator between HPWPs (i.e., job resources) and work engagement. Again based on the principles of the JD-R model, work engagement is a mediator between psychological capital and employee outcomes such as quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance.

1.2.2 Employees' Human Resources Attribution Process

Nishii et al.'s (2008) study on employees' human resources attribution process can be used to ascertain the reason about why management of companies invests in human resources and implements various human resource practices or HPWPs. Human resource attributions denote "causal explanations that employees make regarding management's motivations for using particular human resource practices" (Nishii et al., 2008, p. 507). As argued by Karatepe (2014a) and Tracey (2012), employees respond to HPWPs based on their attributions they make about management's purpose in implementing these practices. If management invests in HPWPs because it aims to foster service quality and employees' well-being, then employees will show positive responses (Nishii et al., 2008). If management does this because of cost reduction and exploiting employees, then employees will show negative responses (Nishii et al., 2008).

Based on human resources attribution process, this thesis proposes that employees are highly engaged as a response to effective human resource practices based on their attributions they make about management's intent to enhance service quality and

employees' well-being. They also have desirable outcomes as a response to management that focuses on the investment of human resources for delivery of service quality and employees' well-being (Nishii et al., 2008; Tracey, 2012).

1.3 Focus and Contribution of the Empirical Study

1.3.1 Purpose

Using the motivational process of the JDR model and human resources attribution process, this thesis proposes and tests a research model that examines the interrelationships of HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance. Broadly speaking, the objectives are to assess: (1) the joint effects of selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, teamwork and career opportunities as the components of HPWPs on HERO (i.e., the indicators of psychological capital) and work engagement; (2) the joint effects of the indicators of psychological capital on work engagement; (3) the mediating role of psychological capital in these relationships; (4) the effects of HERO and work engagement on quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance; and (5) work engagement as a mediator between HERO and the abovementioned outcomes. To achieve these objectives, data were collected from FHEs and their immediate supervisors at three different points in time with a two-week interval in Romania.

Quitting intentions refer to employees' propensity to leave the organization. Creative performance refers to employees' feedback and novel ideas generated to improve service delivery (Karatepe, 2012; Wang & Netemeyer, 2004). Extra-role performance refers to employees' discretionary behaviors aimed at going the extra mile (Netemeyer & Maxham, 2007).

1.3.2 Contribution to the Existing Knowledge Base

Investigating the interrelationships of HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance contributes to current database in the following ways. First, psychological capital is represented by the HERO dimensions. Ardichvili (2011) cogently discusses that there is a need for a deep empirical examination of psychological capital, which is an emerging construct or a personal resource in positive organizational behavior. Although it appears that there are studies which have examined the potential consequences of psychological capital, empirical research about the factors affecting psychological capital is sparse (Avey, 2014; Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu, & Hirst, 2014). Therefore, this thesis identifies seven indicators of HPWPs in light of the relevant literature and managerial practices of leading companies in the service industries and tests their joint effects on the HERO dimensions of psychological capital.

Second, it has been discussed that what types of human resource practices influence work engagement still needs additional research (Albrecht, Bakker, Gruman, Macey, & Saks, 2015). As mentioned above, this thesis has identified seven components of HPWPs. To respond to such a research call, this thesis tests their joint impacts on work engagement. Since management of hotels aims to retain employees who are highly engaged in their work, predicting the joint effects of these HPWPs on work engagement is important (cf. Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014).

Third, a number of empirical studies have examined the influence of psychological capital on various outcomes (Avey et al., 2011; Newman et al., 2014). What is less investigated in the current literature is the joint effects of the HERO dimensions of

psychological capital on employee outcomes (Gupta & Singh, 2014; Jung & Yoon, 2015; Mäkikangas et al., 2013; Paek et al., 2015). In recognition of this shortcoming in existing knowledge, this study tests the joint effects of the HERO dimensions of psychological capital on work engagement, quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance.

Fourth, it is acknowledged by practitioners that disengaged workers are unlikely to contribute to the organization and are likely to quit. For example, Lee and Ok (2015) state that 87% of employees high on work engagement are less likely to quit. With this recognition, the current thesis tests quitting intentions as one of the consequences of work engagement. Since turnover still remains an unresolved problem, ascertaining the factors that reduce quitting intentions is a priority. In addition to quitting intentions, determining the factors that trigger FHEs' creative and extra-role performances is relevant and significant. This is because of the fact that management expects FHEs to go the extra mile for surpassing customer expectations and offering novel ideas for the solution of customer problems and service improvement (Karatepe, 2013a, 2015c; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016).

Fifth, in this thesis, psychological capital and work engagement are the two mediating mechanisms. There is a need for additional research to understand the underlying mechanism through which psychological capital is associated to employee outcomes (Newman et al., 2014). There is a need for additional research to understand the mechanism that links HPWPs to employee outcomes (Alfes, Shantz, Truss, & Soane, 2013; Karatepe, 2013a; Truss, Shantz, Soane, Alfes, & Delbridge, 2013). Psychological capital and work engagement as the two mediators in this thesis respond to such calls for research.

The final contribution of this study lies in the selection of the sample. Unlike the preponderance of empirical research on psychological capital (cf. Badran & Youssef-Morgan, 2015), this thesis uses a sample of FHEs in Romania, which "...is an underrepresented country in the hospitality management literature" (Karatepe, 2015b, p. 206). In short, this thesis selected a judgmental sample of customer-contact employees in the hotel industry in Romania.

1.4 Methodology

1.4.1 Sampling Strategy

Data were collected from customer-contact employees in the hotel industry in Romania. Broadly speaking, the sample of this study was specified based on judgmental sampling, which is a non-probability sampling technique and refers to the selection of respondents considered as representative of the population (Kothari, 2004). Several criteria were used to determine the sample of the empirical study. First, this thesis included the international five- and four-star chain hotels in the study. The frequency of the implementation of various human resource practices in such hotels is better than the ones which are considered in the national hotel category in Romania (cf. Ciulu & Dragan, 2011; Karatepe, 2013a). Second, this study consisted of full-time FHEs because full-time employees do spend more time and stay longer in the service operation than the ones who have part-time jobs (Karatepe & Magaji, 2008). Third, FHEs are the ones who were included in this study. This is due to the fact that they spend much time with customers to be able to respond to their needs. They also play a crucial role in the provision of service quality, customer satisfaction, delight, and loyalty (e.g., Karatepe, 2011, 2012, 2015c). Customer-contact employees who are engaged in their work are able to generate novel ideas for service improvement and therefore enhance customer satisfaction

(Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Fourth, this study obtained data from FHEs in Romania, which is an underrepresented country in the extant hospitality research (Karatepe, 2015b).

In light of the sampling strategy mentioned above, this thesis gathered data from FHEs (i.e., front desk agents, reservations agents, waiters or waitresses, guest relations representatives, bartenders, door attendants, bell attendants, and concierges) with a two-week interval and their immediate supervisors in the international five- and four-star hotels in Romania.

1.4.2 Data Collection

There were international five- and/or four-star international chain hotels in nine cities in Romania. This information was taken from the Romanian Ministry of Regional Development and Tourism's web page. The most popular cities among domestic and international tourists are situated in the West and central region of the country. With this realization, the researcher chose Bucharest, Brasov, Sibiu, Timisoara, and Cluj as the main cities for data collection. There were two four- and one five-star hotel in Sibiu. There were 13 four- and four five-star hotels in Bucharest. There were two four-star hotels in Timisoara and one four-star hotel each in Brasov and Cluj. The researcher contacted management of these hotels through a formal letter. The letter consisted of information about the purpose of the empirical investigation and asked for permission for data collection. As a result of this, management of one five-star and one four-star hotel in Sibiu and four four-star and three five-star hotels in Bucharest provided permission to the researcher.

Although management of hotels agreed to participate in the study, they did not allow the researcher to distribute the questionnaires to their FHEs directly. Instead, their

human resource managers coordinated this process. Since this is prone to selection bias, the researcher has requested managers to distribute the questionnaires to employees in various customer-contact positions. What is explained above is consistent with the works of Karatepe (2013a) and Karatepe and Olugbade (2016).

If self-report data are used in the empirical study, there is a risk of common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Therefore, the researcher used the Time 1, Time 2, Time 3, and supervisor questionnaires as the potential remedies to minimize this risk. That is, the researcher utilized a time lag (i.e., two weeks) and multiple sources of data. These practices are in line with the works of Karatepe (2015b), Karatepe and Olugbade (2016), and Paek et al. (2015).

The researcher also utilized response-enhancing techniques (e.g., Anseel, Lievens, Schollaert, & Choragwicka, 2010). Specifically, each questionnaire has a cover page that included information about anonymity and confidentiality. The cover page also indicated that there were no rights or wrong answers to items (Podsakoff et al, 2012). All questionnaires were matched with each other through identification codes. The questionnaires were collected in sealed envelopes by the researcher. The support and coordination was obtained from management of each hotel in the sample. These practices are in agreement with the works of Karatepe and Kaviti (2016) and Karatepe and Olugbade (2016).

The components of HPWPs as well as the HERO dimensions of psychological capital were in the Time 1 questionnaire. Specifically, the selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, teamwork, and career opportunities, self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism items were in the Time 1 questionnaire. The

Time 1 questionnaire also included items about the subject profile (e.g., gender and marital status). The Time 3 questionnaire contained the quitting intentions items, while the Time 2 questionnaire included the work engagement items. The supervisor questionnaire consisted of the creative performance and extra-role performance items. A total number of 282 questionnaires were obtained at the end of the data collection.

1.4.3 Measurement

All the scale items used in this thesis were adapted from empirical studies with well-known validated measures. The components of HPWPs are selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, teamwork, and career opportunities. Sun et al.'s (2007) four-item scale was used to measure selective staffing, while job security and career opportunities each included four items, which were taken from Delery and Doty (1996). Training was measured with six items and five items were used to assess rewards. These items were taken from Boshoff and Allen (2000). Five items obtained from Coyle-Shapiro and Morrow (2003) were utilized to assess teamwork. Empowerment was measured with five items adapted from Hayes (1994). Responses to items in each of the components of HPWPs included a five-point scale (5 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree).

To measure psychological capital, this thesis used 24 items. Specifically, this thesis used the psychological capital questionnaire developed by Luthans et al. (2007). Each indicator of psychological capital was measured with six items. Responses to items in each of the indicators of psychological capital included a six-point scale (6 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree). Work engagement was measured with nine items in the shortened version of the Utrecht work engagement scale. These items

were developed by Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova (2006). A seven-point frequency rating scale (6 = always to 0 = never) was used for work engagement.

Three items from Singh, Verbeke, Rhoads (1996) were utilized to operationalize quitting intentions. Responses to the quitting intentions items included a five-point scale (5 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree). Six items adapted from Wang and Netemeyer (2004) were used to measure creative performance, while extra-role performance was measured with three items taken from Netemeyer and Maxham (2007). Responses to the creative performance items consisted of a five-point scale (5 = almost always to 1 = never), while responses to the extra-role performance items included a seven-point scale (7 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree).

Gender and organizational tenure were employed as control variables. This is due to the fact that they may act as statistical confounds. Gender was measured as a binary variable (0 = male and 1 = female). Organizational tenure was measured in five categories (1 = under 1 year, 2 = 1-5 years, 3 = 6-10 years, 4 = 11-15 years, and 5 = 16-20 years).

All items in the questionnaires were prepared based on the back-translation method (Parameswaran & Yaprak, 1987). They were originally prepared in English and then translated into Romanian. Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3 questionnaires were tested with three pilot samples of ten FHEs, while the supervisor questionnaire was tested with a pilot sample of ten supervisors in order to confirm the understandability of the items. As a result, no changes were deemed necessary.

1.4.4 Data Analysis

Using a two-step approach, this thesis assessed the overall quality in the measurement model and tested the interrelationships of HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance in the structural (hypothesized) model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Specifically, the first step included the assessment of convergent and discriminant validity and internal consistency reliability (i.e., composite reliability) via confirmatory analysis. Coefficient alpha for each observed study variable was reported (Nunnally, 1978). The second step consisted of the assessment of the relationships among the study variables. Before making such an assessment, the hypothesized model was compared with several alternative models through χ^2 difference test. The Sobel test was employed for the analysis of the mediating effects. The normality of data was reported using skewness values (Karatepe, 2015c; Lee & Yom, 2013).

Several useful fit statistics were used for both measurement and structural models. They were as follows: overall χ^2 measure (χ^2/df), comparative fit index (CFI), parsimony-normed fit index (PNFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Kelloway, 1998). The analyses were made using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) and Linear Structural Relations (LISREL) 8.30 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996).

In addition, summary statistics and correlations of observed and control variables were provided. That is, means, standard deviations, and correlations of the components of HPWPs and psychological capital, work engagement, quitting

intentions, creative performance, extra-role performance, gender, and organizational tenure were given. Frequencies were used to report respondents' profile.

1.5 Plan of the Thesis

The reader can follow the progression of the thesis over seven chapters. Chapter 1 gives details regarding the research philosophy as well as the main focus and objectives of the empirical research. This chapter also describes what this thesis adds to the relevant literature and provides information about the methodology of the empirical investigation.

Chapter 2 comprises the literature review. The literature review provides a background of HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, and the relevant job outcomes. It also delineates the relevant theoretical underpinnings. That is, it explains the JD-R model and employees' human resources attribution process needed to develop the linkages among the study variables. The research model and hypotheses are presented in chapter 3. This chapter is called 'research hypotheses'.

The methodology of the thesis is in chapter 4. This chapter explains the deductive reasoning, sampling strategy, data collection, and questionnaire structure. The measures used in the thesis are presented as well. Finally, chapter 4 delineates information about the strategy of data analysis.

Chapter 5 describes the interpretation of the results. In chapter six, theoretical and managerial implications are discussed and limitations and their future directions are offered. The last chapter in the dissertation is chapter 7, which is called 'conclusion'.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The present chapter provides further information regarding the theoretical frameworks (i.e., JD-R model and employees' human resources attribution process) the study's relationships are built on. A comprehensive review of the relevant empirical studies regarding the main constructs and their associations is also offered. That is, the researcher provides information regarding HPWPs as a bundle of performance-enhancing practices and the individual dimensions HPWPs are composed of, which are specific for FHEs. Empirical evidence is provided thoroughly regarding the HERO dimensions of psychological capital. Psychological capital's antecedents and outcomes are outlined, especially in the hospitality industry. Chapter 2 also presents employee outcomes which are significant in frontline service jobs (i.g., creative and extra-role performances, quitting intentions).

2.1 The JD-R Model

The JD-R model is employed in the present thesis as one of the theoretical frameworks. The JD-R model posits, as mentioned earlier, the two distinct types of job characteristics: job demands and resources influence work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), and burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008) which in turn influence job outcomes such as job performance and absenteeism.

Job demands designate aspects of the job, either physical, psychological or social that may entail continuous efforts and consequently similar costs. FHEs experience

job demands, for example high workload, having to respond to and handle various customers' requests, or facing role ambiguity, role conflict, which may lead to disengagement, burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). In addition, the effects of job demands on burnout are empirically demonstrated to be buffered by job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Job resources, as mentioned earlier, refer to various aspects of the job such as physical, psychological, social or organizational which can lessen job demands and, at the same time, can stimulate personal growth and development. Examples of job resources are work-social support, job security, and career opportunities (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014; Sarti, 2014) which positively affect work engagement, job embeddedness, and consequently employee outcomes (e.g., service recovery and creative performance).

The two distinct processes, included in the JD-R model, explain how the working environment, through job demands and job resources, has an impact on employees' motivation and well-being. The increased or reduced employee well-being depends on the unique features of job resources and job demands of every particular occupation.

2.1.1 The Health Impairment Process

The health impairment process of the JD-R model denotes that when high job demands are present such as role conflict, work-overload, and emotional dissonance, employees' resources decline as they have to strive harder to get things done (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Then, this leads to negative employee outcomes.

Previous studies demonstrate how various job demands heighten employees' burnout or disengagement and, in such cases, they negatively affect their work outcomes, they have even health-related consequences. For example, job demands such workload, and work-family and family-work conflicts lead to employees' burnout (Karatepe, 2013d) and consequently low job performance, quitting intentions, and health problems (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). That is, FHEs, who are confronted with different job demands, have to use most of their resources which lead to burnout, emotional exhaustion, and other negative outcomes.

Taipale et al.'s (2011) study is also consistent with previous research that demands and resources are different, especially in service industries, in comparison with the other sectors. The study conducted within European countries demonstrated that job demands reduced work engagement. However, autonomy and social support as job resources enhanced work engagement.

Disengagement, on the contrary, is predicted by perceptions of organizational politics and customer verbal aggression and triggers employees' depression (Karatepe & Ehsani, 2012). In addition, in line with the health-impairment process, Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer, and Schaufeli (2003) demonstrated how job demands (e.g., workload) trigger burnout and absence duration, and job resources (e.g., job control) enhanced employees' commitment and reduced absence frequency.

2.1.2 The Motivational Process

According to the second process of the JD-R model, the motivational process, employees have full energy, are focused-oriented and persistent in their duties/activities, when they are provided with appropriate job resources (Schaufeli,

2013). Otherwise said, providing employees with appropriate job resources, they get engrossed in their work and consequently their performance outcomes are positive and valuable (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). That is, job resources have a motivational role and they enhance both learning and growth/development, intrinsically and extrinsically.

Job resources lead to higher levels of work engagement (Suan & Nasurdin, 2016), even when job demands are present (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007), which in turn influences employees' job performance (Bakker, 2011). For example, job resources such as supervisor and coworker support and HPWPs enhance employees' outcomes (e.g., career satisfaction, job and creative performances) and negatively influence quitting intentions (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) via work engagement (Karatepe, 2012; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016). That is, the availability of job resources motivates employees to learn new things, manage various duties efficiently, be satisfied with their work, generate innovative ideas and remain with the organization.

The motivational process of the JD-R model is carried out not only via job resources but via personal resources which enhance work engagement as well. Personal resources influence work engagement individually (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009b), but also in association with job resources.

Personal resources denote "...aspects of the self that are associated with resilience and that refer to the ability to control and impact on one's environment successfully (e.g., self-efficacy, optimism and emotional stability)" (Schaufeli, 2013, p. 16). Previous studies show that job resources boost employees' personal resources such

as job resourcefulness, self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and psychological capital (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009; Medhurst & Albrecht, 2011; Xanthopoulou, et al., 2007) and such individuals display higher levels of energy, dedication and are engrossed in their work; that is, they are highly engaged in their work (Xanthopoulou et al., 2008). Empirical and conceptual evidence reporting psychological capital as a personal resource that influences work engagement (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010; Karatepe & Karadas, 2015) is present in the literature. In addition, Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) confirmed that psychological capital integrates well within the motivational process of the JD-R model.

Personal resources (e.g., psychological capital) were included within the JD-R model, as they act as an intervening role in the relationship between job resources (e.g., HPWPs) and work engagement. A number of empirical studies established that job resources fostered employees' personal resources and consequently work engagement (Llorens, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2007; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009a) which in turn boosted their creativity (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2013).

Medhurst and Albrecht (2011) postulated, in line with the JD-R model, that employee involvement climate, high-performance resources, together with psychological capital, enhanced work engagement and performance of salespersons. This demonstrates that personal resources, similar to job resources, have a positive impact on employees' motivation, more specifically, on work engagement. In addition, employees with appropriate job resources (e.g., HPWPs) and high on psychological capital fulfill their goals and shape their personal advancement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a), become engaged in their work and have positive

outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Karatepe, 2014a). Empirical evidence discussed above indicates that the JD-R model can explain the development of the relationships among the study constructs: HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, and job outcomes.

2.2 Employees' Human Resource Attribution Process

Human resource attribution process explains how employees comprehend the reasons management invests and implements in human resource practices or HPWPs. The various reasons why management selects and implements such HPWPs can determine employees to respond via different behavioral and attitudinal outcomes, based on the attributions they make (Tracey, 2012). For instance, employees' positive attributions regarding the reasons why management invests in HPWPs such as increasing service quality or caring about their employees' well-being are associated with positive attitudes and job outcomes. In the same way, employees may exhibit low or negative behaviors and job outcomes as a response to management's intention to implement such practices to reduce costs and exploit employees.

Nishii and her colleagues (2008) introduced the employees' Human Resources Attribution model. They demonstrated how employees' organizational behaviors, which led to higher customer satisfaction, represented a reaction/response to their human resources attributions, either perceived as management's desire/concern to enhance service quality and employee well-being or to reduce costs. In addition, previous studies highlight that when employees' attributions regarding management's intention to provide human resource practices are positive (Karatepe,

2014a), they display higher levels of job embeddedness, job and organizational outcomes (Tracey, 2012).

Such examples are Karatepe's (2014a) study and Mayes, Finney, Johnson, Shen, & Yi's (2016) research. Karatepe (2014a) demonstrates that FHE's attributions regarding management's intent in implementing HR practices are displayed via high levels of job embeddedness and higher job and service recovery performance, and less quitting intentions in a Cameroonian setting. Mayes et al. (2016) also show evidence that Chinese hotel employees' perceived organizational support and job satisfaction represent a response of their attributions of HRM practices such as hiring, training, and performance-based rewards.

As empirical evidence points out, we can postulate that FHEs become highly engrossed in their work, when they are encouraged to continuously develop themselves, to share their ideas and work as a team, cultivating positive attributions about the supportive work environment. This is the case when they are aware that management invests in HPWPs and retains skillful employees in order to provide high quality standards. Consequently, they display positive job outcomes such as extra-role performance and less quitting intentions. As the current thesis' relationships are developed based on the job demands-resources (JD-R) model and the human resource attribution process, the next section of the chapter comprises an overview of HPWPs (job resources), psychological capital (personal resources), work engagement, and job outcomes (e.g., quitting intentions, creative and extra-role performances).

2.3 HPWPs in the General Literature

This thesis aims to gain insights on the effects of HPWPs on FHEs' psychological capital and work engagement in Romania. This is essential, as organizations strive continuously to achieve and sustain their competitive advantage in the marketplace. Empirical studies demonstrate that this is possible via bundles of relevant human resource practices (e.g., HPWPs) which contribute to positive organizational and financial performance (Combs et al., 2006; Huselid, 1995), as they positively enhance employees' behaviors and attitudes.

When HPWPs are provided to frontline employees within organizations, they become one of the sources of competitive advantage, leading to higher service quality and organizational outcomes (Shih, Chiang, & Hsu, 2006). That is, they represent key assets of any service organization which aims to retain such talented, skillful and creative customer-contact employees, who are willing to go beyond specifications of their job descriptions (Tsaur, Wang, Yen, & Liu 2014; Victorino & Bolinger, 2012), share new ideas and implement them (Karatepe, 2015b), satisfy complaining customers (Karatepe, 2014b) and deliver excellent service quality.

The advances of human resource management literature have pointed out the critical role human resource practices (e.g., HPWPs) play for organizations by enhancing their competitive advantage (Browning, Edgar, Gray, & Garret, 2009), whereas the strategic human resource management literature (SHRM) has emphasized not only how these best practices, when properly chosen and implemented, show evidence of competitive advantage in the market place, but also how they enhance employees'

performance (Combs et al., 2006), embodying the value organizations endow to their employees (Kusluvan et al., 2010).

Early research mainly focused on the impact human resource practices have on organizational outcomes in the form of employee turnover, productivity financial measures of firm performance (Delery & Doty, 1996; Huselid, 1995) whereas the emergence of the concept of HPWPs in recent studies is specifically associated with the effects of these best practices on individual employee attitudes and behaviors (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Takeuchi, Chen, & Lepak, 2009; Zacharatos, Barling, & Iverson, 2005).

HPWPs include a set of practices that are incorporated under a so-called umbrella construct (Posthuma et al., 2013) whose aim is to develop and maintain employees' capabilities, motivation, performance and decrease quitting intentions (Huselid, 1995) which in turn enhances organizational performance. Previous studies outlined the significant role that the implementation of bundles of HPWPs simultaneously has within organizations due to their synergistic effects (Posthuma et al., 2013). In the same way, when appropriate HPWPs are employed concurrently, they strengthen each other and boost both employee (Babakus et al., 2003; Karatepe, 2013a, 2015b) and organizational performance (Boxall & Macky, 2009; Zhang & Morris, 2014).

Nevertheless, research revolves around a continuous disagreement concerning HR practices (Guest, Conway, & Dewe, 2004, Shih, et al., 2006; Kusluvan et al., 2010) that should be included within the umbrella of HPWPs that have a great impact on employees and organizational outcomes. The theoretical frameworks HPWPs belong to within the SHRM literature might influence this uncertainty. There are

fundamentally three approaches (Delery & Doty, 1996), one describing HPWPs from an universalistic point of view. That is, these practices are able to generate the same high performance outcomes in all types of sectors/industries (Kusluvan et al., 2010). The second approach, the contingency view stands for the unanimity between HPWPs and the organization's strategies, whereas the configurational approach suggests that these practices must correspond with the firm's internal everlasting structure and its strategies (Kusluvan et al., 2010).

All the same, the SHRM literature underlines the importance of applying a bundle of HPWPs within flourishing organizations (Luna-Arocas & Camps, 2008) due to their positive outcomes both for the employees and organizations. Researchers support the idea of the motivating role of HPWPs on individuals at work instead of their separate practices (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2016) based on the Ability-Motivation-Opportunity (AMO) model (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg, & Kalleberg, 2000).

The AMO model is a key theoretical model which is used to explain the relationships between HPWPs and organizational performance via employees' performance outcomes (Van de Voorde, Paauwe, & Van Veldhoven, 2012). The AMO model consists of three dimensions which are applied simultaneously to enhance employees' ability, motivation and opportunities which in turn will influence organizational performance (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2016; Zhang & Morris, 2014). That is, employees' ability and motivation can be enhanced via training and rewards practices whereas teamwork and empowerment represent the opportunities they use to be involved towards the success of the organization (Boxall & Macky, 2009).

HPWPs are described as performance-enhancing HR activities (Karatepe, 2013b) that motivate and boost employees' knowledge, skills and abilities as a sign of organization's commitment in generating long-lasting relationships (Wei, Han, & Hsu, 2010), hence retaining their skillful workforce. These long-lasting relationships develop through exchange interactions when employees perceive management's investment in HPWPs (e.g. job security, training) (Sun et al., 2007) which motivates them accordingly.

Previous studies examined and demonstrated the advantages of various components of HPWPs, carefully chosen by management, as they lead to positive employee attitudes (Bal, Kooij, & De Jong, 2013; Macky & Boxall, 2007; Takeuchi et al., 2009) and affective and behavioral job outcomes in different cultural contexts (Ashill, Rod, & Carruthers, 2008; Babakus et al., 2003; Gibbs & Ashill, 2013). For example, Ogbonnaya and Valizade's (2016) study conducted with British National Health Service employees showed that bundles of HPWPs are positively related to work engagement and job satisfaction which in turn lessened employees' absenteeism. This is due to the fact that if employees are aware of and value the managerial practices that the organization provides, they are motivated to deliver higher service quality and deal effectively with customers' demands. These practices also exhibit supportive behaviors towards their co-workers, which generate positive organizational outcomes (Chuang & Liao, 2010; Ramdani, Mellahi, Guermat, & Kechad, 2014).

The presence of HPWPs can positively affect employees' job outcomes mainly when individuals carry out their duties according to the requirements of the job (e.g., by means of person-job fit) (Boon, Den Hartog, Boselie, & Paauwe, 2011) and if they

are engaged in their work (Karatepe, 2013b). Management employs these practices because it aims to invest in employees' skills and enhance their motivation and care about their' well-being. Nevertheless, employees may also perceive that these practices are not employed as components aimed at boosting their well-being but solely for organizational performance purposes (Kroon, Van de Voorde, Van Veldhoven, 2009). For example, Jensen, Patel and Messersmith's (2013) study showed that HPWPs may not be effective if they are not accompanied by job resources (e.g., job control, autonomy) in order to decrease the impact of work demands (e.g., role overload) and lessen employees' quitting intentions. Therefore, HPWPs are significant tools that employees perceive as either expressing management's view of strategic partnership with their own workforce or as an investment to boost performance (Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015).

In this line of thought, these managerial practices (e.g., HPWPs) are viewed as either "hard" or "soft" (Storey, 1989). The 'hard' approach does not focus on employees' well-being but more on organizational efficiency based on rules and strict regulations, whereas the 'soft' approach to human resource management emphasizes management's trust in their employees' capabilities and development, which will enhance their performance through constructive efforts and actions to jointly achieve organizational goals (Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005). In short, the majority of empirical researches posit that specific bundles of HPWPs implemented within organizations in different work environments or cultural settings can represent a valuable benefit for both management and employees, a "win-win" situation for all (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2016; Zhang & Morris, 2014).

2.3.1 HPWPs in the Hospitality Management Literature

Kusluvan et al.'s (2010) review of tourism and hospitality research emphasizes that human resource practices have been discussed from two points of view, either focusing on the effects of human resource practices individually (e.g. employee selection, empowerment) on employees and organizational outcomes (Bonn & Forbringer, 1992; Sparrowe, 1994) or the impacts of several human resource management practices as a whole (Partlow, 1996; Tsaor & Lin, 2004). Kusluvan and his colleagues (2010) considered human resource practices observed in the management and hospitality literatures such as selective hiring, training, performance appraisal, self-managed teams, empowerment, and job security.

A constant noteworthy issue is underlined in the studies investigating the various bundles of HPWPs (Karatepe, 2015b; Sun et al., 2007; Zacharatos et al., 2005). The selection and implementation of a set of HPWPs is considered to have greater effect both on service employees (Chow, Haddad, & Singh, 2007; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014) and organizational outcomes (Combs et al., 2006; Huselid, 1995; Zhang & Morris, 2014).

The process of implementing a bundle of HPWPs within hospitality industry due to its specific characteristics (e.g., nature of service, type of demand, unskilled workforce) must rigorously be considered as management must adopt appropriate and ground-breaking practices (e.g., HPWPs) in order to sustain their competitive advantage (Cheng-Hua, Shyh-Yer, & Shih-Chien, 2009) by creating a resourceful environment and retaining their employees.

Considering that the success of service encounters relies on the abilities and skills of frontline employees in creating great experiences for their guests, management should invest in a set of HPWPs (Karatepe & Karadas, 2012) to retain engaged workers. For example, Tang and Tang's (2012) study shows that HPWPs (e.g., empowerment, performance appraisal, and training) develop FHEs' capabilities, motivation and opportunities which lead to organizational citizenship behaviors. Sun et al.'s (2007) study also demonstrated that HPWPs in the form of staffing, participation, mobility, training, job security, job description, appraisal and rewards directly and indirectly influenced organizational performance (e.g., turnover) via employees' organizational citizenship behaviors. Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees, & Gatenby's (2013) study also showed that perceived human resource management practices positively influenced employee engagement, and consequently led to higher levels of task performance and innovative work behavior.

The relationship between HPWPs and employees' work outcomes, directly and indirectly, by means of various mediators (e.g., work engagement), is considered in several studies, which offers a comprehensive understanding on how these associations work. More specifically, HPWPs are also considered as job resources, representing organizational characteristics of the job which are relevant in achieving work-related goals and influence employees' learning and development, boosting their work engagement and job outcomes. For example, Karatepe and Vatankhah's (2015) study illustrates that flight attendants' career satisfaction and service recovery performance are enhanced via a bundle of HPWPs, as employees feel motivated to deliver the best quality service when they are empowered and rewarded based on their actions and handling customers' complaints, and when they are aware that management cares about their well-being and future careers.

HPWPs are significant within hospitality industry as pointed out by a number of empirical studies, because FHEs who have continuous interactions with hotel guests, representing the image and the brand of their hotels need management's support via the relevant HPWPs. Karatepe's (2013b) study conducted in Romania established the indirect positive effects of training, empowerment and rewards on FHEs' job performance and extra-role customer service via work engagement. These practices are listed among the main indicators of management commitment to service quality that enhance employees' performance via job satisfaction too (Ashill et al., 2008). A number of HPWPs fostered FHEs' work engagement, in a study conducted in Nigeria (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016), which led to higher levels of service recovery and creative performances and lower absence intentions. In the same way, these HPWPs are linked to higher levels of job embeddedness (Karatepe, 2013a; Karatepe & Karadas, 2012) which consequently influenced employees' performance outcomes (e.g., service recovery performance) and diminished FHEs quitting intentions.

When HPWPs are present, FHEs acquire the necessary knowledge and skills (training) to provide an excellent customer experience, are able to act spontaneously and efficiently when needed (empowerment), feel appreciated and secure on the job (rewards and job security), are confident of the career path they are provided with (career opportunities) and are encouraged to share and collaborate with their colleagues efficiently (teamwork). Hence these practices can boost employees' personal resources, attitudes and performance. Such a supportive work environment, where HPWPS are provided, can be indicative of organizational support (Chuang & Liao, 2010; Mayes et al., 2016). In such a situation, Gupta and Singh (2010) conceptualized that employees' personal resources (e.g., psychological capital) are positively influenced by HPWPs.

Management should make available a bundle of HPWPs to boost employees' personal resources (Karatepe, 2015a) their job satisfaction, commitment (Macky & Boxall, 2007), and engagement (Karatepe, 2013b) so that employees generate new ideas, perform above their role descriptions, and are willing to stay on the job. For example, Yavas, Karatepe, and Babakus's (2011) study demonstrated that when hotel management provides job resources (e.g. training, empowerment), and FHEs' personal resources fit with the specific job, they perform at higher levels and show less quitting intentions. That is, employees' personal resources (e.g., self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation) are enhanced in a supportive work environment where human resource practices should not be scarce in order to stimulate employees to deliver service quality and address customers' complaints in line with the organizational values (Karatepe, 2015a). As a result, this thesis focuses on selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, teamwork, and career opportunities as the components of HPWPs which are considered relevant and important for customer-contact employees in the hotel industry.

2.3.2 Selective Staffing

Through selective staffing, service organizations are able to hire employees based on definite criteria to make sure they possess the knowledge, skills and abilities (Hinkin & Tracey, 2010) that are required for the specific job, especially for frontline positions. Previous research has investigated the importance of selective staffing as one of the components of HPWPs in the hospitality industry (Davidson, McPhail, & Barry, 2011; Karatepe, 2013 a, b).

Tracey's (2014) review illustrates that previous research paid attention to how recruitment and selection practices have positive effects on prospective and /or current employees' attitudes and behaviors on the job. A comprehensive and/or

selective staffing, through which prospective employees fit the requirements of the service job, enables management to minimize employees' quitting intentions and boost their performance (Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2015).

As a one of the HPWPs, selective staffing aims at hiring individuals who match the requirements of the job and organization's values and culture (Schneider & Bowen, 1995). This practice inspires not only prospective but also current employees to deliver excellent service quality by developing their capabilities and knowledge (Tang & Tang, 2012) for their own benefits as well as the benefit of the organization. Selective staffing takes into consideration individuals' skills, knowledge and professional backgrounds (Huselid, 1995) as well as their attitudes and personalities. Such hiring procedures ensure that the selection of the most skillful employees who are able to deliver the best service quality concurs with company's goals and objectives.

When service organizations implement selective staffing, employees become aware of management's commitment to high service quality standards that are needed to achieve organizational goals. At the same time, management expresses their care for their internal customers' well-being via the implementation of selective staffing.

Selective staffing, along with other HPWPs, is identified in previous hospitality studies to enhance employees' work engagement, job embeddedness, and job outcomes (e.g., creative performance and service recovery performance) (Karatepe, 2013a; Karatepe, Baradarani, Ghasemi, Ilkhanizadeh, & Raoofi, 2014). Therefore, management of hotels which selects and hires a pool of customer-contact employees who have unique skills, abilities and personality traits (e.g., psychological capital)

that fit the requirements of the job is more likely to enhance employees' work engagement and performance (e.g., creative performance), and at the same time lessen their quitting intentions.

2.3.3 Job Security

Job security is also considered an important component of HPWPs (Delery & Doty, 1996; Pfeffer, 1995) as it denotes a lasting agreement on behalf of the organization (Zacharatos, et al., 2005). As far as job security is concerned, employees assess their position based on the characteristics of the work environment and they recognize that they can keep working on the job as long as they intend to, having no fear of being dismissed (Zeytingoglu, et al., 2012). Consequently, employees become loyal to their organization and perform better as a response to management's commitment to them in the form of job security (Delery & Doty, 1996; Pfeffer, 1998).

Previous research investigated the role job security plays for both employees and organizations. Job security enhances employees' motivation (Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005), their commitment to organizations (Luna-Arocas & Camps, 2008) and also their intentions to stay on the job (Zeytinoglu et al., 2012). In their study, Zacharatos and his colleagues (2005) also illustrate how the availability of job security, together with selective staffing, teamwork, was positively linked to occupational safety, as employees develop trust in their management, become loyal to the organization and do their best to perform with a minimum level of accidents. Moreover, the effect of job security jointly implemented with other HPWPs (e.g., training, empowerment, performance appraisal) positively affect hotel employees' attitudes (Chow et al., 2007; Hancer & George, 2003) (e.g., job satisfaction, morale) and job outcomes such as creative and service recovery performances (Karatepe et al., 2014; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014).

Management of hotels is highly aware of how important job security is in today's workforce, as "provision of greater job security in the hospitality industry, where job insecurity is still a major problem, would enhance management's capability to hire and retain desirable employees" (Karatepe, 2013b, p. 97). Therefore, the implementation of job security as one of the dimensions of HPWPs may enhance employees' psychological capital and work engagement.

2.3.4 Training

Training, as one of the key components of HPWPs, is considered along with empowerment and rewards to be among the top six human resource practices (Boselie, Dietz, & Boon, 2005). Service organizations make available training programs whose aim is to develop employees' job-related skills and behaviors that are significant in establishing high levels of service quality (Pfeffer, 1998; Yang, Wan, & Fu 2012).

Training, empowerment, and rewards are also critical components of HPWPs in the hospitality industry which are essential to be implemented simultaneously (Karatepe & Karadas, 2012). That it is, frontline employees who are trained and empowered to satisfy/delight customers and provide high quality services need to be appreciated and rewarded (Karatepe, 2013a, b).

New and current hotel employees require continuous training programs to be able to identify and deal with various customers' needs and demands (Boshoff & Allen, 2000; Karatepe, Yavas, & Babakus, 2007). As employees develop their skills and knowledge necessary in frontline jobs, they are satisfied with their jobs and they become committed to their organization (Gu & Siu, 2009; Lee, Nam, Park, & Lee, 2006; Karatepe et al., 2007). Not only do they become more engaged in their work

(Karatepe, 2013a; Suan & Nasrudin, 2014), and have higher levels of job embeddedness (Karatepe & Karadas, 2012) as they are provided with such job resources, that are intended to assist them in delivering high service quality, but they also perform at higher levels and show less turnover intentions (Yavas et al., 2011).

The availability of HPWPs such as training programs within service organizations can be a source of competitive advantage (Browning et al., 2009). Therefore, management of hotels should implement continuous employee training programs, along with practices such as empowerment and rewards, through which they can communicate their commitment to service quality (Karatepe & Karadas, 2012) so that employees are able to respond to their customers' requests and complaints successfully (Yavas, Karatepe, & Babakus, 2010).

2.3.5 Empowerment

Empowerment represents the discretion given to employees to decide and perform efficiently by delivering high service quality, satisfying customers' requests and complaints successfully (Babakus et al., 2003; Karatepe, 2013c). The role of empowerment for frontline employees is significant as they interact directly with customers and they need to act immediately to respond to their customers' needs and satisfy them accordingly (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). The availability of empowerment leads to higher service quality, immediate customer-solving problems, and a great motivated workforce (Lashley, 1995).

The authority and responsibility that management provides to its employees for the service delivery process should be accompanied with training programs (Babakus et al., 2003) where employees develop their skills and knowledge to be able to exercise their own decisions. Empowered employees need to use their knowledge and skills

when faced with diverse customer encounters. Therefore, they exhibit higher service recovery performance (Ashill et al., 2008; Yavas, Karatepe, Avci, & Tekinkus, 2003) and extra-role customer service (Lee et al., 2006; Karatepe & Karadas, 2012) than the non-empowered employees. For example, Karatepe and Karadas's (2012) research demonstrated the positive effects of empowerment together with training and rewards practices on employees' job embeddedness and service recovery performance. In addition, recent studies pointed out that empowered employees who are offered training and rewards are more engaged in their work (Karatepe, 2013a) as they have the energy and dedication to manage any job-related events and exercise the authority and responsibility given to them.

Empowered employees are the ones who can delight and bring back complaining customers. For that reason, they demonstrate higher job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Chow et al., 2007; He, Murrmann, & Perdue, 2010; Yang, 2010) because through empowerment, management shows that it cares about their employees, believes in employees and values employees' inputs for the success of the organization. For example, Meng and Han's (2014) study showed that empowerment had positive effects on hotel employees' job satisfaction, which enhanced their organizational commitment and decreased their quitting intentions.

2.3.6 Rewards

High-performance service organizations that view their employees as valuable assets and provide them with practices such as training and empowerment need to reward them in order to better motivate them to deliver higher quality service (Karatepe, 2013a), establishing long-lasting relationships and retaining them (Karatepe & Karadas, 2012; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014).

Yavas et al. (2011) described rewards as “inducement employees receive from their organizations, including compensation, esteem, status, and social identity” (p.306).

FHEs must be able to provide immediate responses to customers’ needs (empowerment), know how to solve their complaints successfully (training). Accordingly, FHEs should be rewarded. These practices altogether are evidence of management’s commitment to service quality (Ashill, Carruthers, & Krisjanous, 2005). In addition, previous studies point out that when employees are acknowledged and rewarded based on their outstanding performance, they become committed to their organization and have higher levels of job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2006). Moreover, management provides indicators of HPWPs such as rewards systems as a sign that they value and appreciate their staff’s efforts and accomplishments. Consequently, employees are motivated to perform better and have less quitting intentions (Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014; Yavas et al., 2011).

2.3.7 Career Opportunities

Management is able to attract and retain talented employees by offering career opportunities as a resourceful environment enhances individuals’ work engagement (Karatepe, 2013a), job embeddedness, and job outcomes (Karatepe et al., 2014; Karatepe & Karadas, 2012; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014). As shown in Karatepe and Vatankhah’s (2015) study, career opportunities were one of the most significant components of HPWPs for flight attendants in Iran together with empowerment, selective staffing, rewards, job security, teamwork, and training, because employees value the opportunities management provides them for their career growth.

Career opportunities are significant for service employees. This is critical because employees develop skills and knowledge in line with their future plans and also with

the organization's goals and objectives. Recent studies have provided managerial implications for service organizations (Karatepe, 2013b) which must take into account the importance of such practices in order to be able to attract, select, and retain the right employees for the job.

2.3.8 Teamwork

Teamwork designates employees' agreement and willingness to join their skills and efforts to work efficiently (Coyle-Shapiro & Morrow, 2003) and motivate each other so that they can reach their goals successfully. Browning et al.'s (2009) study identified teamwork among the main indicators of human resource practices (recruitment and selection, training and development, communication) which are implemented by large high-performance organizations. Teamwork also increases employees' communication, and awareness that one's action may affect the other members of the team. Therefore, they act with precaution and rely on each other to deal efficiently and precisely with the situations they encounter (Zacharatos et al., 2005).

Recent studies investigated the positive effects of teamwork, along with other components of HPWPs (e.g., empowerment, job security, career opportunities), on employee commitment and motivation (Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005), intentions to stay on the job (Karatepe & Vatanakhah, 2014), and creative and service recovery performances (Karatepe et al., 2014). Frontline hotel jobs also require the availability of teamwork practice as such employees need to rely on and communicate with each member of their team in order to efficiently interact with each other and exchange information to assist them in serving customers and delivering high service quality.

2.4 HERO Dimensions

The present study takes into consideration personal resources that positively influence individuals' attitudes and behaviors within the working environment. Luthans and Youssef (2007) introduced such personal resources as part of positive organizational behavior, more specifically, within the positive psychology at work. Positive psychology has emerged from a conceptual and empirical interest in the strengths, capacities of individuals that can improve their life in comparison with all the attention the literature has given only to the negative characteristics and their outcomes. The focus has been more on what was going wrong rather than what characteristics can determine people to thrive and succeed in every aspect of their life. This is how the positive approach to organizational behavior emerged.

Positive organizational behavior is defined as “the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace” (Luthans, 2002, p. 59). There are several criteria positive concepts have to adhere to as part of positive organizational behavior: they must possess a theory-research base and a validated measure, have to be open to development (i.e., be “statelike” vs. “traitlike”) and positively influence desirable employee attitudes and behaviors (Luthans, 2012). Therefore, Youssef-Morgan (2014) considered that positive organizational behavior is a research-based approach on its own and its outstanding significance resides in the accuracy measurement mentioned above, work-performance related outcomes and its openness to development.

The positive constructs that incorporated the above-mentioned criteria well are the HERO dimensions of psychological capital which, when combined, have been empirically established to represent a high-order construct (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). The four acknowledged positive psychological resources, the so-called HERO (Luthans, 2012) constructs, use the indicators representing the psychological capital. Psychological capital is grounded in theory and research, has valid measures, is described as open to development, and has positive effects on attitudes and performance (Luthans et al., 2007). Moreover, psychological capital has been conceptualized as a second-order factor (Luthans, et al., 2007) consisting of the shared variance between them. The fundamental theoretical system that joins the four concepts under the umbrella of psychological capital was described as a “positive appraisal of circumstances and probability for success based on motivated effort and perseverance” (Luthans et al., 2007, p. 550).

2.4.1 Hope

Hope was portrayed by Snyder, Irving, and Anderson (1991) as encompassing two dimensions: agency and pathways. Recently, hope was specifically acknowledged as referring to “the successful goal oriented determination (agency) and planning to meet these goals (pathways)” (Karatepe, 2014b, p. 679). Both agency and pathways facets of hope (Snyder, 2002) help individuals develop challenging goals and objectives which they pursue with dedication, finding resourceful ways to achieve them (Luthans et al., 2007). For example, Rego, Machado, Leal, and Cunha (2009) demonstrate that employees high on hope have greater work creativity directly and indirectly via happiness. Such employees, with high levels of hope, are prone to think independently (Luthans et al., 2007) and determine pathways to reach their goals even in the most complex situations. They possess the willpower to perform

successfully in various circumstances, and use various perspectives to generate novel ideas (Zhou & George, 2003) to handle unique encounters or problems in the workplace.

Empirical evidence established the effects of hope, as a personality trait and as one of the dimensions of psychological capital, on employees' performance outcomes and job satisfaction in different environmental settings (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009; Karatepe, 2014b; Luthans, et al., 2007). For instance, Karatepe's (2014b) research conducted in Romania with FHEs and their supervisors established that hopeful individuals are able to distinguish among various ways to deal with tasks, service encounters and events and dedicate themselves to work. Such hopeful and engaged employees display higher creativity (Rego, Sousa, Marques, & Cunha, 2012) and performance outcomes (e.g. service recovery performance, job performance, and extra-role customer service).

Recent hospitality-related studies also emphasize the significant role hope plays for FHEs. Jung and Yoon's (2015) study showed that hope and optimism significantly influenced hotel employees' job satisfaction, whereas organizational citizenship behaviors were mainly influenced by hope and resilience. Moreover, hotel employees with high levels of hope can perform in demanding circumstances when hindrance stressors and exhaustion arise, and as a result, show lower levels of quitting intentions (Yavas, Karatepe, & Babakus, 2013).

2.4.2 Optimism

Optimism, as a personality trait, was characterized as a propensity to expect positive outcomes (Carver, Scheier, Miller, & Fulford, 2009). Individuals attribute these positive events to personal, enduring and constant origins whereas the negative

situations are considered external and temporary (Seligman, 1998). Optimistic individuals believe that it is their actions that generate the positive outcomes, not the external forces, and they keep being motivated and strive to do their best to succeed (Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Li, 2005).

A number of empirical studies investigated the effects of individuals' optimism on various positive behaviors and other outcomes. For example, Simons and Buitendach's (2013) study demonstrated that optimism is positively related with call center employees' work engagement and organizational commitment in South Africa. Optimistic employees assess themselves and the current and/or future events from a realistic perspective (Luthans et al., 2007) and they become highly satisfied with their work (Kaplan & Bickes, 2013; Luthans, Avolio et al., 2007), showing less turnover intentions (Chow et al., 2007).

The literature emphasizes the significant role that optimism has not only for employees but also for organizations, as individuals with high levels of optimism are engaged in their work and they are satisfied with their job, career and life in general (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015).

2.4.3 Self-Efficacy

Within the work environment, efficacy was defined as "one's belief about his or her ability to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action necessary to execute a specific action within a given context" (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p. 66). That is, employees with high levels of self-efficacy are confident in their capabilities and skills they need to carry out various tasks.

Previous studies showed that self-efficacious service employees, who are able to cope successfully with diverse situations and encounters in their work environment, are more satisfied with their jobs, display greater job performance (Luthans et al., 2007), less absence behaviors (Borgogni, Russo, Miraglia, & Vecchione, 2013), and more commitment (Niu, 2010). Moreover, employees who possess such personal resources become more engaged in their work (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009; Salanova, Llorens, & Schaufeli, 2011; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a) and display higher extra-role performance (Salanova, Lorente, Chambel, & Martinez, 2011).

Simbula, Guglielmi, and Schaufeli's (2011) longitudinal study showed the significant effects of job resources and self-efficacy of Italian schoolteachers on work engagement over time. In the same line, Ouweneel, Schaufeli, and Le Blanc's (2013) study revealed that students with high-levels of self-efficacy had higher engagement and consequently greater performance in the long run, as they are confident in their abilities via personal resources which are essential to persevere and succeed in their work.

2.4.4 Resilience

The concept of resilience was widely researched in the literature. However, its conceptualization within the work environment was first characterized by Luthans (2002) as "the developable capacity to rebound or bounce back from adversity, conflict, and failure, or even positive events, progress, and increased responsibility" (p. 702). Resilient employees are able to perform successfully and cope with various problems, challenging encounters and work-related issues even when obstacles arise (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006; Luthans et al., 2007). Therefore, such service employees become satisfied with their work (Kaplan & Bickes, 2013;

Luthans et al., 2007) and their life in general (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015) as they have confidence in their ability to address and effectively surmount any failure or drawback.

Employees who possess such personality traits become engaged in their work (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015), especially when management makes available job resources ready such as HPWPs (Cooke, Cooper, Bartram, Wang, & Mei, 2016). Cooke et al. (2016) demonstrated that HPWPs enhanced bank employees' resilience which in turn led to higher levels of work engagement. In addition, when employees possess high levels of resilience they exhibit capabilities which determine them to deal successfully with various work-related stressors and remain within the organization (Larrabee et al., 2010). They are endowed with the ability to adapt themselves to any given circumstances in order to succeed. Considering all the above-mentioned empirical support regarding each dimension, we comply with Luthans (2012) and support the idea that psychological capital designates "who we are, the HERO that lies within us" (p. 7).

2.4.5 Psychological Capital

According to Youssef-Morgan (2014), practitioners and scholars are provided with an accurate agenda and an extensive variety of solutions/insights via psychological capital research, which can be implemented for the improvement of human resources within organizations. In addition, Luthans, Luthans, and Luthans (2004) strongly state that psychological capital must be implemented within organizations as positive psychological resources ("*who I am*") can represent a unique competitive advantage in a competitive working environment for a superior performance.

Conceptual and empirical support for psychological capital, as a second-order construct (Luthans et al., 2007), was widely discussed in relation with constructs such as job satisfaction, job performance and quitting intentions (Avey, Patera, & West, 2006; Avey et al., 2011) rather than its individual dimensions. Moreover, researchers advocate that psychological capital contributes not only to positive individual and organizational outcomes but also to employees' well-being (Culbertson, Fullagar, & Mills, 2010; Gruman & Saks, 2013; Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2015).

An examination of the literature shows that an additional in-depth research regarding predictors of psychological capital (Avey, 2014; Avey et al., 2011; Luthans, 2012; Mäkikangas et al., 2013; Newman et al., 2014; Rus & Baban, 2013) is needed. According to Avey's (2014) research, there are at least four potential types of antecedents such as trait-like individual differences, leadership styles, job characteristics, and demographics. Among the antecedents of psychological capital, recent studies also ascertained positive emotions (Siu, Cheung, & Lui, 2015), perceived organizational justice (Hur, Rhee, & Ahn, 2015), job crafting (Vogt, Hakanen, Brauchli, Jenny & Bauer, 2015), person-organization fit, and person-job fit (Tong, Wang, & Peng, 2015) as a supportive working environment improves individuals' psychological capital and boosts their performance.

The bundle of empirical and conceptual studies provides a clear image of the main predictors of psychological capital in the literature. Therefore, the researcher outlines the gaps that need to be investigated for a thorough understanding of what influences employees' psychological capital. Moreover, the acknowledgement of psychological capital's antecedents may provide useful information for organizations

in order to identify, promote and enhance employees' psychological capital and their performance (Newman et al., 2014).

Previous studies indicate that psychological capital is predicted by leadership styles (Bouckenoghe, Zafar, & Raja, 2015; Gupta & Singh, 2014; Hsiao, Lee, & Chen, 2015; McMurray, Pirola-Merlo, Sarros, & Islam, 2010; Rego, Sousa, Marques, & Cuncha, 2012), supportive climate (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008), and perceived external prestige (Mathe & Scott-Halsell, 2012). Followers' psychological capital is also demonstrated to be influenced by leaders' psychological capital (Avey, Avolio, & Luthans, 2011; Chen, 2015; Walumba, Peterson, Avolio, & Hartnell, 2010) which consequently generates higher levels of engagement and job performance (Bouckenoghe et al., 2015; Chen, 2015).

In addition, servant leadership was shown to determine employees' psychological capital within the hotel industry in Taiwan, and consequently, their personal resources affected service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior and customer value co-creation (Hsiao et al., 2015). Therefore, organizations with various leadership styles, which devote themselves to develop employees' psychological resources, are able to enhance employees' psychological capital (Avey et al., 2011; Hsiao et al., 2015) and boost their positive behaviors and job performance too.

The positive effect of psychological capital on employee performance (Luthans et al., 2007) was also outlined by Luthans et al.'s (2008) study as supportive organizational climate predicted employees' psychological capital and consequently their job performance. As mentioned above, research shows that leaders' psychological capital influences employee psychological capital (*follower*) which enhances job

engagement (Chen, 2015) and job performance (Avey et al., 2011; Walumba et al., 2010). Leaders high on psychological capital are able to develop and stimulate followers' psychological resources thus motivating them to engage in their jobs and show higher job performance (Avey et al., 2011; Chen, 2015) than individuals low on psychological capital. In addition, Hur et al. (2015) demonstrated that distributive and procedural justice fostered and enhanced employees' psychological capital as individuals' perceptions of organizational justice can influence their personal resources in order to cope with deep acting and emotional exhaustion on the job.

As a positive psychological resource, psychological capital is also able to explain the relationship between employees' person-job fit and burnout dimensions (e.g. cynicism and inefficacy) (Tong et al., 2015). Empirical research also highlighted the role that psychological capital plays on conflicts in the work-family interface and absence and withdrawal intentions for FHEs in Romania (Karatepe & Karadas, 2014) as employees who possess such personal resources are able to find ways to cope and overcome challenging situations both at work and at home and choose to stay on the job. Employees with high levels of psychological capital are optimistic, confident and motivated to find novel ways to surpass any difficulties that might arise hence showing greater creativity (Huang & Luthans, 2015) and satisfaction in all walks of life (e.g., career and life satisfaction) (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Ngo, Foley, Ji, & Loi, 2014).

In line with the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001), psychological capital and work well-being also mediate the relationship between employees' positive emotions and quitting intentions among police officers in China as positive emotions on the job help employees to develop and maintain their personal resources which in

turn lessen their quitting intentions (Siu et al., 2015). Personal resources such as self-efficacy, resilience, hope, and optimism also enhance employees' work engagement (Cooke et al., 2016; Karatepe, 2014a; van den Heuvel, Demerouti, Schreurs, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2009; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a, b).

Nevertheless, research related to second-order personality concepts such as psychological capital and work engagement calls for additional consideration (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Makikangas et al., 2013; Paek et al., 2015; Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Service organizations must acquire and retain frontline employees high on psychological capital and work engagement because such employees are satisfied with their work (Paek et al., 2015) and life in general (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Karatepe & Karadas, 2015). In addition, Newman et al.'s (2014) review considered the main antecedents and outcomes of psychological capital and its intervening role between different variables. They pointed out that the existent knowledge regarding HPWPs and psychological capital at work should also be improved in order to assist management to attract and retain employees with high levels of psychological capital.

Recent empirical research established association between psychological capital and employees' attitudinal and performance outcomes, especially in the service industry (Youssef-Morgan, 2014, Paek et al., 2015) such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, (Larson & Luthans, 2006; Luthans et al., 2008; Luthans et al., 2007) as well as turnover intentions, absenteeism, and cynicism (Avey et al., 2011; Avey et al., 2006; Avey, Wernsing, & Luthans, 2008; Avey et al., 2009; Karatepe & Karadas, 2015). For example, employees with high levels of psychological capital display higher levels of job satisfaction (Badran & Youssef-Morgan, 2015) and

organizational citizenship behaviors (Jung & Yoon, 2015). Paek and her colleagues (2015) also showed evidence that FHEs' psychological capital has direct and indirect effects on affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction via work engagement in a Korean setting. That is, when individuals possess such psychological resources, they make use of their positive evaluations of past and future endeavors, their resilient efforts to overcome drawbacks, their motivation and new paths of dealing with various tasks and customers' demands and they become satisfied with their work. For example, FHEs in Romania high on psychological capital (personal resources) display higher work engagement, as they are engrossed and dedicated to their work and they are satisfied with both their work and their life in general (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015).

Regarding the link between psychological capital and employees' creativity (e.g. creative performance), the literature consists of a handful of empirical studies. More specifically, psychological resources such as psychological capital affect individuals' creativity (Huang & Luthans, 2015; Rego et al., 2009) as they are able to explore new paths, opportunities in order to achieve their goals as well as they are determined and resilient even in challenging times. Such employees have positive attributions about the work they do and have confidence they can generate new ideas. Therefore, they have higher creative performance (Sweetman, Luthans, Avey, & Luthans, 2011).

Continuing on the same grounds, empirical evidence indicates a significant association between psychological capital and turnover intentions (Avey et al., 2011). More specifically, employees' psychological capital reduces both involuntary absenteeism (Avey et al., 2006) and quitting intentions (Avey et al., 2009; Karatepe

& Karadas, 2015) as the intent to stay on the job is stronger for individuals who have positive attributions regarding their future, are confident and resilient in any type of situation, being able to find new ways to deal with unfavorable events or customers.

2.5 Work engagement

The three dimensions which represent the work engagement construct are vigor, dedication, and absorption. Vigor embodies "... high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties", and dedication stands for "... a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge" (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). Individuals with a great amount of energy (vigor) and dedication intend to spend all their efforts and abilities in order to get their work done. They demonstrate resilience and determination to succeed as they take pride in what they do, being motivated by their work (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

The third dimension of work engagement, absorption denotes "... being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work" (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 75). That is, employees become so focused on their work-related duties or activities without realizing how time passes.

The present thesis, like a bulk of studies, especially in the hospitality management literature, takes on Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) conceptualization of work engagement for several reasons. Work engagement, as a motivational construct (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008), was demonstrated both conceptually and empirically to have significant and positive associations with employee attitudes and behaviors. In

addition, practitioners and academicians (Mäkikangas et al., 2013; Mills et al., 2013; Paek et al., 2015) urge for an extended investigation of work engagement as one of the critical constructs in the positive occupational health psychology (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Schaufeli et al.'s (2006) shortened version of the original UWES scale (i.e., UWES-9), which is used in the present research, was empirically validated and vastly applied within positive organizational behavior and hospitality management literatures (e.g., Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012; Paek et al., 2015).

Empirical studies show that employees' engagement is triggered by job resources, in line with the JD-R model as these resources make them feel enthusiastic, have full energy and dedication in everything they do. Research shows that job resources positively affect work engagement such that Spanish and Dutch employees who were provided with job control and social support became engaged in their work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Llorens et al., 2006). Ng and Tay's (2010) research also demonstrated that individuals' work engagement and job performance (e.g., extra-role performance) increased when social support and control employees had over their jobs allowed them to do so.

The hospitality management studies highlight that work engagement is positively determined by job resources because service employees, who are provided with a supportive work environment or constant support from their supervisors and/or coworkers, are more engaged in their work and display positive job outcomes (Karatepe, 2012; Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016). Supervisor support, as a job resource, also heightened work engagement for a sample of FHE's in Malaysia, especially for the male personnel (Suan & Nasurdin, 2016). In addition to job resources, empirical studies confirmed that personal resources

preceded work engagement, and their intervening role between job resources and work engagement was considered a part of the motivational process of the JD-R model. For example, employees' optimism, self-efficacy, and optimism influenced their work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; Karatepe, 2014b).

Barbier, Hansez, Chmiel, and Demerouti (2013) demonstrated that work engagement was predicted by perceived supervisory and organizational support, and personal resources (e.g., optimism) because when job resources are present, employees' personal resources increase which consequently lead to higher work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Employees with positive psychological resources (e.g., psychological capital) and equipped with the necessary job resources do not only display higher work engagement but also positive job outcomes (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Medhurst & Albrecht, 2011).

Previous studies also establish that work engagement can act as mediator between personal resources and both employees' in-role and extra-role performances (Xanthopoulou et al., 2008). Karatepe's (2014b) study also illustrated that FHEs with high levels of hope were highly engaged in their work, which consequently enhanced their work performance (e.g. job, service recovery and extra-role performances). As a result, researchers should reach an in-depth grasp/understanding regarding the antecedents and the consequences of work engagement.

2.6 Employees' Job Outcomes

The last section of the literature review concentrates on three essential employees' job outcomes. Creative performance and extra-role performance are the two

consequences of work engagement, conceptually and empirically supported, as employees with high levels of psychological capital and who are engaged in their work can generate new ideas and they go beyond their role descriptions to deliver the best quality service to their customers (Karatepe, 2014b). Creative performance and extra-role performance are also among the critical performance outcomes in frontline service jobs (Karatepe, 2012; Karatepe, 2013a; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016). In order to sustain their competitive advantage in the market place, service organizations must find ways to boost employees' personal resources (e.g., psychological capital) and work engagement in order to decrease quitting intentions (Xanthopoulou et al., 2008).

2.6.1 Creative Performance

Researchers often convey that service employees' creativity is essential, especially for FHEs (Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014), as through their creative performance they are able to generate new ideas and different ways of solving customers' demands, even before the guests know what they are looking for. Examining what triggers employees' creative performance is beneficial for service organizations, which can shape the working environment to promote their staff's creativity for better service quality and sustain their competitive advantage.

Creative performance denotes "...the amount of new ideas generated and novel behaviors exhibited...in performing... job activities" (Wang & Netemeyer, 2004, p. 806). Recent studies investigated various antecedents of creative performance, emphasizing that a supportive work environment (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016) which enhances employees' personal resources and work engagement (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Sweetman & Luthans, 2010) triggers employees' performance (e.g., creative performance).

Empirical evidence related to job resources (e.g., HPWPs) and creativity attracts the attention of both academicians and practitioners (Gupta, 2014). For example, Gupta (2014) conceptualized the positive relations between HRM practices, psychological capital, and employees' creativity. Rego et al.'s (2012) research demonstrate that authentic leadership enhances both employees' psychological capital and creativity in Portugal, as authentic leaders encourage employees to be creative using their psychological resources which influence their creativity.

There is also scarce conceptual and empirical evidence regarding the effects of psychological capital on positive outcomes such as employees' creativity (Gupta, 2014; Huang & Luthans, 2015; Sweetman et al., 2011). Moreover, additional investigation regarding the effects of the HERO dimensions of psychological capital and work engagement on creative performance (Avey et al., 2011; Newman et al., 2014) would provide management of hotels with practical solutions in order to foster employees' creativity. Employees' work engagement was empirically shown to have a positive effect on creative performance in different settings (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2013), along with other positive outcomes (e.g., service recovery performance) (Karatepe, 2012, 2014b). That is, only when FHEs are engrossed in their tasks and activities, they are able develop new ways of dealing with their guests' requests in order to delight and retain them as loyal customers.

2.6.2 Extra-Role Performance

Successful and high-performance service organizations aim at attracting and retaining skillful employees who are able to provide service quality beyond customers' expectations (Solnet et al., 2010). Extra-role performance denotes the extent to which FHEs go beyond their standard job descriptions in delivering high quality customer service (Netemeyer & Maxham, 2007).

A number of studies were concerned with the specific job characteristics or resources that determine or motivate employees to exhibit extra-role behaviors (Sulea et al., 2012) or performance (Karatepe, 2012). For example, Sulea and her colleagues (2012) demonstrated that perceived organizational supported enhanced employees' work engagement and consequently organizational citizenship behaviors representing extra-role behaviors. In the same line, Choo's (2016) study showed that hotel employees' work engagement in Malaysia intervened between human resource practices and organizational citizenship behavior.

In addition, work engagement was shown to mediate the relationship between personal resources and extra-role performance. Specifically, employees with high levels of self-efficacy displayed higher levels of work engagement which consequently had positive impacts on their extra-role performance (Salanova et al., 2011). Moreover, polychronic FHEs in Northern Cyprus displayed extra-role customer service only via the intervening role of work engagement (Karatepe, Karadas, Azar, & Naderiadib, 2013), because only when they are highly engaged, they are able to deliver excellent service quality to their guests.

2.6.3 Quitting Intentions

It is strongly supported that turnover has always been and still is a major threat for organizations, especially within hospitality industry. Practitioners and researchers address the issue of turnover constantly (Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012; Slåtten, Svensson, & Sværi, 2011) due to its negative organizational consequences. Retaining service employees for long-term is a top priority for management as organizations should carefully consider the risks of losing key personnel and all the deficiency this might bring (Moshin, Lenglerb, & Kumar, 2013). Therefore, a comprehensive examination of the antecedents that diminish employees' quitting

intentions is encouraged because turnover rates, especially in the hospitality industry, are generated by the difficulties of the job such as long working hours, poor pay, lack of motivation, and job dissatisfaction (Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum, & Tekin, 2013; Karatepe & Uludag, 2008). Quitting intentions describe employees' disposition to leave an organization (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & De Chermont, 2003).

Empirical studies in various industries show that quitting intentions can be alleviated when employees display positive psychological resources and when they are engrossed in their work. Therefore, management should be able to provide a working environment where employees feel motivated and hence are willing to stay on the job. For example, Shahpouri, Namdari, and Abedi's (2016) research showed that personal resources (e.g., optimism, self-efficacy) have a positive impact on work engagement for a sample of female nurses and a negative effect on their quitting intentions. The HERO dimensions of psychological capital also lessen employees' turnover intentions (Avey et al., 2009; Avey et al., 2011). Engaged employees in a higher education institution in a South African setting also presented less quitting intentions (Takawira, Coetzee, & Schreuder, 2014), which supported previous studies (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

FHEs who are engrossed in their work, feeling energized, dedicated and absorbed in their work also display less quitting intentions as they are motivated to remain on the job and contribute to the company's success (Karatepe, 2014b, 2015c). Therefore, further investigation of personal resources (e.g. HERO dimensions of psychological capital) and work engagement within the hospitality management literature can provide a better understanding how service organizations can take action in order to combat turnover.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses development, which emerges from two main theoretical frameworks, is offered in the current chapter. The mediating role of employees' psychological capital in the relationship between the components of HPWPs and work engagement is described. The relationship between psychological capital and the selected job outcomes is explained via employees' work engagement. Both psychological capital and work engagement are the two mediating variables in the study model.

3.1 Model Development

Two main theoretical frameworks are the foundations of the present study: the JD-R model and the human resource attribution process. Psychological capital links HPWPs to work engagement, which in turn leads to desirable outcomes such as lower quitting intentions, good creative and extra-role performances.

As observed, job resources play a motivational role as they influence employees' learning and development. HPWPs enhance thus employees' personal resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008), and consequently their work engagement is elevated. Employees who display high levels of psychological capital and are provided with job resources (e.g., HPWPs) are dedicated to their tasks, feel happy and absorbed in their activities and interactions with their customers. This motivational process encourages them to display positive outcomes.

The human resource attribution process, which illustrates that employees advance particular attributions about why management implements human resource practices within organization, represents the pillar on which the associations between HPWPs and work engagement are built (*see* Figure 1). In addition, it can explain the connections between work engagement and its consequences, in the form of positive outcomes. Employees respond via work engagement and the above-mentioned outcomes based on their perceptions regarding management's intent to implement human resource practices that focus on service delivery excellence and employee well-being.

3.2. Hypotheses

3.2.1 HPWPs and Psychological Capital

Attracting and retaining talented employees represents a continuous quest for hospitality organizations. Management needs to make use of the best tools to succeed in reaching such objectives via HPWPs. When selective staffing is implemented within an organization, it denotes that employees who fit the requirements of the job are able to provide genuine care and sustain the organization's competitive advantage. Investigation of selective staffing, as one of the high-performance work practices, is highly considered in the literature (Karatepe, 2013a; Zhao & Ghiselli, 2016).

Job security is the practice through which organizations can offer an occupational long-lasting assurance to their employees (Zacharatos et al., 2005). Feeling secured on the job makes employees satisfied and inspired with their job (Hancer & George, 2003). Because this particular practice and selective staffing motivate individuals to

continue working and perform for the particular company, management should implement them accordingly (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016).

The voluntary behaviors and activities, which employees embark upon while working in groups, are part of the teamwork practice (Coyle-Shapiro & Morrow, 2003). Teamwork has the benefits of motivating employees to work effectively together as it helps them share ideas in order to solve problems or deal with unprecedented events (Pfeffer, 1995). Employees' motivation to achieve individual and organization's goals is also promoted by means of career opportunities (Hinkin & Tracey, 2010). Thus, service organizations which pay attention to and offer diverse career opportunities attract more talented individuals (Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014).

Training is one of the well-investigated practices in the service industry and a critical component of HPWPs. When training is simultaneously implemented with empowerment and rewards, they represent management commitment to service quality (Babakus et al., 2003, Karatepe & Karadas, 2012). Due to the rapid changes in customers' demands and new trends that occur, customer-contact employees require pre- and post-training programs in order to improve all types of skills and abilities they need in order to cope with customers' requests and complaints (Yavas et al., 2010)

Along with training, employees should be empowered, too. Employees, whose skills and abilities are developed, must be able to decide, and take actions independently (Babakus et al., 2003; Karatepe, 2013b). Previous studies outlined the importance of implementing rewards programs in addition to empowerment and

training practices. Specifically, organizations that provide training programs to their employees empower and reward them ensure that their personnel is motivated to deliver the best quality service (Chung & Liao, 2010), is willing to serve their customers beyond the job requirements, and display service recovery performance (Ashill et al., 2004; Karatepe & Karadas, 2012).

As for employees' personal resources, empirical studies emphasize the need for further examination of psychological capital's antecedents (Avey, 2014; Newman et al., 2014; Rus & Baban, 2013) in order to attain a deeper understanding of what determines this psychological resource at work. A small number of researches establish that a certain leadership style within organizations can stimulate employees' psychological capital (Rego et al., 2012). For example, Gupta and Singh's (2014) study examined the positive effects of leadership on psychological capital which in turn influenced employees' creative performance within the R&D Indian settings. Newman and his colleagues (2014) also recommended as a research direction: the association between HPWPs and psychological capital, and how this relation would influence employees' outcomes. Therefore, it is expected that HPWPs would positively influence psychological capital, leading to the following hypothesis:

H1. HPWPs positively influence psychological capital.

3.2.2 HPWPs and Work Engagement

A supportive work environment does not only promote employees' resources but it also stimulates employees' work engagement. Such effects are demonstrated in several and conceptual studies. Medhurst and Albrecht (2011) conceptualize that job resources, in the form of involvement climate (e.g. training and development, performance-based rewards) might have a positive effect on salespersons'

engagement. Sarti (2014) postulate that job resource bundles (e.g., learning opportunities, supervisor support) can explain work engagement in long-term care facilities, situated in Italy, and any other sectors as long as they focus on employees' well-being. Choo's (2016) study also showed that service training and rewards were among the human resource practices which positively influenced FHE's work engagement in Malaysia.

In a hospitality context, Karatepe and Olugbade (2016) demonstrated that HPWPs such as job security, selective staffing, and career opportunities boosted FHEs' work engagement. The above empirical evidence illustrates and rests on the grounds human resource attribution process (Nishii et al., 2008) is built on. That is, when FHEs perceive that management provides HPWPs with the intent of heightening the delivery of service quality/process and because they care about the well-being of their personnel, they become more engaged in their work. Work engagement represents thus the way they react to the provided superior working conditions. Accordingly, it is postulated that:

H2. HPWPs positively influence work engagement.

3.2.3 Psychological Capital and Work Engagement

The review of the relevant and comprehensive literature draws attention to the effect of personal resources on individuals' work engagement. Personal resources such as hope, self-efficacy, and resilience can explain work engagement in different settings (Cooke et al., 2016; Karatepe, 2014b; Ouweneel et al., 2013; Xanthopoulou et al., 2008). The limited amount of empirical research regarding the second-order personal resources such as psychological capital, and its association with work engagement calls upon additional investigation (Mäkikangas et al., 2013).

Sweetman and Luthans (2010) initially conceptualized that psychological capital had a direct effect on work engagement. Thompson, Lemmon, and Walter (2015) conceptualized the predictive power of psychological capital on work engagement and illustrated these connections via five real case-examples. Later on, empirical evidence also showed that work engagement was predicted by psychological capital (Avey et al., 2008; Nigah et al., 2012). Paek et al. (2015) provided empirical evidence for the impact of psychological capital on work engagement for a sample of hotel employees in a Korean setting. The findings of a study conducted in the airline industry in Iran pointed out that management must attract and select employees in the frontline jobs with high levels of psychological capital and work engagement (Karatepe & Talebzadeh, 2016).

The empirical research reviewed indicates that individuals with high levels of psychological capital are able to provide great service interactions. That is, FHEs who have intense interactions with customers are confident that they can successfully satisfy their customers because they believe that knowledge and skills is a key to their success. Optimistic employees always expect positive outcomes and strive to do their best to accomplish their duties. Employees with high levels of hope always manage to generate new pathways to reach their goals. When unpredicted encounters occur, resilient individuals find the way to adapt to the specific situation. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H3. Psychological capital positively influences work engagement.

3.2.4 The Mediating Role of Psychological Capital

Few meta-analytic studies discussed the value of the mediating role of psychological capital in the literature (Mills et al., 2013; Newman et al., 2014). Researchers recommend deeper investigation regarding how psychological capital at work can

better explain the relationships between job resources and employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Newman et al., 2014). For example, job resources such as perceived supervisor support and supportive organizational climate showed positive effects on employees' psychological capital and consequently on their job performance (Liu, 2013; Luthans et al., 2008).

Service organizations which foster a supportive work environment (e.g. servant leadership) can ensure that employees reach elevated levels of personal resources (e.g. psychological capital), performance and life satisfaction (Karatepe & Talebzadeh, 2016). That is, the effects of HPWPs on work engagement via psychological capital are worth an investigation. These relationships are developed in line with the JD-R model.

The present research presents and discusses the potential effects of HPWPs (job resources) on employees' psychological capital (personal resources). As service employees believe in their abilities to achieve their work-related goals (self-efficacy), they strive and find new plans to complete their duties (hope), even when unforeseen and challenging tasks come along (resilience), identifying events and situations positively (optimism) when they are provided with supportive tools. These job resources also trigger work engagement. Past research postulated that personal resources could better explain the relationship between job resources and work engagement (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2013; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Accordingly, it is hypothesized that:

H4. Psychological capital plays a mediating role in the relationship between HPWPs and work engagement.

3.2.5 Psychological Capital and Job Outcomes

The existing psychological capital research outlines the critical advantage service organizations can achieve by attracting and retaining individuals who possess such personal resources. Researchers must also focus on the positive consequences the joint effects the HERO dimensions of psychological capital entail, as the aim of positive organizational behavior triggered the investigation of psychological resources at work and their effects on performance outcomes.

The HERO dimensions of psychological capital are demonstrated to have positive impacts on job outcomes (Newman et al., 2014). Resilient employees have the ability to deal with disgruntled customers and overcome any problematic encounters and still display high performance at work. Individuals with high levels of hope are determined to reach their goals and are able to generate ingenious paths in order to accomplish their duties, satisfy customers implementing creative ideas. Such resilient employees who have high levels of hope are more likely to perform beyond the job requirements and deliver excellent and creative performance (Sweetman et al., 2011). Employees who are confident that their abilities will assist them in all their actions (self-efficacy) perform beyond their role descriptions and are willing to stay on the job (Avey et al., 2011). Optimistic individuals make positive attributions about present or future events and behaviors which lead to positive consequences (e.g., extra-role performance, decreased quitting intentions). In a nutshell, service employees with high levels of optimism, resilience, self-efficacy, and hope are expected to display high creative and extra-role performances and less quitting intentions.

Rego and his colleagues (2012) showed evidence that psychological capital enhanced employees' creativity. Several empirical studies demonstrated that psychological capital led to higher levels of creative performance (Gupta & Singh, 2014; Sweetman et al., 2011). Employees with high levels of psychological capital also exhibit lower levels of quitting intentions (Avey et al., 2009; Choi & Lee, 2014; Zhao & Gao, 2014) and increased job performance (e.g., in-role job-performance) (Bouckennooghe et al., 2015). Psychological capital positively influences employees' organizational citizenship behaviors. Thus, the following hypothesis advanced that:

H5: Psychological capital negatively influences quitting intentions (a) and positively influences creative performance (b) and extra-role performance (c).

3.2.6 Work engagement and Job Outcomes

The association between employees' work engagement and performance outcomes is established within the literature. Diverse empirical support reveals that individuals who are engaged in their work are prone to display organizational citizenship behaviors (Choo, 2016) and extra-role performance (Ng & Tay, 2010). More specifically, Salanova et al. (2011) and Xanthopoulou et al. (2008) demonstrated that employees reported higher extra-role performance when they were highly engaged in their work. FHEs displayed higher extra-role performance and reduced quitting intentions when their work engagement was enhanced (Karatepe, 2013c).

Employees' creativity is also influenced by work engagement (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2013) as employees who are engaged in their work display higher levels of creative performance (Karatepe, 2012). FHEs who are engaged in their work are less likely to quit their jobs (Burke et al., 2013) as they are motivated to remain within organization and display higher extra-role performance (Karatepe, 2015c).

The relationships discussed above can be explained in line with the human resources attribution process. That is, positive employees' performance outcomes (e.g., creative and extra-role performances) and their high levels of work engagement correspond to employees' perceptions regarding management's intentions to implement human resource practices. If employees have positive attributions regarding management's goals to employ such practices for employees' well-being and ensure excellent service quality (Nishii et al., 2008), they display higher work engagement, positive job outcomes, and less quitting intentions. Service organizations must retain talented and engaged individuals as employees who are dedicated and engrossed in their work have less quitting intentions (Takawira et al., 2014). Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6. Work engagement negatively influences quitting intentions (a) and positively influences creative performance (b) and extra-role performance (c).

3.2.7 The Mediating Role of Work Engagement

Both scholars and practitioners are aware of the critical role work engagement plays within the service organizations as it improves employees' performance (cf. Kim, Kolb, & Kim, 2012). When management provides supportive working conditions, employees' personal resources such as psychological capital can boost work engagement. Such engaged employees are able to perform beyond what is expected from them (e.g. extra-role performance) and can generate new directions in dealing with customers' needs, offering ingenious service encounters. Vigorous, engrossed and dedicated employees are more willing to stay on the job. The identified potential relationships are hypothesized in line with the JD-R model guidelines, according to which work engagement intervenes between psychological capital and the above mentioned outcomes.

The mediating role of work engagement between personal resources and job outcomes is outlined by several empirical studies. That is, employees who display personal resources such as resilience and self-efficacy are more engaged in their work and they exhibit higher creative performance (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2013) as they can generate innovative techniques to manage service encounters and delight customers. In addition, employees who are self-efficacious are more engaged in their work and display higher extra-role performance (Salanova et al., 2011). Work engagement plays a mediating role for a sample of female nurses in South Africa, who displayed high levels of personal resources (e.g., hope, optimism) and less quitting intentions (Shahpouri et al., 2016).

Recent empirical evidence shows that psychological capital influences service recovery performance for a sample of flight attendants, in Iran via work engagement (Karatepe & Talebzadeh, 2016). Therefore, the following hypothesis advances that work engagement can explain the relationship between FHEs' psychological capital and the above-mentioned outcomes:

H7. Work engagement plays a mediating role in the relationship between psychological capital and quitting intentions (a), creative performance (b), and extra-role performance(c).

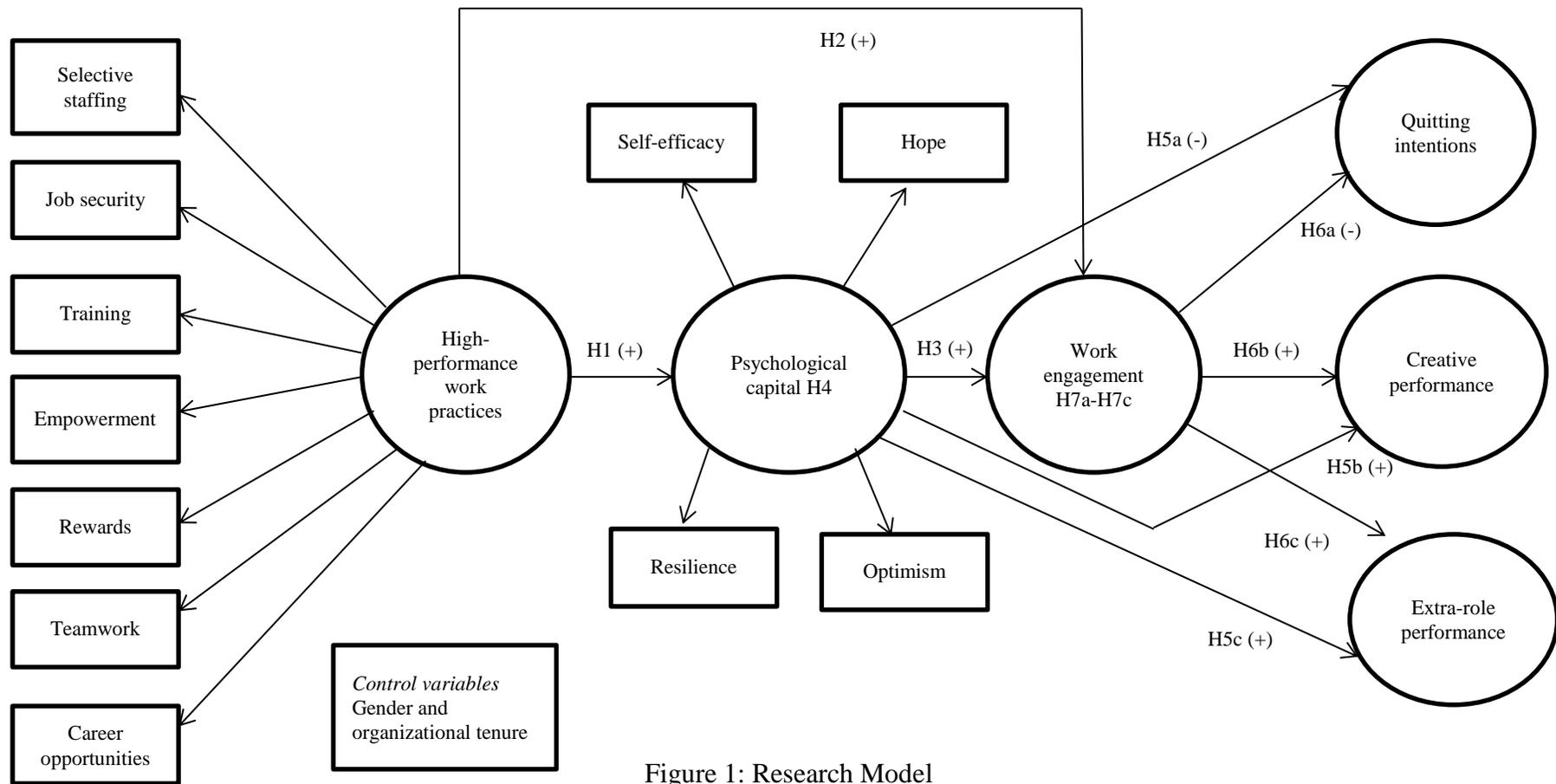


Figure 1: Research Model

Chapter 4

METHODOLOGY

This chapter enables the reader to understand the issues associated with the methodology of the thesis. Specifically, this chapter explains the sampling strategy (i.e., judgmental sampling) and procedures. The reason about why the Time 1, Time 2, Time 3, and supervisor questionnaires are used in the thesis is provided. The current chapter gives a detailed explanation of the measures utilized to operationalize the study variables (e.g., the indicators of HPWPs, the HERO dimensions of psychological capital, and work engagement). This chapter also explains strategy of data analysis. For example, information about how the measurement and structural models are tests is given in detail. Information about the assessment of the subject profile as well as summary statistics and correlations is also presented.

4.1 Deductive Reasoning

Bryman and Bell (2011) illustrate quantitative research as a strategy that emphasizes measurement in data analysis by incorporating a deductive approach into the relationship between theory and research whose overall aim is to test theories. Deductive approach or reasoning considers the main empirical and conceptual studies within the literature regarding the relationships to be investigated alongside with the existing theoretical frameworks as its aim is to test a theory in the current use (Botherton, 2008). Researchers are able to generate the study's hypotheses or observations based on specific theory or theories which will direct the structure of

the research, including data collection and analysis. The findings of the study may confirm the theory on which the relationships have been based or may provide new interpretations.

Since this thesis focuses on model development and testing based on several theoretical frameworks and empirical evidence in the relevant writings, it utilizes deductive approach. Broadly speaking, this thesis proposes and tests a research model that investigates the interrelationships of the indicators of HPWPs, the HERO dimensions of psychological capital, work engagement, quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance. The research model proposes that psychological capital mediates the influence of HPWPs on work engagement, while work engagement mediates the influence of psychological on the aforementioned outcomes. These relationships are developed using the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008), employees' human resource attribution process (Nishii et al., 2008), and empirical evidence in the extant knowledge.

4.2 Sampling Strategy

Empirical studies can use probability and non-probability sampling techniques to determine the sample. Judgmental sampling, as one of the non-probability sampling techniques, was employed in this study. Broadly speaking, judgmental sampling is employed using several selection criteria assuming that the sample represents the population (Kothari, 2004). When the researcher knows and implements the selection criteria, such a sampling technique serves the purpose of the study. The extant hospitality research also provides support for the use of judgmental sampling technique (e.g., Bashir & Nasir, 2013; Karatepe, 2013a, b).

The present study used at least four criteria to determine the sample. First, this study consisted of the international five- and four-star hotels in Romania. FHEs working in such hotels seem to take advantage of a number of HPWPs, and when compared with the hotels in the national category, the frequency of the implementation of HPWPs in these hotels is better (Ciulu & Dragan, 2011; Karatepe, 2013a). Second, the current study included full-time FHEs. This is because of the fact that they stay longer than the part-time employees (Karatepe & Magaji, 2008) and are familiar with a number of HPWPs provided by the organization. Third, this study focused on only FHEs. This is due to the fact that they spend a great deal of time serving customers and dealing with customer requests and problems. This shows that their roles are significant in service delivery and complaint-handling processes (e.g., Karatepe, 2015c; Paek et al., 2015). Fourth, the current study collected data in Romania, which is an unrepresented setting in the hospitality management research (Karatepe, 2015b).

The thesis' data collection was conducted in Eastern Europe, Romania, a country which evolved from a communistic era to a market economy and which recently became a member of European Union. Since 2007 when Romania joined the European Union, Romanian employees leave the country, especially in the service industry (Ciulu & Dragan, 2011) to find better positions in sister - European countries.

Ciulu and Dragan's (2011) study emphasized that the hospitality industry in Romania is devoid of talented employees. Management of companies in the region is unable to retain talented employees due to the lack of modern human resource managerial

practices. This is especially observed among the hotels in the national category (Ciulu & Dragan, 2011). It seems that the Romanian hospitality industry needs to invest in employees via various human resource practices such as training, career opportunities, rewards, and job security. Consequently, Romania was selected as the setting for the current thesis in order to gain insights regarding the interrelationships of HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance.

4.3 Data Collection

The researcher acquired information regarding the presence of international chain hotels from the Romanian Ministry of Regional Development and Tourism's Web page. There were five- and/or four-star international chain hotels in nine cities in Romania. The major cities in Romania, with a high number of tourists such as Bucharest (the capital), Brasov, Sibiu (nominated the European Capital of Culture in 2007), Timisoara, and Cluj were designated to be included in the study. Specifically, there were two four- and one five-star hotel in Sibiu. There were 13 four- and four five-star hotels in Bucharest. In addition, there were two four-star hotels in Timisoara and one four-star hotel each in Brasov and Cluj.

The researcher contacted management of each hotel and described the purpose of the study via a letter in order to obtain their approval to participate in the study. The participation of only four four-star and three five-star hotels in Bucharest and one five-star and one four-star hotel in Sibiu was granted. However, the researcher could not contact FHEs directly. The hotels' human resource managers agreed to manage

the data collection and handed out the surveys to various FHEs at the request of the researcher in order to minimize the potential for selection bias.

Podsakoff et al.'s (2012) guidelines support the study's time-based separation among constructs via a time lag of two weeks in three waves. Using a time lag and multiple sources of data is recommended as procedural remedies (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Therefore, the researcher used these remedies in order to minimize the potential of common method bias.

The cover page used for all the questionnaires informed the respondents about anonymity and confidentiality. It also informed that there were no right or wrong answers to the items (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Management of hotels prepared a list with the names of each employee and their respective identification number. The identification numbers were assigned to each of the three questionnaires designed for the FHEs to facilitate the matching of the questionnaires. Advanced notice was given to employees through managers. The researcher collected the FHEs' questionnaires in sealed envelopes. Management of each hotel in the sample also provided support and full coordination for the whole data collection process. All the above-mentioned procedures are identified as response-enhancing techniques (e.g., Anseel et al., 2010) and are observed in recent empirical studies (Karatepe & Kaviti, 2016; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2016).

The Time 1 questionnaire included the components of HPWPs: selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and teamwork. The HERO dimensions of psychological capital (i.e., self-efficacy, hope, resilience,

optimism) and items about the demographic variables were also included in Time 1 questionnaire. The Time 2 questionnaire included the work engagement measure and the quitting intentions were measured within the Time 3 questionnaire. Creative performance and extra-role performance measures were in the supervisor questionnaire. The study's response rate was 99% (282 useable questionnaires out of 285 questionnaires distributed) and it was the same for the rest of the two waves of the data collection.

4.4 Measurement

4.4.1 Components of HPWPs

Selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities and teamwork represent the components of HPWPs. Selective staffing was measured with a four-item scale taken from Sun et al. (2007). The same is observed in recent studies. Delery and Doty's (1996) scales for job security and career opportunities were used, and Coyle-Shapiro and Morrow's (2003) scale for teamwork was utilized. Job security and career opportunities each consisted of four items, while teamwork included five items. Training (six items) and rewards (five items) were received from Boshoff and Allen (2000). The researcher adapted Hayes's (1994) five items to assess empowerment. The items for selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, career opportunities, and teamwork were recorded via a five-point type, with anchors at 5 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree. The aforementioned indicators were also operationalized via the same sources in other empirical studies (e.g., Choi, Kim, Lee, & Lee, 2014; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014; Rod & Ashill, 2010).

4.4.2 Psychological Capital and its Indicators

The indicators of psychological capital are self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism. The HERO indicators of psychological capital were assessed with 24 items adopted from Luthans et al. (2007). That is, each indicator was assessed with six items. These items were assessed through a six-point type spectrum ranging from 6 = strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree. The psychological capital is widely used in the extant database (e.g., Jung & Yoon, 2015; Paek et al., 2015).

4.4.3 Work Engagement

The shortened version (nine items) of the Utrecht work engagement scale (Schaufeli et al., 2006) was employed. The shortened version of the work engagement scale is widely deployed in the current literature (e.g., Demerouti, Bakker, & Gevers, 2015; Karatepe, 2013a; Ouweneel, Le Blanc, Schaufeli, & van Wijnhe, 2012). Anchors ranging from 6 = always to 0 = never were used to assess items for work engagement.

4.4.4 Job Outcomes

Singh et al.'s (1996) three item scale was employed for quitting intentions. Creative performance (six items) was adapted from Wang and Netemeyer (2004), while extra-role performance (three items) was assessed via Netemeyer and Maxham's (2007) scale. The responses to the items of the outcome constructs were measured via different scales such as: quitting intentions on a five-point scale (5 = strongly agree and 1 = strongly disagree), creative performance on a five-point scale (5 = almost always and 1 = never), and extra-role performance on a seven-point scale (7 = strongly agree and 1 = strongly disagree). The scales used for measuring quitting intentions, creative performance, or extra-role performance were also utilized in

other empirical studies (e.g., Ashill et al., 2008; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014; Yavas et al., 2011).

4.4.5 Control Variables

Gender and organizational tenure may act as statistical confounds. Therefore, they were treated as control variables. Gender was coded as a binary variable (0 was assigned for males and 1 was assigned for females). Organizational tenure was assessed in five categories (1 = under 1 year, 2 = 1-5 years, 3 = 6-10 years, 4= 11-15 years, and 16-20 years).

4.4.6 Back-Translation and Pilot Studies

The back-translation method was used for all questionnaires. Broadly speaking, all questionnaires were originally prepared in English and then translated into Romanian. To do this, two independent academicians fluent in English and Romanian participated in this process. All questionnaires were translated into Romanian by the first academician and then were back-translated into English using the Romanian version by the second academician. The results demonstrated no inconsistencies (McGorry, 2000). The researcher conducted a pilot study with ten FHEs and ten supervisors in order to make sure that the respondents understood the items. As a result, no amendments were needed.

4.5 Data Analysis

4.5.1 Subject Profile

Respondents' age, gender, education, marital status, and organizational tenure were reported through frequency analysis. This was carried out using SPSS.

4.5.2 The Measurement and Structural Models

Two-step approach was deployed to assess both measurement and structural models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). These were tested via LISREL 8.30 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). First, the measurement model was subjected to convergent and discriminant validity analysis. Convergent validity refers to the “extent to which indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of variance in common” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 679). Discriminant validity indicates that a specific construct is unique and different from the other constructs (Hair et al., 2010). Each standardized loading is expected to be equal or greater than 0.50 and the average variance extracted (AVE) by each latent variable is expected to be equal or greater than 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010).

According to Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) criterion, the shared variance between all pairs of constructs should be below the AVE for the individual construct. However, one needs to report that the model statistics meets the minimum requirements before reporting the findings associated with convergent and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2010).

Composite reliability and coefficient alpha were used to report internal consistency reliability for each variable. The cut-off level for composite reliability is 0.60 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), while the cut-off level for coefficient alpha is 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978).

When the measurement model has sound psychometric properties, the structural or hypothesized model is assessed. Broadly speaking, the hypothesized model is

compared with several alternative models using the χ^2 difference test. Then, the interrelationships of HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, and job outcomes are tested through structural equation modeling. The Sobel test is employed to test the significance of the mediating impacts.

This thesis deployed the following model fit statistics to make an overall assessment of the measurement structural models: overall χ^2 measure (χ^2/df), CFI, PNFI, RMSEA, and SRMR (Hair et al., 2010). CFI is one of the most widely used incremental fit indexes and was introduced by Bentler (1990). According to Weston and Gore (2006), CFI “compares the improvement of the fit of the researcher’s model over a more restricted model, called an independence or null model, which specifies no relationships among variables” (p. 742). The values for CFI range from 0 to 1.0 (Hair et al., 2010).

RMSEA also determines how well a model fits a population (Hair et al., 2010) as it “corrects for a model’s complexity” (Weston & Gore, 2006, p. 742). The values for RMSEA range from 0.03 to 0.08 (Hair et al., 2010). SRMR index is a “summary of how much difference exists between the observed data and the model” (Weston & Gore, 2006, p. 742) as it serves to compare the fit between models, and the smallest values designate a good fit (Hair et al., 2010). It seems that there is no statistical cut-off level for SRMR (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, lower SRMR (e.g., below 0.10) values represent good fit. PNFI index “...takes into account the number of degrees of freedom used to obtain a given level of fit. Parsimony is achieved with a high degree of fit for fewer degrees of freedom in specifying the coefficients to be estimated. PNFI is used to compare models with different degrees of freedom...”

(Schumacker & Lomax, 2010, p. 90). Though there is no statistical cut-off level for PNFI, high values (e.g., greater than 0.60) denote relatively a better fit (Hair et al., 2010).

4.5.3 Summary Statistics and Correlations

Means, standard deviations, and correlations (Pearson product-moment) of all variables are reported. Specifically, means, standard deviations, and correlations of gender, organizational tenure, the indicators of HPWPs, the HERO dimensions of psychological capital, work engagement, quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance are reported. These were done through SPSS.

Chapter 5

RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings with detailed explanations in terms of subject profile, assessment of the psychometric properties of the measures, summary statistics and correlations, and test of research hypotheses. Subject profile is presented with frequency analysis. Assessment of the measurement model is carried out through validity and internal reliability consistency. Means and standard deviations of observed variables as well as their correlations are provided. Assessment of the direct and mediating impacts is carried out via structural equation modeling and the Sobel test.

5.1 Subject Profile

The total number of respondents is 282. As depicted in Table 1, the respondents are well-educated. Specifically, 97 (34%) respondents had two-year college degrees, while 156 (55%) had four-year college degrees. Table 1 also shows that 19 (7%) respondents had graduate degrees. The rest reported that they attended secondary and high school. The majority of the respondents (59%) had tenures between one and five years. Fifty-two (19%) respondents had tenures below one year. The rest had tenures longer than five years. In terms of age distribution, the majority of the respondents (56%) were aged between 28 and 37 years, while 67 (24%) were aged between 18 and 27 years. The rest were older than 37 years.

As also depicted in Table 1, the sample was gender balanced (male respondents 140, female respondents 142). One hundred and sixty-four (58%) respondents were married and 118 (42%) were single or divorced.

Table 1: Subject Profile ($n = 282$)

Variables	Frequency	%
<i>Age</i>		
18-27	67	23.8
28-37	158	56.0
38-47	54	19.1
48-57	3	1.1
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	142	50.4
Female	140	49.6
<i>Education</i>		
Secondary and high school	10	3.6
Vocational school	97	34.4
College graduate	156	55.3
Graduate degree	19	6.7
<i>Organizational tenure</i>		
Less than 1 year	52	18.5
1-5	167	59.2
6-10	55	19.5
11-15	6	2.1
16-20	2	0.7
<i>Marital status</i>		
Single or divorced	118	41.8
Married	164	58.2

5.2 Assessment of the Measures

The results from confirmatory factor analysis showed that the model fit would be improved when several items were dropped because of loadings below 0.50, non-significant t -values, and correlation measurement errors. Such deletion is also carried out in similar studies to improve the measurement model fit (e.g., Chen & Jaramillo, 2014; Hartline, Maxham, & McKee, 2000). The items dropped are shown in Table 2. The results illustrated the following model fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 2774.78$, df

= 1379; $\chi^2 / df = 2.01$; CFI = 0.90; PNFI = 0.73; RMSEA = 0.060; SRMR = 0.053.

The fifteen-factor measurement model fit the data acceptably. The findings in Table 2 also indicated that all items were greater than 0.50 and their *t*-values were significant. The AVE for each construct was equal to or greater than 0.50. These results collectively suggested that the measures had convergent validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010).

To test discriminant validity, the shared variance between all possible pairs of variables was computed. Discriminant validity was achieved, if the shared variance was lower than the AVE for the individual variable. The preponderance of the shared variances was lower than the AVE for the individual variables. However, the shared variances between resilience and optimism, career opportunities and rewards, and job security and career opportunities were not. Therefore, discriminant validity was re-assessed for these variables using pairwise χ^2 difference test (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The result for a two-factor model that consisted of job security and career opportunities was significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 12.93$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.05$). The result was significant for a two-factor model that contained resilience and optimism ($\Delta\chi^2 = 58.16$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.05$). The finding for a two-factor model that included career opportunities and rewards was also significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 28.02$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.05$). Given these values, the results also provided evidence for the discriminant validity of the measures (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010).

Table 2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Model fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 2774.78$, $df = 1379$; $\chi^2 / df = 2.01$; CFI = 0.90; PNFI = 0.73; RMSEA = 0.060; SRMR = 0.053

	<u>Loading</u>	<u>t-value</u>
<i>Selective staffing</i>		
(AVE = 0.61, CR = 0.86, $\alpha = 0.86$)		
Great effort is taken to select the right person	0.71	13.00
Long-term employee potential is emphasized	0.82	15.91
Considerable importance is placed on the staffing process	0.77	16.17
Very extensive efforts are made in selection	0.77	14.60
<i>Job security</i>		
(AVE = 0.52, CR = 0.81, $\alpha = 0.81$)		
Employees in this job can expect to stay in the organization for as long as they wish	0.53	8.95
It is very difficult to dismiss an employee in this organization	0.82	15.79
Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this organization	0.73	13.32
If this company were facing economic problems, employees in this job would be the last to get cut	0.78	14.57
<i>Training</i>		
(AVE = 0.75, CR = 0.90, $\alpha = 0.90$)		
I received continued training to provide good service	0.89	18.33
I receive extensive customer service training before I come into contact with customers	0.91	19.16
I receive training on how to serve customers better	0.79	15.49
I receive training on how to deal with complaining customers	*	*
I receive training on dealing with customer problems	*	*
I was trained to deal with customer complaints	*	*
<i>Empowerment</i>		
(AVE = 0.72, CR = 0.88, $\alpha = 0.88$)		
I am empowered to solve customer problems	*	*
I am encouraged to handle customer problems by myself	*	*
I do not have to get management's approval before I handle customer problems	0.87	17.63
I am allowed to do almost anything to solve customer problems	0.88	17.85
I have control over how I solve customer problems	0.79	15.43
<i>Rewards</i>		
(AVE = 0.71, CR = 0.91, $\alpha = 0.87$)		
If I improve the level of service I offer customers, I will be rewarded	*	*
The rewards I receive are based on customer evaluations of service	0.70	13.08
I am rewarded for serving customers well	0.87	18.02
I am rewarded for dealing effectively with customer problems	0.90	18.99
I am rewarded for satisfying complaining customers	0.88	18.33
<i>Teamwork</i>		
(AVE = 0.71, CR = 0.88, $\alpha = 0.88$)		
Employees in my workgroup work together effectively	0.76	14.58
There is a strong team spirit in my workgroup	0.90	18.26
There is a lot of cooperation in my workgroup	0.87	17.47
Employees in my workgroup are willing to put themselves out for the sake of the group	*	*
Employees in my workgroup encourage each other to work as a team	*	*
<i>Career opportunities</i>		
(AVE = 0.50, CR = 0.67, $\alpha = 0.65$)		
Employees have clear career paths within the organization	*	*
Employees have very little future within this organization (-)	*	*
Employees' career aspirations within this company are known by their immediate supervisors	0.68	11.84
Employees who desire promotion have more than one potential position they could be promoted to	0.74	12.97

Table 2: Continued

	<u>Loading</u>	<u>t-value</u>
<i>Self-efficacy</i>		
(AVE = 0.81, CR = 0.94, α = 0.94)		
I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution	0.86	18.00
I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management	0.94	20.74
Item	0.92	20.14
Item	0.87	18.26
Item	*	*
Item	*	*
<i>Hope</i>		
(AVE = 0.72, CR = 0.93, α = 0.93)		
If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it	*	*
Item	0.85	17.47
Item	0.78	15.35
Item	0.82	16.41
Item	0.93	20.26
At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself	0.85	17.65
<i>Resilience</i>		
(AVE = 0.62, CR = 0.83, α = 0.82)		
When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from moving on (-)	*	*
Item	0.71	13.02
Item	*	*
I usually take stressful things at work in stride	0.85	16.90
Item	0.80	15.53
Item	*	*
<i>Optimism</i>		
(AVE = 0.63, CR = 0.83, α = 0.81)		
Item	0.59	10.48
If something can go wrong for me work-wise, it will (-)	*	*
Item	0.89	18.49
Item	0.87	18.05
Item (-)	*	*
I approach this job as if 'every cloud has a silver lining'	*	*
<i>Work engagement</i>		
(AVE = 0.74, CR = 0.95, α = 0.95)		
At my work, I feel bursting with energy	0.88	18.72
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	0.91	19.87
I am enthusiastic about my job	0.91	19.70
My job inspires me	0.84	17.37
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	0.80	16.15
I feel happy when I am working intensely	*	*
I am proud of the work that I do	0.85	17.68
I am immersed in my work	0.81	16.27
I get carried away when I am working	*	*
<i>Quitting intentions</i>		
(AVE = 0.78, CR = 0.92, α = 0.91)		
It is likely that I will actively look for a new job next year	0.90	18.94
I often think about quitting	0.82	16.53
I will probably look for a new job next year	0.93	19.95

Table 2: Continued

	<u>Loading</u>	<u>t-value</u>
<i>Creative performance</i>		
(AVE = 0.71, CR = 0.94, α = 0.93)		
This employee carries out his/her routine tasks in ways that are resourceful	0.82	16.70
This employee comes up with new ideas for satisfying customer needs	0.89	18.93
This employee generates and evaluates multiple alternatives for novel customer problems	0.86	17.77
This employee has fresh perspectives on old problems	0.76	14.84
This employee improvises methods for solving a problem when an answer is not apparent	0.86	17.74
This employee generates creative ideas for service delivery	0.86	17.87
<i>Extra-role performance</i>		
(AVE = 0.82, CR = 0.90, α = 0.90)		
How often did this employee go above and beyond the “call of duty” when serving customers?	*	*
How often did this employee willingly go out of his/her way to make a customer satisfied?	0.89	18.35
How often did this employee help customers with problems beyond what was expected or required?	0.92	19.13

Notes: All loading are significant ($p < 0.05$). Item = Item copyrighted by Luthans et al. (2007). CFI = Comparative fit index; PNFI = Parsimony normed fit index; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = Standardized root mean square residual; AVE = Average variance extracted; CR = Composite reliability; α = Coefficient alpha.

In addition, the findings in Table 2 revealed that all measures were reliable because composite reliability for each variable was above 0.60 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) and coefficient alpha for each observed variable was greater than 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). However, coefficient alpha for career opportunities was 0.65. Similar coefficient alphas were also reported in past writings (Delery & Doty, 1996; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014). Summary statistics and correlations of observed variables are given in Table 3. As depicted in Table 3, correlations greater than $|0.104|$ are significant at the 0.05 level (one-tailed test).

Table 3: Summary Statistics and Correlations of Observed Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Gen	-																
2. OT	-.171	-															
3. SS	.129	.109	-														
4. JSEC	.155	.056	.485	-													
5. TRA	.093	-.009	.506	.446	-												
6. EMP	.141	.165	.210	.240	.336	-											
7. REW	.114	.012	.455	.527	.384	.408	-										
8. TEAM	.074	-.009	.248	.196	.335	.302	.351	-									
9. CO	.097	.066	.492	.614	.517	.284	.598	.265	-								
10. SEFF	.082	.204	.536	.405	.352	.259	.500	.236	.500	-							
11. Hope	.120	.104	.453	.338	.405	.344	.361	.341	.460	.529	-						
12. RES	.092	.146	.495	.373	.294	.401	.479	.287	.435	.647	.549	-					
13. OPT	.114	.089	.517	.448	.377	.454	.530	.351	.506	.673	.612	.749	-				
14. WE	.063	.131	.495	.444	.334	.183	.479	.172	.465	.647	.367	.548	.565	-			
15. TI	-.089	-.065	-.476	-.365	-.303	-.183	-.398	-.213	-.439	-.554	-.420	-.537	-.521	-.540	-		
16. CP	.104	.213	.385	.344	.285	.322	.351	.216	.365	.537	.365	.383	.477	.553	-.416	-	
17. ERP	.009	.183	.369	.288	.193	.161	.327	.207	.307	.536	.276	.465	.492	.615	-.478	.656	-
Mean	.50	2.08	4.15	3.74	4.38	3.67	4.09	4.41	3.92	4.68	5.29	4.90	4.92	4.66	1.96	3.89	5.47
SD	.50	.72	.55	.60	.49	.79	.45	.51	.58	.86	.59	.66	.63	.93	.77	.74	.94

Notes: Correlations $\geq |0.104|$ are significant at the 0.05 level (one-tailed test). Gen = Gender; OT = Organizational tenure; SS = Selective staffing; JS = Job security; TRA = Training; EMP = Empowerment; REW = Rewards; TEAM = Teamwork; CO = Career opportunities; SEFF = Self-efficacy; RES = Resilience; OPT = Optimism; WE = Work Engagement; TI = Turnover intentions; CP = Creative performance; ERP = Extra-role performance; SD = Standard deviation.

5.3 Test of Research Hypotheses

Consistent with the work of Karatepe (2015c), the normality of data was assessed via skewness. The skewness values were between the range of -2.00 and +2.00 (Lee & Yom, 2013). Specifically, the skewness value for selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, teamwork, career opportunities, self-efficacy, hope, resilience, optimism, work engagement, quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance was 0.21, -0.10, -0.13, -1.07, 0.81, -0.33, 0.21, 0.16, -0.76, 0.06, 0.13, -0.31, 0.52, -0.11, and -0.27, respectively. These results appeared to provide evidence for a normal distribution.

Table 4 depicts the results of model comparison. As already mentioned in the methodology part, the hypothesized model is compared with several alternative models through the χ^2 difference test. The results implicitly reveal that the hypothesized model yield a better fit than the alternative models. Specifically, when the hypothesized and alternative model I (partially mediated model) are compared, the result is not significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 5.92$, $\Delta df = 3$). The result is significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 59.05$, $\Delta df = 4$) when the hypothesized and alternative model II (fully mediated model) are compared. Consequently, the hypothesized model that consists of the mediating role of psychological capital in the relationship between HPWPs and work engagement and work engagement as a mediator of the influence of psychological capital on quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance is used for an overall assessment. The model fit statistics for the hypothesized model is as follows: ($\chi^2 = 1103.89$, $df = 413$; $\chi^2 / df = 2.67$; CFI = 0.91; PNFI = 0.76; RMSEA = 0.077; SRMR = 0.052). These are acceptable.

As shown in Table 5, HPWPs exert a strong positive influence on psychological capital ($\beta = 0.79, t = 10.03$). Hence, the empirical data provide support for hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 is supported by the empirical data because HPWPs depict a positive association with work engagement ($\beta = 0.17, t = 1.68$). The link between psychological capital and work engagement receives support from the empirical data because psychological capital has a strong positive influence on work engagement ($\beta = 0.56, t = 5.33$). In short, hypothesis 3 is supported. When the Sobel test finding in Table 5 is examined, the effects of HPWPs on work engagement through psychological capital are also significant ($z = 4.87$). This finding suggests that the association between HPWPs and work engagement is partially mediated by psychological capital. Therefore, hypothesis 4 is supported.

Table 4: Model Comparison

Models comparison	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	Model
1. Hypothesized model (HPWPs \rightarrow PsyCap; HPWPs, PsyCap \rightarrow WE; PsyCap, WE \rightarrow TI, CRP, ERP)	1103.89	413	-	-	-
2. Alternative model I (HPWPs \rightarrow PsyCap; HPWPs, PsyCap \rightarrow WE; HPWPs, PsyCap, WE \rightarrow TI, CRP, ERP)	1097.97	410	5.92	3	1 and 2
3. Alternative model II (HPWPs \rightarrow PsyCap; PsyCap \rightarrow WE; WE \rightarrow TI, CRP, ERP)	1162.94	417	59.05	4	1 and 3

Notes: HPWPs = High-performance work practices; PsyCap = Psychological capital; WE = Work engagement; TI = Turnover intentions; CRP = Creative performance; ERP = Extra-role performance.

Table 5: Model Test Results

Hypotheses		Estimate	<i>t</i> -value
H1	HPWPs → Psychological capital (β)	0.79	10.03
H2	HPWPs → Work engagement (β)	0.17	1.68
H3	Psychological capital → Work engagement (β)	0.56	5.33
H5a	Psychological capital → Quitting intentions (β)	-0.53	-6.56
H5b	Psychological capital → Creative performance (β)	0.29	3.73
H5c	Psychological capital → Extra-role performance (β)	0.28	3.68
H6a	Work engagement → Quitting intentions (β)	-0.22	-2.96
H6b	Work engagement → Creative performance (β)	0.36	4.69
H6c	Work engagement → Extra-role performance (β)	0.46	6.12
<u>z-score</u>			
H4	HPWPs → Psychological capital → Work engagement	4.87	
H7a	Psychological capital → Work engagement → Quitting intentions	-2.74	
H7b	Psychological capital → Work engagement → Creative performance	3.51	
H7c	Psychological capital → Work engagement → Extra-role performance	4.26	
		<u>λ</u>	<u><i>t</i>-value</u>
Selective staffing ← HPWPs	0.69	10.49	
Job security ← HPWPs	0.70	9.49	
Training ← HPWPs	0.63	6.89	
Empowerment ← HPWPs	0.45	11.03	
Rewards ← HPWPs	0.74	6.32	
Teamwork ← HPWPs	0.41	11.47	
Career opportunities ← HPWPs	0.77		
		<u>λ</u>	<u><i>t</i>-value</u>
Self-efficacy ← Psychological capital		0.81	11.97
Hope ← Psychological capital		0.67	15.51
Resilience ← Psychological capital		0.82	16.62
Optimism ← Psychological capital		0.87	

R² for HPWPs = 0.04, Psychological capital = 0.64, Work engagement = 0.49, Quitting intentions = 0.48, Creative performance = 0.41, Extra-role performance = 0.49

Model fit statistics

$\chi^2 = 1103.89$, $df = 413$, $\chi^2 / df = 2.67$; CFI = 0.91; IFI = 0.91; RMSEA = 0.077; SRMR = 0.052

Notes: HPWPs = High-performance work practices; CFI = Comparative fit index; IFI = Incremental fit index; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = Standardized root mean square residual. * *T*-values are given except for the loadings of selective staffing and self-efficacy that were initially fixed to 1.00 to set the metric for the underlying high-performance work practice and psychological capital variables. *T*-values: one-tailed test $t > 1.65$, $p < 0.05$; and $t > 2.33$, $p < 0.01$.

The findings in Table 5 also illustrate that psychological capital is significantly associated with FHEs' job outcomes. Broadly speaking, psychological capital portrays a negative association with quitting intentions ($\beta = -0.53, t = -6.56$). Hence, hypothesis 5a is supported. Psychological capital is positively related to both creative performance ($\beta = 0.29, t = 3.73$) and extra-role performance ($\beta = 0.28, t = 3.68$). Accordingly, the empirical data support hypotheses 5b and 5c. As can be seen in Table 5, work engagement depicts significant association with the aforesaid outcomes. Specifically, work engagement exerts a negative influence on quitting intentions ($\beta = -0.22, t = -2.96$) and a positive influence on creative performance ($\beta = 0.36, t = 4.69$) and extra-role performance ($\beta = 0.46, t = 6.12$). Hence, hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c are supported by the empirical data.

The aforementioned findings also implicitly indicate that work engagement mediates the influence of psychological capital on FHEs' job outcomes. That is, the Sobel test results demonstrate that work engagement partially mediates the influence of psychological capital on quitting intentions ($z = -2.74$), creative performance ($z = 3.51$), and extra-role performance ($z = 4.26$). Consequently, hypotheses 7a, 7b, and 7c are supported by the empirical data.

The control variables have significant effects on several study constructs. The results show that organizational tenure is positively related to HPWPs ($\gamma = 0.11, t = 1.73$), psychological capital ($\gamma = 0.10, t = 2.15$), creative performance ($\gamma = 0.13, t = 2.55$), and extra-role performance ($\gamma = 0.08, t = 1.70$). These results suggest that FHEs with longer tenure have favorable perceptions of HPWPs, are high on psychological

capital, and display better creative and extra-role performances. The results also demonstrate that gender depicts a positive association with HPWPs ($\gamma = 0.19$, $t = 2.89$). This finding suggests that female FHEs have favorable perceptions of HPWPs.

The results explain 4% of the variance in HPWPs, 64% in psychological capital, 49% in work engagement, 48% in quitting intentions, 41% in creative performance, and 49% in extra-role performance.

Chapter 6

DISCUSSION

The findings regarding the relationships presented in the current study are discussed in detail within Chapter 6. The chapter includes specific theoretical implications and managerial implications based on the empirical examination which researchers and practitioners should take into account. The findings of the research are also assessed with a concentration on its limitations. Chapter 6 concludes with recommendations for future research.

6.1 Evaluation of Findings

This thesis tested the interrelationships of HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, creative performance, extra-role performance, and quitting intentions. The findings based on data obtained from customer-contact employees and their supervisors in hotel industry in Romania are given below.

The relationships between HPWPs, psychological capital and work engagement are developed in line with the tenets of the JD-R model. Psychological capital, as a personal resource, explains the relationship between HPWPs and FHEs' work engagement. At the same time, psychological capital enhances employees' work engagement and their job outcomes. More specifically, personal resources influence employees' job outcomes (e.g., creative and extra-role performances, quitting intentions) via work engagement. The study provides substantial empirical evidence

regarding the associations between the investigated constructs with data collected from FHEs and their supervisors within a Romanian setting.

The results show that selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, teamwork, and career opportunities as the selected components of HPWPs have positive impacts on employees' psychological capital. As FHEs are the main assets of their organization through which they can maintain their competitive advantage, the importance of the selection and implementation of these particular practices was also empirically supported within the airline industry (Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2015).

FHEs exhibit higher levels of psychological capital, feeling self-efficacious, being hopeful, resilient, and optimistic, when they are provided with such enhancing human resource practices which equip them with the necessary resources to delight customers. This finding is consistent with previous studies which demonstrate that resourceful working conditions enhance employees' psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2008; Karatepe & Talebzadeh, 2016).

The results also show that the joint effects of the HERO dimensions of psychological capital boost FHEs' work engagement. Psychological capital predicts work engagement as employees in frontline service jobs who display high levels of self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism have full energy, dedicate themselves to their work, and are absorbed in their tasks and interactions. This finding reveals a remarkable connotation for practioners and academicians in the hospitality industry

as the significant association between psychological capital and work engagement was recently highlighted (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Thompson et al., 2015).

Psychological capital acts as a mediating variable in the relationship between HPWPs and work engagement. According to the motivational process of the JD-R model (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007), the results show that HPWPs (job resources) enhance employees' work engagement via psychological capital (personal resource). That is, FHEs display higher levels of self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism when the supportive tools of HPWPs are available, and consequently, are more engaged in their work. Employees' enhanced confidence, optimism, hope, and resilience boost their work engagement according to the attributions they make about management's reason to provide the specific HPWPs (cf. Nishii et al., 2008). Recent empirical research supports our finding regarding the mediating role of psychological capital between supportive working conditions and work engagement in frontline service jobs (Karatepe & Talebzadeh, 2016).

FHEs who have frequent direct interactions with customers are resilient. That is, they are able to deal with and overcome various difficulties, and at the same time, are efficacious, resilient, optimistic, and hopeful. They are usually motivated to carry on, become highly engaged in their work, and consequently, have positive job outcomes. More precisely, FHEs with high levels of psychological capital can generate new ideas and techniques to be able to respond immediately to their guest's needs (e.g., creative performance). They are highly confident in their skills and knowledge and make positive attributions about the way they can handle customers'

complaints. They can generate new paths and act upon them, being able to adapt to any adverse/challenging situations and hence are able to go an extra mile to accomplish their tasks (e.g., extra-role performance).

The result regarding the effect of psychological capital on creative performance which is consistent with a small number of empirical studies (Gupta & Singh, 2014; Rego et al., 2012) extends the hospitality management literature concerning psychological capital and its positive outcomes at work. The positive effect of psychological capital on employees' extra-role performance also needs consideration as individuals with high levels of self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism are ready to go beyond their job descriptions, successfully dealing with service failures (Karatepe & Talebzadeh, 2016).

The study's finding regarding the negative effect of psychological capital on quitting intentions is in line with previous studies (Avey et al., 2009; Avey et al., 2011). Nevertheless, additional investigation regarding the joint effects of the HERO dimensions of psychological capital on quitting intentions in the hospitality industry can add further understanding to this relationship. Management can attain low employee turnover by retaining their talented employees who are high on psychological capital and are highly engaged in their work.

The positive outcomes FHEs perform, according to the study's findings, can be discussed in line with the human resource attribution process (Nishii et al., 2008). FHEs display positive job outcomes when they make positive attributions regarding

management's choice to invest in a bundle of human resource practices with the intention of providing excellent services to their customers, and at the same time, taking into consideration employees' well-being. That is, FHEs who perceive that management invests in HPWPs with the positive intentions in mind and are high on psychological capital are more engaged in their work. Moreover, they generate innovative ideas that contribute to customer-solving problems, show higher extra-role performance and have less quitting intentions. The tenets of JD-R model also support these relationships as employees' personal resources and job resources motivate employees to become highly engaged in their work, leading to positive job outcomes (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

6.2. Implications

6.2.1 Theoretical Implications

The current research provides specific theoretical implications that help us gain useful insights regarding the links between HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, and the above-mentioned employees' outcomes, which are essential in the hospitality industry. Psychological capital as an emerging personality construct attracted the attention of scholars in various fields such as positive psychology, medical and educational sectors, airline and hospitality industries (Avey et al., 2009; Luthans et al., 2008; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014; Takawira et al., 2014). Additional research regarding the predictors of psychological capital (Newman et al., 2014), especially in the service industry (Avey et al., 2011), is imperative.

The researcher examined the simultaneous effects of seven components of HPWPs, selected based on the relevant literature and their importance within the hospitality

management literature, on psychological capital in order to respond to such research calls as this association was not tested before. The study's findings are consistent with previous empirical research as supportive working contexts predict and enhance employees' psychological resources (Luthans et al., 2008; Karatepe & Talebzadeh, 2016) and bring additional information to the current knowledge.

The components of HPWPs jointly predicted employees' work engagement. The investigation of this relationship is essential (Albrecht et al., 2015; Lee & Ok, 2015) as management should consider attracting and retaining engaged employees by providing a resourceful work environment.

The study of the joint effects of the HERO dimensions of psychological capital on work engagement is also needed (Mäkikangas et al., 2013) especially in frontline service jobs. FHEs who are at the same time self-efficacious, hopeful, putting extra effort in dealing with challenging circumstances, finding ways in order to achieve their goals, are resilient and optimistic, showing the capacity to bounce back, and are endowed with positive and favorable thoughts regarding their success get highly engaged in their work.

The findings of the present study bring additional theoretical and empirical support regarding the effects of the HERO dimensions of psychological capital that have greater positive work outcomes in service settings (Avey et al., 2011) on creative and extra-role performances. The scarce empirical evidence in the literature regarding the above-mentioned relationships (Gupta & Singh, 2014; Paek et al., 2015) led to

the examination of the interrelationships of psychological capital, work engagement, creative and extra-role performances, and quitting intentions.

Quitting intentions are the direct predictors of turnover which is still a problematic issue in the hospitality industry (Moshin et al., 2013; Yavas et al., 2013) as individuals working in frontline jobs are among the employees who are more likely to quit their jobs. This is the case of FHEs who work long hours, have low salaries, and deal with disgruntled customers on a daily basis (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008; Lu, Lu, Gursoy, & Neale, 2016). The finding that engaged employees report less quitting intentions is consistent with previous research (Burke et al., 2013).

Two mediating variables, psychological capital and work engagement which are examined in this study add further knowledge to the current literature base. Firstly, the mediating role of the joint effects of HERO dimensions of psychological capital in the relationship between job resources (e.g., HPWPs) and employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes is deemed to provide additional insights. Secondly, the current study aims to examine new predictors and outcomes of work engagement within the hospitality industry.

The current study uses a sample of FHEs in Romania in order to examine the antecedents and outcomes of HERO dimensions of psychological capital, unlike the previous studies conducted in psychological capital research (cf. Badran & Youssef-Morgan, 2015). This study, hence, can enrich current knowledge regarding

psychological capital and the specific outcomes within hospitality industry in Romania.

6.2.2 Practical Implications

The findings regarding the interrelationships of the study's constructs reveal significant managerial implications which should be taken into account. Hospitality organizations need to pay utmost attention in providing supportive working conditions where FHEs can take advantage of HPWPs. The findings of the current research advocate that when HPWPs are available, FHEs' psychological capital and work engagement increase. FHEs with high levels of psychological capital are appropriate candidates who should be considered during selective staffing. Management can retain such employees by providing HPWPs investigated in this research.

The presence of HPWPs such as selective staffing and career opportunities within hotels does not only attract potential employees but also makes employees feel highly engaged in their work. Through the selective staffing procedures, management is able to hire individuals whose personality, skills, and abilities are in congruence with the job description. In order to ensure that it selects individuals whose skills and knowledge are suitable for the job, management can make use of the psychological capital and work engagement questionnaires. The performance of the candidates based on the questionnaires can provide insightful information to managers who are in search of highly self-efficacious, hopeful, resilient, and optimistic employees. Such employees who are engaged in their work are able to understand guests' needs and demands and go the extra mile to delight them.

When career opportunities and career development plans are in place to fit employees' career needs, management can easily attract and retain skillful employees. Management can provide additional career counseling for employees who solicit it as a sign that the organization cares for their well-being.

Job security is very critical in the hospitality industry. FHEs whose performance is in line with the organizational expectations should be bestowed with job security which will positively affect their work engagement and hence will deliver excellent service quality. At the same time, potential employees who are high on psychological capital and possess the necessary skills and abilities that are in congruence with frontline service jobs will be highly enticed to work for the organization.

Management of hotels which considers employees as strategic partners should provide continuous training programs to advance their skills and abilities, especially regarding empowerment techniques that can be exercised through role-playing and real-life customer-related situations. Training programs can serve as a context where managers can implement short training psychological capital interventions so that employees improve their personal resources on the job (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). The skillful and engaged FHEs who participate regularly in training programs should be encouraged to practice teamwork not only during these sessions but also can connect via social networks. The teamwork practice assists all team members to exercise innovative and extra-role behaviors.

FHEs with high levels of psychological capital and work engagement who put into practice the skills developed within the training programs and exercise empowerment to deal with customers' needs must also be rewarded as they sustain the organization's competitive advantage (Luthans, 2012). The simultaneous implementation of training, empowerment, and rewards (Karatepe, 2013a) assists employees to provide exceptional services to their guests. As the above-mentioned HPWPs (e.g. rewards, training) are scarce within the Romanian hospitality industry (Ciulu & Dragan, 2011; Karatepe, 2015), hotel managers need to take into consideration the positive effects of these practices on employees' outcomes. In conclusion, employees high on psychological capital who make positive attributions regarding management's intention to implement HPWPs to increase high quality standards and ensure employees' well-being are engaged in their work. In such a resourceful environment, employees will consequently exhibit reduced quitting intentions and greater creative and extra-role performances.

6.3 Limitations and Future Research Suggestions

The present research contributes to the literature in a number of ways by examining the interrelationships of HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, quitting intentions, creative and extra-role performances. Nevertheless, potential drawbacks and future research suggestions must be outlined. First, the antecedents of psychological capital and work engagement examined in the study are the seven components of HPWPs which, as mentioned before, were selected due to their significance for frontline service jobs. Other potential components of HPWPs (e.g. work-life balance, mentoring) can add further understanding to the implementation of the best practices within the hospitality industry. In addition, research may

include other relevant non-work role resources such as family support (Karatepe, 2015c) that can positively influence FHEs' psychological capital and engagement at work.

Second, employees' outcomes used in the research model are quitting intentions, creative and extra-role performance. Researchers may include other relevant job outcomes such as actual turnover, leaving job early, organizational commitment, and service recovery performance in their future studies.

Third, the study's relationships were tested via a sample of FHEs and their supervisors in Romania, with a two-week interval, in three waves. Causality between the study's constructs can not be hence precisely established. A longer temporal separation or longitudinal researches would provide better evidence regarding the issue of causality.

Fourth, this study tested the relationships using the individual customer-contact employee as a unit of analysis. In future studies testing the study relationships at the departmental level would contribute to the understanding about HPWPs, psychological capital, and work engagement. Fifth, the study relationships were tested based on data gathered in the international five- and four-star hotels in Romania. Using the type of hotel ownership and/or hotel category (e.g., national versus international hotels) as a moderator on the relationship between the study variables would contribute to current knowledge.

Regarding the data collection process, the supervisors assisted the researcher in gathering the surveys from the employees, who worked in different frontline positions. In order to prevent the risk of selection bias in future studies, researchers can collect data directly from FHEs. Lastly, the findings of the current study can be replicated in other developed countries with larger sample sizes in other different contexts (e.g., airlines, casinos).

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION

The central aim of the present thesis is to gain insights regarding the interrelationships of HPWPs, psychological capital, work engagement, quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance which are developed using the motivational process of the JD-R model and human resources attribution process. The study's objectives are as follows: to examine (a) the simultaneous effects of selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, teamwork, and career opportunities as the components of HPWPs on HERO (i.e., the indicators of psychological capital) and work engagement; (b) the joint effects of the indicators of psychological capital on work engagement; (c) the mediating role of psychological capital in these relationships; (d) the effects of HERO and work engagement on quitting intentions, creative performance, and extra-role performance; and (e) work engagement as a mediating variable between HERO and the abovementioned outcomes. The aforementioned relationships are tested via data collected from FHEs and their supervisors in three waves, two weeks apart in Romania.

It is hypothesized that the components of HPWPs (e.g., selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, teamwork, and career opportunities) have positive effects on psychological capital. The study's results provide support for this association. It is hypothesized that there is a positive link between HPWPs and work

engagement. The empirical data also provide support for this relationship. The positive relationship between the joint HERO dimensions of psychological capital and work engagement is also supported. The first three empirically supported relationships lead to the development of the mediating role of psychological capital in the relationship between HPWPs and work engagement. The empirical data also support this. These findings, which are in line with the motivational process of the JD-R model reveal that job resources boost employees' psychological capital (personal resource) and work engagement.

The results illustrate the negative effect of psychological capital on quitting intentions. The positive impact of psychological capital on creative and extra-role performance is also empirically demonstrated. In the same way, work engagement negatively influences quitting intentions and positively affects the specific performance outcomes. The findings regarding the mediating role of work engagement in the relationship between psychological capital and quitting intentions and performance outcomes are supported by the data. That is, work engagement partially mediates the effect of psychological capital on quitting intentions, creative and extra-role performances.

In conclusion, this thesis contributes to the hospitality management research on HPWPs, psychological capital, and work engagement. The results obtained based on data collected in Romania yield important implications from both theoretical and practical perspectives.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A: Questionnaires

A FIELD STUDY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY IN ROMANIA

Dear Respondent

This research is aimed to better understand your daily experiences at work. Therefore, we kindly request that you self-administer this questionnaire.

There are no right or wrong answers in this questionnaire. Any sort of information collected during our research will be kept in confidential. We appreciate your time and participation in our research very much.

If you have any questions about our research, please do not hesitate to contact Mrs. Georgiana Karadas through her e-mail address: georgiana.karadas@emu.edu.tr.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Research Team:

Georgiana Karadas

Prof. Dr. Osman M. Karatepe

Address:

Faculty of Tourism
Eastern Mediterranean University
Gazimagusa, TRNC
Via Mersin 10, Turkey

Section I.

Please indicate your disagreement or agreement with each statement by crossing the number using the following five-point scale:

- (1) I strongly disagree
- (2) I disagree
- (3) I am undecided
- (4) I agree
- (5) I strongly agree

01. Great effort is taken to select the right person.	1	2	3	4	5
02. Long-term employee potential is emphasized.	1	2	3	4	5
03. Considerable importance is placed on the staffing process.	1	2	3	4	5
04. Very extensive efforts are made in selection.	1	2	3	4	5
05. Employees in this job can expect to stay in the organization for as long as they wish.	1	2	3	4	5
06. It is very difficult to dismiss an employee in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
07. Job security is almost guaranteed to employees in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
08. If this company were facing economic problems, employees in this job would be the last to get cut.	1	2	3	4	5
09. I received continued training to provide good service.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I receive extensive customer service training before I come into contact with customers.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I receive training on how to serve customers better.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I receive training on how to deal with complaining customers.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I receive training on dealing with customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I was trained to deal with customer complaints.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I am empowered to solve customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I am encouraged to handle customer problems by myself.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I do not have to get management's approval before I handle customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I am allowed to do almost anything to solve customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I have control over how I solve customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
20. If I improve the level of service I offer customers, I will be rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5
21. The rewards I receive are based on customer evaluations of service.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I am rewarded for serving customers well.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I am rewarded for dealing effectively with customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I am rewarded for satisfying complaining customers.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Employees in my workgroup work together effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
26. There is a strong team spirit in my workgroup.	1	2	3	4	5
27. There is a lot of cooperation in my workgroup.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Employees in my workgroup are willing to put themselves out for the sake of the group.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Employees in my workgroup encourage each other to work as a team.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Employees have clear career paths within the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Employees have very little future within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Employees' career aspirations within this company are known by their immediate supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Employees who desire promotion have more than one potential position they could be promoted to.	1	2	3	4	5

Section II.

Below are statements that describe how you may think about yourself right now. Use the following scales to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement:

- (1) I strongly disagree
- (2) I disagree
- (3) Somehow I disagree
- (4) Somewhat I agree
- (5) I agree
- (6) I strongly agree

34. I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
45. At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from moving on.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
48. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
49. I usually take stressful things at work in stride.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
51. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
52. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
53. If something can go wrong for me work-wise, it will.	1	2	3	4	5	6
54. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
55. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
56. Copyright	1	2	3	4	5	6
57. I approach this job as if 'every cloud has a silver lining'.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section III.

Please indicate your answer by placing a (√) in the appropriate alternative.

1. How old are you?

- 18-27 ()
- 28-37 ()
- 38-47 ()
- 48-57 ()
- 58 and over ()

2. What is your gender?

- Male ()
- Female ()

3. What is the highest level of education you completed?

- Primary school ()
- Secondary and high school ()
- Vocational school (two-year program) ()
- University first degree ()
- Master or Ph.D. degree ()

4. How long have you been working in this hotel?

- Under 1 year ()
- 1-5 years ()
- 6-10 years ()
- 11-15 years ()
- 16-20 years ()
- More than 20 years ()

5. What is your marital status?

- Single or divorced ()
- Married ()

A FIELD STUDY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY IN ROMANIA

Dear Respondent:

This research is aimed to better understand your daily experiences at work. Therefore, we kindly request that you self-administer this questionnaire.

There are no right or wrong answers in this questionnaire. Any sort of information collected during our research will be kept in confidential. We appreciate your time and participation in our research very much.

If you have any questions about our research, please do not hesitate to contact Mrs. Georgiana Karadas through her e-mail address: Georgiana.karadas@emu.edu.tr.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Research Team:

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Address:

Faculty of Tourism

Eastern Mediterranean University

Gazimagusa, TRNC

Via Mersin 10, Turkey

The following statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the “0” (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you felt it by crossing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

- (0) Never
- (1) Almost never (a few times a year or less)
- (2) Rarely (once a month or less)
- (3) Sometimes (a few times a month)
- (4) Often (once a week)
- (5) Very often (a few times a week)
- (6) Always (Every day)

01. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
02. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
03. I am enthusiastic about my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
04. My job inspires me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
05. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
06. I feel happy when I am working intensely.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
07. I am proud of the work that I do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
08. I am immersed in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
09. I get carried away when I am working.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

A FIELD STUDY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY IN ROMANIA

Dear Respondent:

This research is aimed to better understand your daily experiences at work. Therefore, we kindly request that you self-administer this questionnaire.

There are no right or wrong answers in this questionnaire. Any sort of information collected during our research will be kept in confidential. We appreciate your time and participation in our research very much.

If you have any questions about our research, please do not hesitate to contact Mrs. Georgiana Karadas through her e-mail address: georgiana.karadas@emu.edu.tr.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Research Team:

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Eastern Mediterranean University

Gazimagusa, TRNC

Via Mersin 10, Turkey

Please indicate your disagreement or agreement with each statement by crossing the number using the following five-point scale:

- (6) I strongly disagree
- (7) I disagree
- (8) I am undecided
- (9) I agree
- (10) I strongly agree

01. It is likely that I will actively look for a new job next year.	1	2	3	4	5
02. I often think about quitting.	1	2	3	4	5
03. I will probably look for a new job next year.	1	2	3	4	5

A FIELD STUDY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY IN ROMANIA

Dear Respondent:

The purpose of this research is to obtain information regarding frontline hotel employees' performance under your supervision. Therefore, each questionnaire (to be self-administered by you) will belong to each frontline hotel employee who is supervised by you.

There are no right or wrong answers in this questionnaire. Any sort of information collected during our research will be kept in confidential. We appreciate your time and participation in our research very much.

If you have any questions about our research, please do not hesitate to contact Mrs. Georgiana Karadas through her e-mail address: georgiana.karadas@emu.edu.tr.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Research Team:

Georgiana Karadas

Prof. Dr. Osman M. Karatepe

Address:

Faculty of Tourism
Eastern Mediterranean University
Gazimagusa, TRNC
Via Mersin 10, Turkey

Section I.

Please indicate the frequency which indicates each behavior by crossing the number using the following five-point scale:

- (1) Never
- (2) Seldom
- (3) Sometimes
- (4) Usually
- (5) Almost always

01. This employee carries out his/her routine tasks in ways that are resourceful.	1	2	3	4	5
02. This employee comes up with new ideas for satisfying customer needs.	1	2	3	4	5
03. This employee generates and evaluates multiple alternatives for novel customer problems.	1	2	3	4	5
04. This employee has fresh perspectives on old problems.	1	2	3	4	5
05. This employee improvises methods for solving a problem when an answer is not apparent.	1	2	3	4	5
06. This employee generates creative ideas for service delivery.	1	2	3	4	5

Section II.

Please indicate the frequency which describes each behavior by crossing the number using the following seven-point scale:

- (1) Never
- (2) Almost never
- (3) Rarely
- (4) Sometimes
- (5) Often
- (6) Very often
- (7) Always

07. How often did this employee go above and beyond the “call of duty” when serving customers?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
08. How often did this employee willingly go out of his/her way to make a customer satisfied?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
09. How often did this employee help customers with problems beyond what was expected or required?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7