

**Linking Challenge and Hindrance Stressors to
Employees' Behavioral and Attitudinal Outcomes
through Work Engagement**

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to develop and test a research model that examines the interrelationships of challenge and hindrance stressors, work engagement, quitting intentions, service recovery and job performances as well as creative performance. Broadly speaking, this model aims to test: (1) the effects of challenge and hindrance stressors on work engagement, quitting intentions, service recovery performance, job performance, and creative performance; (2) the impact of work engagement on quitting intentions, service recovery performance, job performance, and creative performance; and (3) the mediating role of work engagement in the aforementioned relationships. Data were collected from customer-contact employees and their immediate supervisors in the international four- and five-star chain hotels in Nigeria.

The results demonstrate that both challenge and hindrance stressors trigger quitting intentions. Work engagement alleviates quitting intentions, while it fosters service recovery, job and creative performances. However, the signs of effects of challenge and hindrance stressors on work engagement are not consistent with our expectations. Therefore, there are unexpected findings about the mediating role of work engagement. Management implications as well as future research implications are also given in light of the study findings.

Keywords: Challenge and Hindrance Stressors, Hotel Employees, Nigeria, Overall Job Performance, Quitting Intentions, Work Engagement.

ÖZ

Bu çalışmanın amacı, iş hayatında stres yaratan birtakım faktörler, işe angaje olma ve önemli sonuç değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen bir araştırma modelini geliştirip test etmektir. Daha açık bir ifadeyle, bu model: (1) stres yaratan faktörlerin işe angaje olma, işten ayrılma niyeti, iş performansı, hizmet iyileştirme performansı ve yaratıcı performans üzerindeki etkilerini; (2) işe angaje olmanın işten ayrılma niyeti, iş performansı, hizmet iyileştirme performansı ve yaratıcı performans üzerindeki etkilerini; ve (3) işe angaje olmanın yukarıda belirtilen ilişkilerdeki aracı rolünü test etmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu çalışmada kullanılan veriler, Nijerya'da uluslararası dört ve beş yıldızlı otellerdeki sınır birim işgörenleri ve onların bağlı oldukları yöneticilerden toplanmıştır.

Çalışmanın bulguları, stres yaratan faktörlerin işten ayrılma niyetini tetiklediğini ortaya koymuştur. İşe angaje olma, işten ayrılma niyetini düşürürken, iş performansı, hizmet iyileştirme performansı ile yaratıcı performansı artırmıştır. Beklenenin aksine, stres yaratan faktörlerin işe angaje olma üzerinde farklı etkileri bulunmuştur. Bu durumda, işe angaje olma değişkeninin aracı rolüne ilişkin farklı bulgulara ulaşılmıştır. Çalışmanın bulguları ışığında, yönetsel belirlemeler ile gelecek çalışmalara yönelik önerilere de yer verilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Genel İş Performansı, İşe Angaje Olma, İşten Ayrılma Niyeti, Nijerya, Otel Çalışanları, Stres Yaratan Faktörler

DEDICATION

Dedicated to...
The Almighty God
The giver of life
The king of glory
The king of kings
The beginning and the end
The creator of heaven and earth
The one who knows the end from the beginning

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

α	Alpha Coefficient
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
ASV	Average Shared Variance
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CCEs	Customer-Contact Employees
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CMIN	Minimum Discrepancy
CR	Composite Reliability
DF	Degree of Freedom
JD-R	Job Demand-Resources
MSV	Maximum Shared Variance
PNFI	Parsimony-Normed Fit Index
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Science
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The introduction chapter enables the reader to have an overall understanding of the research philosophy, purpose and contribution of the empirical investigation, sample and procedure, measurement, and strategy of data analysis. Therefore, this section explains the reason for the use of deductive approach, presents the purpose of the study and discusses its potential contribution to extant research with the relevant theoretical underpinnings, and delineates information about the methodology adopted in the empirical investigation. The participants and procedure and measurement as well as strategy of data analysis are discussed in the methodology part. The introduction chapter concludes with information about the content of the whole dissertation.

1.1 Research Philosophy

1.1.1 Stressors, Work Engagement, and Job Outcomes

Frontline service job is stressful, especially in the hospitality industry, which is characterized by long working hours, low wages, and other potential stressful demands (e.g., Karatepe, 2013a; Karatepe, Beirami, Bouzari, & Safavi, 2014). Customer-contact employees (CCEs) are exposed to these stressful demands that most often influence their job outcomes. Stress at work has been found to give rise to negative outcomes such as low morale, burnout, absenteeism, job seeking behavior, and voluntary turnover (e.g., Crawford, LePine, & Rich 2010; Hon, Chan, & Lu, 2013). However, evidence from empirical studies has demonstrated that not

all stressors are likely to have negative effects on employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes at work (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000; Crawford et al., 2010; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005).

Cavanaugh et al. (2000) have argued that work stress is differentially related in opposite directions (positively and negatively) to attitudinal and behavioral job outcomes depending on how the stressors are interpreted by individuals. They posit that challenge-related self-reported stress will relate to positive outcomes, while hindrance-related self-reported stress will relate to negative outcomes. Examples of challenge stressors include work overload, time pressures, and high levels of job responsibility and have been defined as stressful work circumstances that produce positive feelings (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Employees tend to see such stressors as motivating factors to achievement. Hindrance stressors are defined as undesirable work circumstances that interfere with employees' ability to achieve valued goals. Examples of hindrance stressors include role stress, organizational politics, red tape, and concerns about job security (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Consistent with this notion, LePine et al.'s (2005) examination of distinct relationships between the two types of stressors found that challenge stressors increased motivation and performance, while hindrance stressors decreased motivation and performance.

An observation made in the extant literature is that work engagement is conceptualized as a motivational construct and considered an antipode of burnout (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzáles-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). In the realm of positive psychology, work engagement is defined as a "positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74). Vigor, dedication, and absorption are the three dimensions of work engagement.

Vigorous employees are the ones with high levels of energy, mentally ready and able to invest effort to work in any circumstances; dedicated employees are the ones who are inspired by their work and have a significant sense of pursuit; and absorbed employees are the ones who are fully concentrated on their work (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Research has shown that engaged employees exhibit desirable outcomes (e.g., low levels of quitting intentions, good job performance, organizational commitment) (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011; Karatepe, 2013a; Karatepe et al., 2014; Lee & Ok, 2016; Menguc, Auh, Fisher, & Haddad, 2013). In fact, these findings are also supported by Halbesleben's (2010) meta-analytic investigation. He has indicated that work engagement is significantly correlated with organizational commitment ($\rho = 0.38$), job performance ($\rho = 0.36$), health ($\rho = 0.20$), and quitting intentions ($\rho = -0.26$).

1.1.2 Deductive Approach

The paragraphs given above implicitly demonstrate that this study uses deductive approach. As stated by Graziano and Raulin (1993), deductive theory is "more traditional and formalized theory in which constructs are of major importance. The constructs (ideas) guide the researcher in making and testing deductions from the constructs. The deductions are empirically tested through research and thus support or lack of support for the theory obtained" (p. 37). The current study's research model examines work engagement as a mediator of the effects of challenge and hindrance stressors on service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions. This is guided by the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The relationships mentioned above are assessed via data collected from hotel CCEs two weeks apart in three waves and their immediate supervisors in Nigeria.

1.2 Theoretical Rationale

1.2.1 The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model

The JD-R model proposes that job demands and job resources which are differentially associated with various outcomes can be used to categorize working conditions (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). Job demands are defined as "... those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs..." (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Such demands, among others, include role ambiguity, role conflict, emotional demands, and work pressure. On the other hand, job resources refer to "those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following (a) functional in achieving work goals, (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and (c) stimulate personal growth, learning and development" (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Job resources, among others, consist of work social support and high-performance human resource practices or high-performance work practices (e.g., autonomy, rewards).

The JD-R model assumes that job demands are related to strain (e.g., burnout) and therefore result in undesirable outcomes such as depression, turnover, ineffective performance at work, and absenteeism (e.g., Bakker, Demerouti, de Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). This is called 'the health impairment process of the JD-R model'. Job resources are related to work engagement and therefore lead to desirable outcomes such as effective performance at work, organizational commitment, reduced quitting intentions, and lower absenteeism (Bakker et al., 2003; Karatepe, 2012; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, &

Schaufeli, 2008). This is called ‘the motivational process of the JD-R model’. The JD-R model also assumes that job resources act as buffers between job demands and strain (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Karatepe, 2011). That is, the detrimental effects of job demands on strain or burnout are weaker among employees who have elevated levels of job resources. This is called ‘the buffering role of job resources in the JD-R model’. In the JD-R model, it is also proposed that personal resources link job resources to work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). This is called ‘the role of personal resources in the JD-R model’.

Although a number of studies do not find any significant association between job demands and work engagement or do not seek an association between job demands and work engagement, Halbesleben’s (2010) meta-analytic study presents positive correlations between job demands and work engagement. Specifically, he has reported that work-family conflict ($\rho = 0.43$), family-work conflict ($\rho = 0.25$), and work overload ($\rho = 0.19$) depict positive correlations with work engagement. It appears that these findings are not *trivial* and job demands are significantly related to work engagement, as also reported in recent studies (Karatepe, 2013a; Karatepe et al., 2014).

1.2.2 Transactional Theory of Stress

As argued in the preceding parts, stressors are classified into two categories—challenge and hindrance (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Challenge stressor is defined as the stress that has the ability to stimulate personal growth and increase positive emotions. Such stressors, among others, include high levels of job responsibility, job complexity, time urgency, and high workload (e.g., Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005; Rodell & Judge, 2009). On the other hand, hindrance stressor is defined as the stress that has the ability to mitigate personal growth, emotions, and individual

future goals. Such stressors, among others, include role conflict, organizational politics, hassles, red tape, job insecurity, and role ambiguity (e.g., Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005; Rodell & Judge, 2009).

How employee's appraisal of challenge and hindrance stressors varies depending on individual characteristics. They differentiate these demands as either challenge or hindrance based on their experiences on the level of work-related demands (Crawford et al., 2010). Through the appraisal outcomes, employees can perceive stress as a positive influence that triggers positive emotions and encourage changes. Similarly, stress can also be perceived as a negative influence that triggers negative emotions leading to undesirable attitudes and behaviors (Crawford et al., 2010; Hon et al., 2013).

What is discussed above is guided by the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). According to this theory, individuals appraise whether each job demand has implications for their well-being (Judge & Colquitt, 2004). Job demands can be either challenging or threatening. Individuals who feel challenged at work perceive this as an opportunity to enhance learning efforts and foster their personal growth (Crawford et al., 2010; Karatepe et al., 2014). Such individuals are highly engaged in their work and therefore demonstrate desirable outcomes (e.g., good performance at work). Individuals who are beset with hindrance demands perceive these demands as constraints that threaten or thwart learning efforts and impede their personal growth (Crawford et al., 2010; Karatepe et al., 2014). These individuals are less engaged in their work and therefore display undesirable outcomes (e.g., poor performance at work).

1.3 Purpose and Contribution of the Study

1.3.1 Purpose

Drawing from the transactional theory of stress, this study develops and proposes a conceptual model that examines work engagement as a mediator between challenge and hindrance stressors and critical employee outcomes. Specifically, this study tests: (1) the influences of both challenge and hindrance stressors on work engagement and quitting intentions; (2) the effect of work engagement on the abovementioned job outcomes; and (3) the mediating role of work engagement in these relationships.

Service recovery performance is defined as "... frontline service employees' perceptions of their own abilities and actions to resolve a service failure to the satisfaction of the customer" (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003, p. 274), while job performance is defined as "the level of productivity of an individual employee, relative to his or her peers, on several job-related behaviors and outcomes" (Babin & Boles, 1998, p. 82). Quitting intentions refer to CCEs' tendency to quit or leave the organization (Singh, Verbeke, & Rhoads, 1996), while creative performance refers to new and novel ideas as well as feedback provided by CCEs for improving service delivery process (Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014; Wang & Netemeyer, 2004). Data collected from hotel CCEs two weeks apart in three waves and their immediate supervisors in Nigeria are utilized to gauge each of the relationships proposed in this study.

1.3.2 Contribution to Current Knowledge

What is proposed above is likely to contribute to current knowledge and enhance our understanding about the challenge-hindrance stressor framework. First, due to the

nature of their job, CCEs are beset with stressful demands that deplete their energy (Babakus et al., 2003; Karatepe et al., 2014). However, employees are likely to have different perceptions about various stressors they are beset with. Some employees perceive that challenge stressors provide the opportunity for learning and growth, while some of them perceive that hindrance stressors thwart their learning and growth (Crawford et al., 2010). Some employees can also perceive challenge and hindrance stressors as stressful demands that impede their learning and growth (Bakker & Sanz-Vergel, 2013).

Empirical research about the challenge-hindrance stressor framework in the hospitality management literature is in its infancy stage (Min, Kim, & Lee, 2015), and the empirical link pertaining to the effects of challenge and hindrance stressors on work engagement is not well established. This is mostly due to the mixed findings about the effects of these stressors on work engagement (Babakus, Yavas, & Karatepe, 2016). For example, Min et al.'s (2015) study shows that both challenge and hindrance stressors weaken employees' work engagement. However, in their study, the effects of hindrance stressors on work engagement are marginal (i.e., at the 0.10 level). Babakus et al.'s (2016) recent study does not delineate any significant association between these stressors and work engagement. On the other hand, Tadić, Bakker, and Oerlemans (2015) have found that daily hindrance stressors negatively influence work engagement, while daily challenge stressors positively affect work engagement. Crawford et al. (2010) have also demonstrated that challenge stressors stimulate work engagement, while hindrance stressors reduce work engagement. Considering the gap about the challenge-hindrance stressors framework as well as the mixed findings across the studies, the present study tests the effects of both challenge and hindrance stressors on work engagement among CCEs.

Second, Podsakoff, LePine, and LePine's (2007) study has reported that challenge stressors increase job satisfaction and organizational commitment and reduce turnover. Their study has also shown that hindrance stressors mitigate job satisfaction and organizational commitment and heighten turnover. Although there is evidence about the effects of challenge and hindrance stressors on performance and motivation (LePine et al., 2005), evidence about the relationships of both challenge and hindrance stressors to three critical performance outcomes in frontline service jobs is scanty. In fact, there are mixed findings about the direct effects of these stressors on performance outcomes (e.g., Geng et al., 2014; Hon et al., 2013). Work engagement is a more proximal construct to performance-related consequences (Karatepe, 2012; Karatepe, 2013b; Menguc et al., 2013) and is considered a mediator in the relationship between challenge and hindrance stressors and the aforementioned performance outcomes.

This study uses quitting intentions as a critical outcome because turnover is still a problem among CCEs in the hotel industry. Assessing the factors that influence quitting intentions among CCEs is significant and relevant (Babakus et al., 2016; Karatepe, 2015a). Work engagement is also considered a mediator between challenge and hindrance stressors and quitting intentions.

Third, unlike the overwhelming majority of the empirical studies, this study uses data gathered from hotel CCEs two weeks apart in three waves and their immediate supervisors in Nigeria. Nigeria is an oil-rich nation. Despite this, Nigeria is still a developing country in the sub-Saharan Africa. The hotel industry in this country is an important service setting to assess the previously stated relationships (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe & Olugbade 2009). Specifically, CCEs in the Nigerian

hotel industry are faced with a number of challenge and hindrance stressors and work in an environment where modern or contemporary human resource practices are not prevalent (cf. Karatepe & Agbaim, 2012; Karatepe & Magaji, 2008). Under these circumstances, management should hire and retain employees who can handle different types of stressors, are engaged in their work, and display positive outcomes (cf. Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009). In short, the results of this investigation are likely to yield important implications about the management of CCEs in the hotel industry.

1.4 Proposed Methodology of the Study

1.4.1 Sample

This study deployed judgmental sampling. As stated by Churchill (1995, p. 582), “the sample elements are selected because it is believed that they are representative of the population of interest”. Consistent with similar studies, this study used four criteria to specify the sample. First, this study considered the international five - and four-star chain hotels. This is due to the fact that management of the international chain hotels is expected to have appropriate complaint handling processes, encourage employees for creativity or innovativeness, and use effective human resources strategies to control employee turnover rate (cf. Karatepe & Karadas, 2015). Second, full-time employees were included in the study because part-time CCEs are outsiders and do not appear to be familiar with human resource practices of the organization (Karatepe & Magaji, 2008). In addition, they do not stay long in the workplace.

Third, CCEs were included in the study because these employees have frequent direct contact with customers and play a significant role in service delivery (Karatepe, 2011, 2012). They are also expected to provide quick and fair responses to customer complaints (Choi, Kim, Lee, & Lee, 2014; Karatepe, 2012). Fourth, the

present study gathered data from local employees in Nigeria. This is because of the fact that countries in the sub-Saharan African region are still underrepresented in the hospitality management literature (cf. Karatepe, 2015b; Karatepe & Agbaim, 2012).

Using the abovementioned criteria, this study collected data from a judgmental sample of full-time CCEs in the international four- and five-star hotels in Nigeria. These CCEs were employed as front desk agents, guest relations representatives, food servers, beverage servers, door attendants, bell attendants, and reservations agents.

1.4.2 Procedure

Information taken from the National Institute of Hospitality and Tourism in Abuja at the time of the present study revealed that there were various international chain hotels where five were in the five-star category and 19 were in the four-star category. Management of 20 hotels was contacted via a letter. This letter contained the purpose of the study and permission for collecting data from CCEs. Permission from 11 hotels was obtained. That is, two five - and nine four-star hotels agreed to participate in the study. Since the researcher was not allowed to distribute the questionnaires to CCEs, this process was carried out by the representatives of each hotel. However, this is prone to selection bias. The researcher used one remedy to minimize such a threat. That is, the researcher requested the representatives to distribute the questionnaires to employees in different customer-contact positions (e.g., Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009).

This study utilized the Time 1, Time 2, Time 3, and supervisor questionnaires. Using such a design is not prevalent in the hospitality management literature (cf. Line & Runyan, 2012). If not controlled, obtaining data from single sources or

gathering self-report data leads to common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). According to Podsakoff et al. (2012), using a time lag and collecting data from multiple sources are among the potential remedies that minimize common method bias in an empirical study. Therefore, the researcher gathered data from CCEs two weeks apart in three waves and their immediate supervisors. This data collection is in line with the works of Karatepe and Karadas (2015) and Karatepe and Choubtarash (2014).

In addition, the researcher used several response-enhancing techniques before and during data collection (Anseel, Lievens, Schollaert, & Choragwicka, 2010; Karatepe & Karadas, 2015). For example, each questionnaire had a cover page that contained information about anonymity and confidentiality and stated that there were no wrong or rights answers to the items (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Management of each hotel provided support and coordination for this study. Participation in the study was voluntary. The researcher utilized envelopes to receive the questionnaires and matched the questionnaires through identification codes (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015).

The Time 1 questionnaire contained the challenge and hindrance stressors items and items about CCEs' profile. The Time 2 questionnaire included the work engagement items. The Time 3 questionnaire contained the quitting intentions items and the supervisor questionnaire consisted of the service recovery performance, creative performance, and job performance items. The researcher was able to obtain 287 questionnaires.

1.4.3 Measures

As stated above, this study used four different questionnaires to obtain data: the Time 1, Time 2, Time 3, and supervisor questionnaires. Each of these questionnaires was

subject to four different pilot studies before the main data collection process. The Time 1 questionnaire was tested with ten CCEs. This was repeated for the Time 2 and Time 3 questionnaires. The supervisor questionnaire was also tested with ten supervisors. The results suggested no need for making amendments about the understandability of the items in the aforesaid questionnaires.

The study constructs are ‘challenge stressors’, ‘hindrance stressors’, ‘work engagement’, ‘service recovery performance’, ‘creative performance’, ‘job performance’, and ‘quitting intentions’. Challenge stressors were measured with six items, while hindrance stressors were measured with five items. All items came from Cavanaugh et al. (2000). Response options ranged from 5 (*produces a great deal of stress*) to 1 (*produces no stress*).

The shortened version of the Utrecht work engagement scale was used. Specifically, nine items came from Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006). Response options ranged from 6 (*always*) to 0 (*never*). Service recovery performance was operationalized with five items and these items were taken from Boshoff and Allen’s (2000) study. Job performance was also measured with five items and these items were adapted from Babin and Boles’s (1998) study. Three items were utilized to measure quitting intentions. These three items were taken from Singh et al.’s (1996) study. Response options for the items in service recovery performance, job performance, and quitting intentions ranged from 5 (*strongly agree*) to 1 (*strongly disagree*). Lastly, six items were adapted from Wang and Netemeyer (2004) to assess creative performance. Response options ranged from 5 (*almost always*) to 1 (*never*).

In addition to the study constructs, gender and organizational tenure were used as control variables to check whether they acted as confounding variables. Gender was measured as a binary variable (0 = male and 1 = female). Organizational tenure was measured in four categories (1 = under 1 year, 2 = 1-5 years, 3 = 6-10 years, and 4 = 11-15 years).

1.4.4 Strategy of Data Analysis

Two steps were conducted to test the measurement and structural models. First, the measurement model was assessed in terms of quality of the psychometric properties (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Specifically, convergent and discriminant validity as well as internal consistency reliability were assessed. These were reported based on the results of confirmatory factor analysis. Internal consistency reliability was also tested through coefficient alpha (Nunnally, 1978). Second, the structural model was assessed with structural equation modeling. Before this, the hypothesized model was tested with several alternative models based on the minimum discrepancy (CMIN) difference test. The mediating effects were tested based on bias-corrected bootstrapping method (Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010).

For the assessment of the measurement and structural models, the following model fit statistics were used: overall CMIN measure (CMIN/DF), comparative fit index (CFI), parsimony-normed fit index (PNFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) (Hair et al., 2010). These were employed through the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) 20 (Arbuckle, 2011).

Summary statistics and correlations of observed variables were also reported in this study. Broadly speaking, means, standard deviations, and correlations of gender, organizational tenure, challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, work engagement, service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions were reported. Respondents' profile was reported through frequencies.

1.5 Outline of the Dissertation

This dissertation consists seven chapters. The first chapter which is called 'introduction' consists of information regarding research philosophy, theoretical rationale as well as purpose and contribution of the study. This chapter also explains the proposed methodology of the study.

The second chapter presents the 'literature review'. In this chapter, significant information about challenge and hindrance stressors, work engagements and some specific attitudinal and behavioral outcomes is presented. The third chapter that includes 'research hypotheses' presents the conceptual model and gives discussion of hypotheses development based on the transactional theory of stress. In the fourth chapter, information regarding the 'methodology' of the empirical study (e.g., sample and procedure, measurement, and strategy of data analysis) is given. In chapter five, the 'results' regarding the measurement and structural models as well as respondents' profile, summary statistics and correlations are reported. The sixth chapter delineates 'discussion' of the findings, theoretical and managerial implications, and limitations and future research. The 'conclusion' part of the dissertation is in the 'seventh chapter'.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents detailed information about the challenge and hindrance stressors. The antecedents of work engagement, attitudinal and behavioral outcomes are discussed. This chapter also discusses the JD-R model and transactional theory of stress as a theoretical framework of this study.

2.1 The JD-R Model

The JD-R model was developed to explain the two psychological processes (health impairment and motivational) of employee well-being based on different occupational own specific risk factors (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). Job demands refer to “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). Such demands include role ambiguity, work-family conflicts, role conflicts, and high work pressure (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). On the other hand, job resources refer to “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are either/or: (a) functional in achieving work goals, (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and (c) stimulate personal growth, learning and development” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). Empirical evidence has shown that job demands such as high workload, role ambiguity and emotional demands can have a profound effect on

employees' well-being and job outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001).

The JD-R model assumes that high job demands and limited job resources lead to employees' burnout irrespective of occupation (Demerouti et al., 2001). In the absence of resources, individuals experience negative outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism and lack of organizational commitment and are unable to achieve their goals (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). It has been argued that job demands may not be negative but it may turn to stressors if meeting those demands requires sustained effort to the extent that it leads to depression and burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). A review of the extant literature reveals that while job demands (e.g., high work pressure, emotional demands, role ambiguity) in the workplace may lead to exhaustion and impaired health, job resources (e.g., social support, performance feedback, autonomy) are likely to activate a motivational process that increases individual's work engagement and organizational commitment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

This model also postulates that the health impairment process and prolonged job demands drain individual resources (mental and physical), and may reduce individuals' energy, and subsequently, leading to health problems (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Under these conditions, individual employees may either adopt a performance protection strategy (strain coping mode) that comes with an increased cost or reduces performance (passive coping mode) with no additional costs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). That is, "after having invested extra energy, up to the point of exhaustion, employees

‘decide’ that ‘enough is enough’ and hence switch from an active/strain mode to a passive coping mode that is characterized by disinvestment and disengagement” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 298).

Another assumption of the JD-R model is that job resources motivate individuals and increase work engagement, job performance, and lower cynicism (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). As a motivational construct, job resources enhance individuals’ growth, learning, development, competency and autonomy in the workplace. For instance, when employees receive adequate work social support and feedback, such support mechanisms lead to increased competency and encourage autonomy that will not only enhance organizational effectiveness but also employees’ well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). As a motivational construct, a supportive work environment with adequate resources increases employees’ abilities and stimulates their willingness and dedication to the work task (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Specifically, it motivates employees to successfully complete the task and achieve overall objectives.

The JD-R model further proposes that job resources may buffer the effect of job demands on strain such as burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The model expands Karasek’s (1979, 1998) demand-control model and postulates that even though job resources buffer several job demands, specific prevailing job characteristics determine the roles of job demands and resources in each organization. For example, “a high quality relationship with one’s supervisor may alleviate the influence of job demands (e.g. work overload, emotional and physical demands) on job strain, since leaders’ appreciation and support put the demands in another perspective. Leaders’ appreciation and support may also aid the workers in coping with job demands,

facilitate performance, and act as a protector against ill health” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 315).

2.2 The Transactional Theory of Stress

From the transactional perspective, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) introduced the theory of stress and argued that emotional life can be determined when individual characteristics and environmental attributes are considered simultaneously. They established that people’s emotional reaction to situations such as stress requires interplay between certain environmental attributes and individuals with some particular characteristics that will allow them to respond when exposed to those environmental attributes. As such, this theory centered on two basic approaches to well-being - cognitive appraisal and coping.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) argued that “cognitive appraisal can be most readily understood as the process of categorizing an encounter, and its various facets, with respect to its significance for well-being” (p. 31). Specifically, the transactional theory of stress emphasized on the need for constant individuals’ appraisal of stress based on its significance for their well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). These stressors were distinguished as “harm already experienced; threat, which is harm that is anticipated and challenge, which is the potential for mastery or gain” (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987, p. 145). As such, to determine which job demands are potentially harmful or beneficial depends on the interplay between environmental conditions such as social and cultural and psychological characteristics that allow individuals to respond to such environmental conditions (Lazarus, 1990; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This is because, people appraise stressful situations based on their characteristics, and therefore, are likely to appraise and respond to the same

situations differently (Crawford et al., 2010; Lazarus, 1984; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). Thus, cognitive appraisal approach involves people's interpretation of demands encountered and employment of coping strategy to manage such demands (Lazarus & Folkman, 1990).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) defined coping as “constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person” (p. 141). Accordingly, both approaches are interrelated in that, individual interpretation of demands as either challenge or threatening requires different forms of coping. Specifically, once situations are appraised as stressors, coping approach is employed to manage such stressors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1990). For instance, stressors appraised as challenge will stimulate active form of coping such as problem-focused coping because of its associated potential for growth and achievement (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, 1990). Therefore, employees who appraise stressors as challenge at work are likely to implement problem-focused coping behavior by putting in extra efforts in order to successfully complete the task due to the perceived potential opportunities for personal goals and a sense of accomplishment.

In contrast, stressors appraised as threatening will stimulate defensive or withdrawal form of coping such as emotion-focused coping behavior because of its associated hindrances for personal learning, growth and goals (Crawford et al., 2010; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, 1990). Therefore, employees who appraise stressors as hindrance at work are likely to implement emotion-focused coping behavior by simply avoiding and distancing or completely withdraw from the tasks perceived harmful to personal goals and a sense of accomplishment.

2.3 Challenge Stressors

Several studies have examined challenge stressors and their effects on work-related outcomes. Cavanaugh et al. (2000) reported that challenge demands (e.g., job overload, time pressure, and high levels of responsibility) produce positive feelings and motivate individuals, even though such demands can be stressful, but individuals may perceive them as motivating force to learn and achieve goals. Challenge stressors were defined as “work-related demands or circumstances that, although potentially stressful, have associated potential gains for individuals” (Cavanaugh et al., 2000, p. 68). Specifically, challenge stressors are stressful and require energy, but also contain the challenging aspect of job that motivates individual workers to achieve and grow (Cavanaugh et al., 2000).

The study results indicated that challenge stressors were significantly and positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to job search. LePine et al. (2005) reported in their meta-analytic study that workers appraised challenge stressors (e.g., workload and job complexity) as having the potential to activate problem-style of coping and positive emotions because individuals view them “as obstacles to be overcome in order to learn and achieve” (p. 765). For instance, workers who are given high responsibility at work are likely to believe that, although it requires more energy and extra effort in order to successfully complete the task, they will achieve personal goals and a sense of accomplishment. Their study, however, revealed that challenge stressors had a direct positive effect on performance and indirectly through motivation. Consistent with the earlier study, LePine, LePine and Jackson (2004) revealed that challenge stressors had a direct positive relationship with motivation to

learn and an indirect positive effect on learning performance through motivation to learn.

Likewise, Boswell, Olson-Buchanan, and LePine (2004) defined challenge stressors as “work-related demands or circumstances that, although potentially stressful, have associated potential gains for individuals” (p. 166). To ascertain the relationships of challenge stressors with work-related outcomes, unlike Cavanaugh et al.’s (2000) study, Boswell et al. (2004) tested these relationships using non-executive employees at a western university. The results indicated that challenge stressors increased organizational loyalty and reduced work withdrawal, job search activity, and intention to quit among the employees. It was argued that although employees may experience challenge related stress, such experience may be perceived as an opportunity to learn and grow (Boswell et al., 2004). For example, if individuals see a stressed situation as potentially rewarding and changeable, they are likely to cope with the situation if they put extra effort.

In a meta-analytic study, Crawford et al. (2010) extended the JD-R model with regard to differential effects of stressors on burnout and work engagement. They reported that challenge stressors (e.g., high workload, time pressure, and high levels of responsibility) “tend to be appraised as stressful demands that have the potentials, to promote mastery, personal growth, or future gain” (p. 836). The study results demonstrated that challenge stressors had positive relationships with work engagement and burnout, but a stronger relationship with work engagement. Recently, Karatepe et al. (2014) demonstrated that challenge stressors (e.g., work overload and job responsibility) increased hotel employees’ work engagement, affective commitment, and job performance in Northern Cyprus.

Studies have also found unexpected results with regard to the relationships of challenge stressors to work outcomes. For instance, Sonnentag (2003) reported unexpected findings in the study conducted in Germany using 147 employees in the public service. The findings indicated that time pressure was not significantly related to work engagement. Consequently, the majority of empirical studies indicate that individuals tend to perceive challenge demands as opportunity to demonstrate their competency to achieve and grow. Accordingly, stress may not necessarily lead to undesirable outcomes, even though it might require an increased effort and energy. Therefore, stressors that are viewed by individuals to be challenging or potentially gainful should have positive effects on behavioral and attitudinal work-related outcomes.

2.4 Hindrance Stressors

Another stressor classified as hindrance stressors is considered to be harmful or threatening to personal growth, learning and accomplishment (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2004). According to Cavanaugh et al. (2000), hindrance stressors (e.g., organizational politics, red tape, and concern about job security) is “work-related demands or circumstances that tend to constrain or interfere with an individual’s work environment and that do not tend to be associated with potential gains for the individual” (p. 68). They reported that hindrance stressors were negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to job search and voluntary turnover among high level firm managers. LePine et al. (2004) reported that learners who experience hindrance stressors perceive the situation as negative and make no effort toward learning. For example, individuals who experience stress associated with lack of social support may stop making efforts to learn and eventually withdraw because they assume that making attempt to learn will

not yield positive results. It was revealed in the study conducted with students who enrolled in an introductory management course that hindrance stressors discouraged them from learning and increased their exhaustion (LePine et al., 2004). In a meta-analytic study, LePine et al. (2005) explained that managers viewed hindrance demands (e.g., organizational politics, red tape, and role ambiguity) as a type of demand that thwarts personal goals and growth unnecessarily. However, the study results demonstrated that hindrance demands had a direct negative relation with performance and an indirect negative relation through motivation and strain.

In a similar meta-analytic study, Crawford et al. (2010) referred to hindrance demands (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, red tape, and administrative hassles) as a type of demand appraised as stressful with the potential to hinder personal learning, growth and goals. They tested the relationships between hindrance demands and work engagement using 64 samples. The study results revealed that hindrance demands had a negative association with work engagement. Supporting this notion, Boswell et al. (2004) argued that some stressful aspect of jobs can be disruptive. For instance, individuals who perceive stressful aspect of jobs as hindrance are likely to be detracted from learning and goal accomplishment as a result of anger. Their results established a negative relationship between hindrance stressors and loyalty, and significant positive relationships between hindrance stressors and job search and intention to quit. Accordingly, evidence from above indicates that hindrance stressors are associated with undesirable attitudinal and behavioral work-related outcome.

In summary, Table 1 provides some selected studies on challenge-related and hindrance-related stressors. The table includes the authors, study samples, variables

measured as stressors, findings, and future suggestions. The table includes both empirical and meta-analytic approaches on challenge-hindrance stressor framework research and work-related outcomes in the workplace.

Table 1: Selected Research on the Challenge–Hindrane Stressor Framework

Authors	Definitions of stressors	Samples	Measures	Findings	Limitations	Future suggestion
Cavanaugh et al. (2000)	<p>Defined challenge related self-reported stress as “self-reported work stress associated with challenging job demands” (p. 66).</p> <p>Defined hindrance-related self-reported stress as “stress associated with job demands or work circumstances that involve excessive or undesirable constraints that interfere with or hinder an individual’s ability to achieve valued goals (demands that produce distress)” (p. 67).</p>	1,886 high-level managers in the United States	<p>The following six items were developed by the authors as challenge stressors scale:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The number of projects or assignments I have. 2. The amount of time I spend at work. 3. The volume of work that must be accomplished in the allotted time. 4. Time pressure I experience. 5. The amount of responsibility I have. 6. The scope of responsibility my position entails. <p>The following five items were developed by the authors as hindrance stressors scale:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The degree to which politics rather than performance affects organizational decisions. 2. The inability to clearly understand what is expected of me on the job. 3. The amount of red tape that I need to go through to get my job done. 4. The lack of job security I have. 5. The degree to which my career seems “stalled.” 	<p>Challenge-related self-reported stress had a positive relationship with job satisfaction, a negative relationship with job search and no significant relationship with voluntary turnover.</p> <p>Hindrane-related self-reported stress had a negative relationship with job satisfaction, positive relationships with job search and voluntary turnover.</p>	<p>Low response rate (19%) may lead to sample bias</p> <p>With the use of executive managers, the findings may not be generalized to the samples.</p>	<p>The dimensionality of the self-reported work stress construct needs further empirical investigation.</p> <p>The relationship between challenge and hindrance-related self-reported stress and the feelings associated with the experienced stress worth investigating to ascertain the causal linkage.</p>
Boswell et al. (2004)	<p>Challenge-related stress was defined as “work-related demands or circumstances that, although potentially stressful, have associated potential gains for individuals” (Cavanaugh et al., 2000, p. 12).</p> <p>Hindrane-related stress was defined as “work-related demands or circumstances that tend to constrain or interfere with an individual’s work achievement, and which do not tend to be associated with potential gains for the individual” (Cavanaugh et al.,</p>	461 university employees	<p>The six-item challenge stressor scale developed by Cavanaugh et al. (2000) was used.</p> <p>The five-item hindrance stressor scale developed by Cavanaugh et al. (2000) was used.</p>	<p>Challenge stress was significantly and positively related to organizational loyalty, and negatively related to work withdrawal, job search, and intention to quit.</p> <p>Hindrane stress was significantly and negatively related to organizational loyalty, and positively related to job search and intention to quit. However, the association with work withdrawal</p>	<p>The potential bias effects of respondents’ negative affect were not controlled.</p> <p>The use of cross-sectional research may have affected the reported stress levels expressed and its effect on employees’ work outcomes. The use of challenging-</p>	<p>The process at which job demands (e.g., job complexity, scope) influence reported stress levels and employees’ work-related outcomes needs further empirical investigation.</p>

	2000, p. 12).			was not significant.	hindering scale items developed by Cavanaugh et al. (2000) may have limited findings related to some specific job demands.	
LePine et al. (2004)	<p>Defined challenge stress as “promoting mastery, personal growth or future gains” (p. 884).</p> <p>Defined hindrance stress as “hindering personal growth or future gains” (p. 884).</p>	871 students enrolled in an introductory management course at a large southeastern university	<p>The following five items were developed by the authors as challenge stress scale:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The number of projects/assignments in your classes. 2. The amount of time spent working on projects/assignments for your classes. 3. The difficulty of the work required in your classes. 4. The volume of coursework that must be completed in your classes. 5. The time pressures experienced for completing work required in your classes. <p>The following five items were developed by the authors as hindrance stress scale:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The amount of time spent on “busy work” for your classes. 2. The degree to which favoritism rather than performance affects final grades in your classes. 3. The inability to clearly understand what is expected of you in your classes. 4. The amount of hassles you need to go through to get projects/assignments done. 5. The degree to which your learning progression seems stalled. 	<p>Challenge stress was significantly and positively related to exhaustion, motivation to learn, and learning performance.</p> <p>Hindrance stress was significantly and positively related to exhaustion and negatively related to motivation to learn and learning performance.</p>	The use of undifferentiated measure of stress may have potential implications on the study causality.	<p>Integration of stress and motivation constructs will shed light on the substantial overlap between the theories of stress and theories of motivation.</p> <p>The study also suggests further investigation of the impact of challenge-hindrance stressors on transfer of the learning, job context and learner health.</p> <p>Factors that influence how individuals categorize subjective stress into hindrances and challenges need further investigation.</p>
LePine et al. (2005)	A “factor included demands such as high workload, time pressure, job scope, and high responsibility” was “labeled challenge stressors because it included stressful demands viewed by managers as obstacles to be overcome in order to learn and achieve” (p. 765)	82 manuscripts and articles reporting data from 101 samples.	<p>The challenge stressors measure was categorized as:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Job/role demands 2. Pressure, 3. Time urgency 4. Workload. 	The measures categorized as challenge stressors were significantly and positively related to strains, motivation, and performance.	The use of primary research may have the potential implication on the challenge – hindrance measures and the differing effects.	The fundamental mechanisms predicting the impact of stress on motivation need further investigation.

	A “factor included demands such as organizational politics, red tape, role ambiguity, and concerns about job security” was “labeled “hindrance stressors because it included stressful demands viewed by managers as unnecessarily thwarting personal growth and goal attainment” (p. 765).		The hindrance stressors measure was categorized as <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Constraints 2. Hassles 3. Resource inadequacy 4. Role ambiguity 5. Role and interpersonal conflict, 6. Role dissensus 7. Role interference 8. Role clarity (reverse-coded) 9. Role overload 10. Supervisor-related stress 11. Organizational politics 	The measures categorized as hindrance stressors were significantly and positively related to strains, but had negative relationships to motivation and performance	Cross-sectional data may have potential implication on the study causality.	
Crawford et al. (2010)	Challenge stressor “tend to be appraised as stressful demands that have the potential to promote mastery, personal growth, or future gains” (p. 836). Hindrance stressors “tend to be appraised as stressful demands that have the potential to thwart personal growth, learning, and goal attainment” (p. 836).	55 manuscripts and articles reporting data from 64 samples	The challenge demands measure included <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The level of attention required by job/role demands 2. Job complexity 3. Job responsibility 4. Pressure to complete tasks 5. Time urgency 6. Quantitative and subjective workload The hindrance demands measure included <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Situational constraints 2. Hassles 3. Organizational politics 4. Resource inadequacies 5. Role ambiguity 6. Role conflict 7. Role overload. 	Challenge demands were significantly and positively related to burnout and engagement Hindrance demands were significantly and positive related with burnout but negatively related with engagement	The data used may have limited the underlying mechanisms linking job resources and demands to engagement and burnout.	How demands are appraised as challenges or hindrance, as well as the effect of these appraisals on the cognitions, emotions, and coping strategies translate to self-perceptions of engagement should be investigated. The measures used in the study may have a potential implication on the findings.
Tadić et al. (2015)	Challenge demands “present conditions that require effort and energy, but efficient dealing with them can result in growth, learning, and goal attainment” (p. 3).	158 primary school teachers in Croatia	16-item scale by Rodell and Judge (2009) adapted for the diary study was used to measure challenge and hindrance demands.	Challenge demands significantly increased daily positive affect and work engagement.	The degree of the participants’ involvement in the study and their awareness on work-related experiences may have potential	Longitudinal multimethod data collection such as multiple information sources from colleagues and pupils to develop and

	Hindrance demands “present work tasks and conditions that require effort and energy, but do not have the growth potential” (p. 3).			Hindrance demands significantly reduced daily positive affect and work engagement.	implications on their responses.	test models capturing the dynamic relations in employees’ experiences of challenge and hindrance demands may further strengthen the findings.
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2.5 Work Engagement

As a motivational construct, work engagement has received considerable attention from both practitioners and researchers. Kahn (1990) conceptualized engagement as “the harnessing of organizational members’ selves to their work roles” (p. 694). The concept has been denoted as positive psychology that reflects positive aspects of employees’ work-related well-being. It has been argued that engaged employees are highly motivated individuals who come to work with a positive mindset, energetic, and willingly applying high level of energy to their work in order to accomplish goals (Leiter & Bakker, 2010).

Leiter and Bakker (2010) defined work engagement as a “positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work-related well-being that can be seen as the antipode of job burnout” (p. 1). Engaged employees are highly involved in their work, they use their capacity to solve problems and pay attention to details, and fully absorb in their work to the extents that they do not pay attention to time (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Roma, and Bakker (2002) defined engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (p. 74). The dimension of vigor reflects being energetic and mentally ready while working. Dedication is characterized by being highly involved in ones’ work and having a sense of challenge and enthusiasm, while absorption refers to being happy and deep involvement in one’s work to the point where time passes unnoticed and having difficulties in detaching from work. Studies have demonstrated that high levels of energy and self-efficacy help engaged employees to influence events around them

(Leiter & Bakker, 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2002). Therefore, they often experience joy, enthusiasm and inspire others at work (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Studies on the consequences of work engagement have demonstrated its positive relationship with work related outcomes. Specifically, Bakker et al. (2007) found that job resources (e.g., job control, supervisor support, climate, innovativeness, information, and appreciation) had significant positive relationships with the three dimensions of work engagement. Xanthopoulou et al. (2007a) demonstrated that personal resources (e.g., self-efficacy, organizational-based self-esteem, and optimism) predicted work engagement. In a study conducted in Taiwan, Yeh (2013) reported a significant relationship between tourism involvement and work engagement. The results also showed that work engagement and job satisfaction were positively related. Therefore, engaged employees are highly motivated people who possess both personal and job resources that help cope successfully and deal with the demands of their job.

2.6 Behavioral and Attitudinal Outcomes

Service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions are considered as the potential consequences in this study. Though there are other consequences such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, these are included due to their importance in frontline service jobs and lack of empirical research in the challenge-hindrances stressors framework.

2.6.1 Service Recovery Performance

Focus has been on service recovery efforts due to their impact on the image and effectiveness of organizations. As a service marketing strategy, service recovery performance is an effort made by firms to return unhappy customers to the state of

happiness after a service failure (Boshoff & Allen, 2000). Due to service failures or product defects, service recovery performance provides an avenue for firms to correct bad customer impressions in order to reposition themselves as a competent organization. Studies have demonstrated that service providers cannot entirely eliminate mistakes, but a single service failure can have a profound negative effect on the evaluation of service quality make customers search for alternative service provider (Kelly & Davis, 1994). Thus, a successful service recovery performance will not only eliminate such intentions and restore unhappy customers to the state of satisfaction but also lead to customer loyalty, improved satisfaction, positive word of mouth, and increased revenue (Ashilla, Rod, & Carruthers, 2008; Boshoff & Allen, 2000; Liao, 2007). Given the fact that service failure (e.g., unavailability of service personnel with appropriate skills, mistake of service, extremely slow service) can have serious negative effects on customers (e.g., negative word of mouth, loss of customers, decline in firm's overall image and revenue), a successful service recovery performance may play a significant role in determining overall customer satisfaction (Spreng, Harrell, & Mackoy, 1995). For example, effective service recovery maintains firm's relationship with customers and strengthens the firm's image such as perceived value and quality (Boshoff, 1997).

In a study conducted among international tourists at a holiday resort, Boshoff (1997) proposed three questions to be addressed when considering service recovery after acknowledging service failure. Specifically, he proposed (1) "how should recovery take place? (2) who should recover? (3) how quickly should recovery take place?" (p. 118). His conclusion was an appropriate combination and implementation of the 'how, what and how' will lead to customer satisfaction. However, the study results revealed that the level of atonement was positively related to the level of

improvement in customer satisfaction and time delay was negatively related to the level of improvement in customer satisfaction following service recovery. Despite occasional service failure, empirical studies have suggested that service recovery strategies should be included in the comprehensive service quality program to ensure overall customer satisfaction (Boshoff, 1997, 1999).

Accordingly, service firms must ensure their employees are interested and keen to be engaged in service recovery process. Thus, service firms must not only support their service employees, rather resources must be provided to enhance their abilities in the service recovery process (Lin, 2010). Study has emphasized on the need to focus more on employees' service recovery performance rather than failure-free services (Lin, 2010). According to Babakus et al. (2003), service recovery performance relates to the perception of service employees' own abilities and actions to satisfactorily resolve a service failure. While mistakes during service encounters are unavoidable and can occur at any stage during service delivery process, how firms correct such mistakes can positively influence customer's perceptions of service quality and purchase behavior (Kelly & Davis, 1994). Yavas et al. (2003) reported that empowerment had a positive influence on the service recovery performance of frontline bank staff in Turkey. In a similar study conducted among frontline bank employees in Turkey, Karatepe (2006) found that frontline employees' trait competitiveness and intrinsic motivation had positive influences on their perceptions of service recovery performance. Meanwhile, a proposed negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and service recovery performance was not supported in the same study.

In contrast, Karatepe, Yorganci, and Haktanir (2009) found that emotional exhaustion was significantly and negatively related to service recovery performance among hotel CCEs in Northern Cyprus. Likewise, Choi, Kim, Lee, and Lee (2014) found emotional exhaustion to be significantly and negatively related to service recovery performance among frontline service employees in Korea. In an empirical study conducted in Turkey using restaurant employees, Guchait, Pasamehmetoglu, and Dawsona (2014) reported a significant positive relationship between perceived supervisor support and co-worker support for error management and service recovery performance. Therefore, perceptions of individual employees' abilities and actions can have a significant influence on their service recovery performance.

2.6.2 Creative Performance

Studies have identified creativity as one of the keys to competitive advantage for organizational innovations and survival in today's world market (Kim, Hon, & Lee, 2010; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Wong & Pang, 2003). Creative performance is the generation of new ideas while performing work-related tasks. It is a product or an idea that satisfies originality and useful to an organization (Oldham & Cummings, 1996). Although creativity is the first phase in the innovation process, it is an individual novel idea generated at the individual level, while innovation is the implementation of those ideas at the organization level (Hon, 2012; Oldham & Cummings, 1996).

Hon (2012) has demonstrated that employees' useful ideas and innovation in an organization are crucial strategies used by hotel managers to solve problems and improve quality service and delivery. Zhou (2003) argued that possession of relevant creativity skills and approaches are crucial when engaging in creative activities. Specifically, such skills and strategies help identify the right problems, develop

ideas, evaluate and reformulate such ideas to be new, relevant and useful. A study has found intrinsic motivation to be an important predictor of creativity (Oldham & Cummings, 1996). Shalley, Gilson, and Blum (2009) demonstrated that creative personality, intrinsic motivation, and growth need strength were significantly and positively related to self-reported creative performance. In addition, the interaction between growth need strength and a supportive work context fostered creative performance. Therefore, creativity should be viewed as a behavior resulting from a collection of personal characteristics, cognitive abilities, and social environments (Wang & Netemeyer, 2004). In fact, contextual variables were suggested to be more effective predictors of creative performance than personality traits (Zhou, 1998). Wang and Netemeyer (2004) developed and validated seven scale items to measure salesperson's creative performance. The study posited that adaptability, work effort, trait competitiveness, learning efforts, and perceived customer demandingness will foster salesperson creative performance.

Accordingly, creative performance involves solving new problems, finding new solutions for old problems, viewing old problems differently, and discovering abandoned problems (Wang & Netemeyer, 2004). Specifically, creative performance is the ability to generate alternative solutions to problems either with a combination of existing resources or introduction of new resources (Madjar, Oldham, & Pratt, 2002). For instance, Coelho, Augusto, and Lages (2011) argued that creative employees are more likely to develop relationship with customers, discover their needs, and provide solutions to service problems creatively. Tierney and Farmer (2002) in their empirical study emphasized on the employees' job and educational experiences as significant factors in improving creative performance. This is because an understanding of the job and formal education provides exposure

to different experiences and increases employees' confidence to develop new ways of performing in their workplace. For this reason, organizations that value employees' knowledge, skills and behaviors through a reward system enhance peoples' creativity and boost organizational effectiveness and long-term success (Hon, 2012; Hon & Rensvold, 2006). Hon (2012) demonstrated that reward systems based on personal knowledge, skills, and experience increases employee's creativity in China. Thus, employees who perceive that their skills and knowledge are valued, strengthened, and rewarded appropriately are likely to continue learning to improve such skills and consequently exhibit creative performance.

2.6.3 Job Performance

Job performance has been widely studied and several attempts have been made to define the construct. For example, Knight, Kim, and Cruisinger (2007) defined job performance as the outcome of responsibilities and tasks carried out by employees. According to Mawoli and Babandako (2011), job performance is the degree of individual employees' accomplishment of assigned tasks and contributions to the overall organizational objectives. Likewise, Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) defined job performance as "scalable actions, behavior and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organizational goals" (p. 216). Yet, there is no precise definition. This is because job performance comprises of process (the actions taken or individual behaviors in achieving performance at workplace) and outcomes (the products produced or service rendered in accordance with the overall organizational objectives) (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010; Knight et al., 2007). Rather, job performance has been widely conceptualized as a multidimensional construct comprising two dimensions- in-role and extra-role.

In-role or task performance refers to the formal duties required by employees to exhibit in order to achieve organizational goals. On the other hand, extra-role performance refers to personal initiatives or discretionary behaviors on the part of employees in promoting effective functioning and achieving goals at workplace (Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010). However, both dimensions clearly described the overall job performance and are important for overall effectiveness and success of organization. Furthermore, to gain more insight into the construct of job performance, several studies have used distinct measures and evaluations such as overall performance measures (Beehr, Jex, Stacy, & Murray, 2000; Knight et al., 2007), in-role performance measures (Janssen & Yperen, 2004), and extra-role performance measures (Podsakoff et al., 1997).

A significant number of studies have explored these dimensions to examine the predictors of job performance across different occupational settings. For example, Karatepe (2013) demonstrated that emotional exhaustion significantly and negatively influenced Romanian hotel employees' job performance. Akgunduz (2015) found that role ambiguity and role conflict had significant and negative relationships with job performance with the sample of hotel employees in Turkey. In a meta-analytic study, Riketta (2002) revealed a significant positive correlation between attitudinal organizational commitment and job performance (in-role and extra-role). In another study conducted with the sample of employees from diverse industries and occupations settings, Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) reported that both work engagement and job embeddedness positively predicted job performance at supervisors rated, coworkers rated, and participants rated levels. These studies have demonstrated that job performance is an important behavioral construct that predicts the overall organizational effectiveness. Therefore, it is important for organizations

to put in place management system that enhances employees' job performance. Specifically, employees who have access to available mechanism that may contribute to their improvement will be motivated to perform.

2.6.4 Quitting Intentions

McNall, Masuda, and Nicklin (2010) defined quitting intentions as a "conscious and deliberate willingness to leave the organization" (p. 65). Specifically, quitting intention is simply expressed as making plan to change the organization or search for a new job. It is the strongest precursor to quitting which has been a major problem for organizations partly due to costs associated with hiring and training of replacement of lost valuable human resources (George & Jones, 1996).

Several empirical studies have investigated determinants of quitting intentions. Specifically, Jaros (1997) demonstrated that affective commitment had a significant negative correlation with quitting intentions both concurrently and longitudinally. Similarly, Wasti (2003) found negative relations between affective organizational commitment and quitting intentions. Chen and Francesco (2000) found interaction between gender and organizational commitment to significantly predicted quitting intentions in China. Dick et al. (2004) in empirical study with sample of employees drawn from four sectors in Germany found that both organizational identification and job satisfaction reduced quitting intentions. Furthermore, the results of their study demonstrated that job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between organizational identification and quitting intentions. Likewise, Karatepe, Uludag, Menevis, Hadzimehmedagic, and Baddar (2006) reported a significant negative relationship between frontline employees' job satisfaction and their intentions to leave the organization.

The relationship between job characteristics and quitting intentions has also been examined. Spector and Jex (1991) examined the relationship between job characteristics and quitting intentions using data from multiple sources and reported that incumbent-reported autonomy, significance, feedback, and scope were significantly correlated with intent to quit. De Cuyper, Mauno, Kinnunen, and Mäkikangas (2011) demonstrated significant negative relationships between job resources (i.e., job control and social support from the supervisor and from colleagues) and quitting intentions in their longitudinal study. Work social support and autonomy in the workplace motivate employees to stay with the organization because they may feel reluctant to give away such resources.

Empirical evidence suggests that when a competent employee leaves, finding immediate replacement is always difficult for organizations (Poddar & Madupalli, 2012). Quitting intention is a negative outcome that may be triggered by several job-related variables (Karatepe et al., 2008). When an individual employee perceives an alternative better job, feelings of job insecurity or is generally dissatisfied with the present job, such employee starts thinking toward leaving the organization and is more inclined to quit the job if the situation persists.

Chapter 3

CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

This chapter presents the conceptual model and the hypothesized relationships in this study. This chapter also includes the mediating role of work engagement in the relationship between stressors (challenge and hindrance) and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (i.e., service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions).

3.1 Conceptual Model

The transactional theory of stress was used to explain the conceptual model and the relationships of this study shown in Figure 1. Studies have produced different results on the challenge-hindrance stressor framework (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Crawford et al., 2010). For example, Crawford et al. (2010) reported a significant positive relationship between challenge stressors and work engagement and a negative association between hindrance stressors and work engagement. Boswell et al. (2004) also reported that challenge stressors increased organizational loyalty and reduced work withdrawal, job search activity and intention to quit among employees. On the other hand, hindrance stressors increased job search activity and intention to quit among employees. Although empirical studies found that both stressors require much efforts and energy, challenge stressors tend to promote personal growth and learning while hindrance stressors tend to thwart personal growth and learning (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Challenge stressors can either trigger positive or negative outcomes including work engagement and performance depending on individual

evaluation of stressful situation, whereas hindrance stressors trigger negative outcomes or significantly undermine performance (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Crawford et al., 2010).

Most of the studies on the challenge-hindrance stressor framework were based on the data from educational sector from developed countries (Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Tadić et al., 2015), while evidence from the hotel industry is scanty (Karatepe et al., 2014). To gain more understanding of the relationship between job characteristics and employees' well-being in the hotel industry, this study develops and tests a model that empirically examines the effects of challenge and hindrance stressors on CCEs' job outcomes through work engagement.

3.2 Hypotheses

3.2.1 Challenge Stressors, Hindrance Stressors, and Work Engagement

Challenge stressors such as high levels job responsibility and work overload have the potential to stimulate growth and learning despite having required high levels of energy and efforts to meeting the valued outcomes (Crawford et al., 2010). For instance, hotel CCEs who are giving high job responsibility in the workplace might see such responsibility as an opportunity to learn a new strategy, to meet a deadline or solve problems in a new dimension as well as an avenue to develop new skills. This study focused on the relationships between stressors and work engagement. Work engagement is a positive state of mind that makes individuals dedicate more efforts and energy and completely immerse themselves in their work (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Engaged employees, because of the challenge stressors' potential for stimulating personal growth and valued outcomes, may adopt a problem-focused style of coping, because doing so is worthwhile. Studies have reported that challenge

demands (e.g., work overload) had a positive relationship with dedication and vigor (Hallberg, Johanson, & Schaufeli, 2007; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008). Such challenge demands are perceived as a motivating force that contributes to goal achievement. LePine et al. (2004) found challenge stressors to be positively related to performance, job satisfaction and motivation. In the hotel industry, CCEs frequently interact intensively with customers and deal with different requests and complaints (Karatepe et al., 2014; Karatepe & Kilic, 2007). Under these circumstances, CCEs who perceive this as an opportunity to learn will be willing to invest much energy and efforts in meeting these challenges, since such challenges might help to devise new skills that will enhance personal growth and development. For example, Crawford et al.'s (2010) meta-analytic study found a positive association between challenge stressors and work engagement. Similarly, Karatepe et al. (2014) found that challenge stressors (e.g., work overload and job responsibility) were positively related to work engagement among CCEs in Northern Cyprus. With this evidence, challenge stressors are expected to be positively related to work engagement. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Challenge stressors are positively related to work engagement

Hindrance stressors include hassles, role conflict, role ambiguity, and organizational politics that have the potential to hinder individuals' abilities to achieve learning and goals (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Crawford et al., 2010). Research has shown that individuals who perceive demands at work as obstacles to achieving their goals will rather dedicate their valuable time and energy to meeting fulfilling outcomes (LePine et al., 2005). Such individuals are likely to adopt avoidance coping style which may lead to decreased engagement in the workplace (Pearsall, Ellis, & Stein, 2009). For example, LePine et al. (2004) found that hindrance stressors had negative

relationship with motivation. Crawford et al. (2010) also revealed that hindrance demands were negatively related to work engagement in their meta-analytic study. Similarly, Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) reported that job demands (e.g., emotional dissonance) had a significant negative relationship with engagement among Dutch employees. Specifically, hotel CCEs who feel that if they dedicate much of their efforts and energy in job demands that will hinder their development and achievement at workplace; they will be reluctant to engage themselves in such job demands. This evidence suggests that hindrance stressors would relate negatively to work engagement. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Hindrance stressors are negatively related to work engagement

3.2.2 Work Engagement, Attitudinal, and Behavioral Outcomes

From the conceptual model, service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions are the attitudinal and behavioral outcomes included in this study. In the hospitality industry where service quality is the main determinant of customer satisfaction (Boshoff & Allen, 2000), the involvement of high degree of personal interaction makes occasional service failure almost unavoidable. Service recovery performance is an important behavioral outcome where CCEs are to handle customer complaints and requests satisfactorily. Whenever there are service failures or customer complaints, CCEs are the first people to call, as this is the norm in the service industry (Boshoff & Allen, 2000). Meeting such tasks requires discretionary efforts and significant amount of energy. This suggests that such performance requires CCEs to recognize their own abilities and actions to resolve service failures and complaints to the state of satisfaction (Babakus et al., 2003). Therefore, CCEs who are engaged are more likely to handle service recovery process better than those who are not engaged. These flexibilities,

positive state of mind and high levels of energy in turn, motivate CCEs to satisfactorily resolve service failure, especially in the hotel industry, where they are often involved in intensive interactions with customers.

Empirical studies have shown that work engagement contributes positively to organizational efficiencies, profitability, customer satisfaction, and loyalty (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005). For example, Yeh's (2013) study of hotel CCEs in Taiwan demonstrated that work engagement increased job satisfaction. Karatepe's (2013) study of Romanian hotel CCEs and their managers demonstrated that work engagement had significant positive effects on job performance and extra-role customer service. Other studies have also demonstrated that engaged employees are physically, cognitively, and emotionally involved in their work, and as such, are able to perform better at work (Khan, 1990). For these reasons, it is expected that engaged CCEs who are energetic, happy and highly engrossed in their work are more likely to resolve service failure to the customers' satisfaction. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3(a): Work engagement is positively related to service recovery performance.

Creativity has become one of the most important factors contributing to employees' positive work-related outcomes and organizational success, especially in the hotel industry, where CCEs must manage the speed and rapid changing customer demands (Hon, 2012; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Wong & Pang, 2003). Research has demonstrated that employees' useful ideas and innovation in an organization are crucial strategies used by hotel managers to solve problems and improve quality of service and delivery (Hon, 2012). However, employees' creativity and performance depend on individual personality and how they perceive their working environment

(Hon, Chan, & Lu, 2013; Wong & Pang, 2003). As a motivational concept, work engagement is likely to trigger CCEs' ability to generate new ideas that are crucial to effective quality service and organizational productivity. Because CCEs are important resources representing organizations, providing quality delivery process are in positions to either contribute to or damage the organizational image (Suan & Nasurdin, 2014). In general, engaged CCEs are more inclined to provide noble ideas and numerous alternative solutions to identified problems because of their energetic, dedicated, engrossed and positive attitudes towards work.

Studies have reported significant positive relationships between work engagement and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Karatepe, 2013; Saks, 2006). Similarly, Hakanen, Perhoniemi, and Toppinen-Tanner (2008) demonstrated that work engagement enhanced personal initiative among Finnish dentists. Likewise, Zhang and Bartol (2010) suggest that intrinsic motivation plays an essential role in what individuals will do and what they can do. As such, it is expected that engaged CCEs, in a positive state of mind, are more likely to try new approaches, spend more energy and efforts to identify problems and generate several alternative solutions and ideas that are useful to their work-related activities and overall organizational effectiveness. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3(b): Work engagement is positively related to creative performance.

Research has acknowledged job performance as an important employee's work outcome because of its roles and significant contributions to the organizational goal and profitability (Rich, et al., 2010; Saks, 2006). This is because individual performance behaviors comprise diverse activities that contribute to different aspects of an organization's core values and efficiencies (Hon et al., 2013; Rich et al., 2010).

However, different factors such as individual personalities and work environment are the key determinants of employees' job performance outcome (Hon et al., 2013; Wong & Pang, 2003). Consistent with this notion, empirical studies found that learning goal orientation significantly and positively increased in-role performance and innovative work behavior among Ireland participants (Chughtai & Buckley, 2011). In contrast, Janssen, Lam, and Huang (2010) demonstrated that emotional exhaustion reduced overall performance. Specifically, CCEs who are engaged in their work role are dedicated, absorbed and highly energetic, and this has a great influence on their work-related activities (Rich et al., 2010).

Several empirical studies have established a significant positive relationship between work engagement and job performance. According to Bakker, Tims, and Derks's (2012) study of employees from different organizations in the Netherlands, demonstrated that work engagement significantly enhanced in-role performance. Likewise, Halbesleben and Wheeler's (2008) study conducted using samples of employees, their supervisors, and coworkers from a wide variety of industries and occupations showed that work engagement significantly influenced job performance. Furthermore, Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) reported that work engagement was significantly and positively related to job performance. Moreover, Bakker and Bal's (2010) study among Dutch teachers demonstrated that work engagement increased job performance. This is also consistent with Halbesleben's (2010) meta-analytic study. His results demonstrated that work engagement was significantly correlated with organizational job performance.

Based on these overviews, a significant positive relationship is expected between CCEs' work engagement and their job performance because of the positive emotions

such as happiness, passion, high levels of energy, and effective connection to work, often experienced by engaged employees (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3(c): Work engagement is positively related to job performance.

High quitting rate is one of the major problems facing hotel industry especially, among CCEs, because it is difficult to find replacement to occupy the vacant positions as well as the costs involved during the process of hiring and selecting new employees (Babakus et al., 2008; Nadiri & Tanova, 2010; Poddar & Madupalli, 2012; Schyns, Torka, & Gössling, 2007). As the precursor of actual quitting, quitting intentions simply involve making plans to change the workplace or search for a new job. A review of the literature suggests that quitting intentions arise mostly, when employees are not satisfied with their jobs (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). This notion is supported by Poddar and Madupalli's (2012) findings. Furthermore, other factors including individual characteristics and work environment conditions have been established to trigger quitting intentions. According to Babakus et al. (2008), emotional exhaustion and job demands increased CCEs' quitting intentions.

On the other hand, empirical studies have established that work engagement alleviates quitting intentions. For instance, Saks (2006) reported that work engagement correlated negatively with quitting intentions. Similarly, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that work engagement related negatively with quitting intentions. Furthermore, Halbesleben's (2010) meta-analytic investigation indicated that work engagement had a significant negative correlation with quitting intentions. As earlier discussed, work engagement involves individuals investing high levels of energy and concentration in their work, and as such, engaged CCEs are likely to

display lower intentions to quit their job. Thus, work engagement is expected to lower intentions to quit an organization. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3(d): Work engagement is negatively related to quitting intentions.

3.2.3 The Mediating Role of Work Engagement

As hypothesized, work engagement mediates the relationships between stressors (i.e., challenge and hindrance) and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (i.e., service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions). The transactional theory of stress is used as a theoretical framework to propose the mediating role of work engagement. The theory posits that people appraise stressful situations based on their characteristics, and therefore, are likely to appraise and respond to the same situations differently (Crawford et al., 2010; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, 1987). Therefore, when CCEs perceive tasks at work as challenging opportunity to learn, grow and increase competency, they may respond with problem-focused coping style and be more willing to invest themselves to

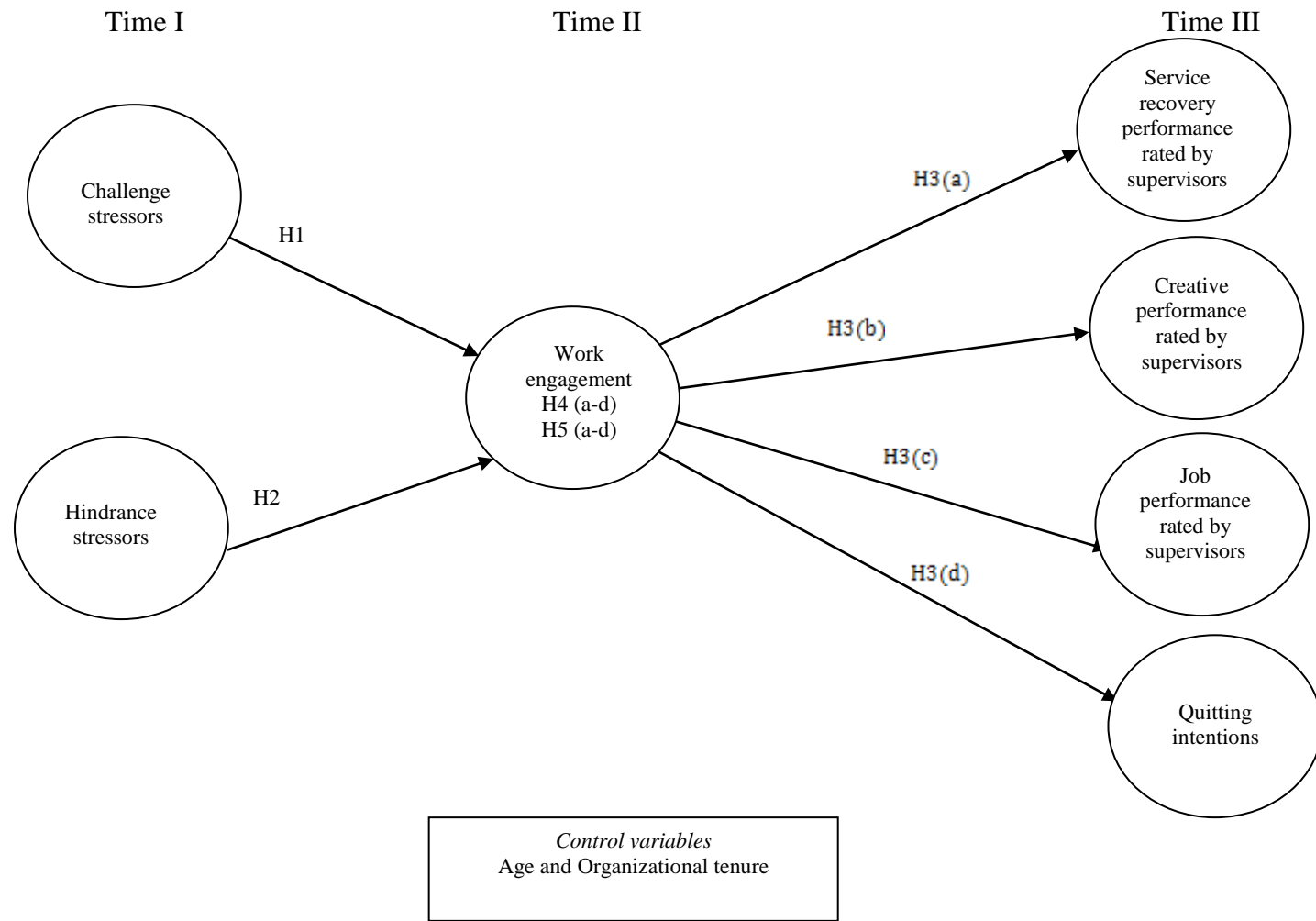


Figure 1: Conceptual Model

accomplish valued outcomes. Such challenging opportunity would motivate CCEs to device new unique ideas or use the existing ideas in a new dimension when responding to tasks, successfully perform service recovery, show higher levels of performance, and lower intentions to quit the organization. On the other hand, when CCEs perceive tasks at work as obstruction of achievement and personal development, they are likely to respond with withdrawal coping style, reduce their engagement which may affect their overall performance in the workplace. Such obstacles would discourage CCEs from involving in service recovery process, thwart generation of new ideas, hinder job performance, and influence their quitting intentions.

As a motivational concept, work engagement mediates the effects of challenge and hindrance stressors on service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance and quitting intentions. Studies have demonstrated that engaged employees display desirable outcomes such as low levels of quitting intentions, good job performance, and organizational commitment (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011; Karatepe, 2013; Karatepe et al., 2014; Lee & Ok, 2015). Thus, work engagement is expected to act as mediator between stressors (i.e., challenge and hindrance) and job outcomes (i.e., service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H4: Work engagement will mediate the effects of challenge stressors on (a) service recovery performance (b) creative performance (c) job performance, and (d) quitting intentions.

H5: Work engagement will mediate the effects of hindrance stressors on (a) service recovery performance (b) creative performance (c) job performance and (d) quitting intentions.

Chapter 4

METHODOLOGY

This chapter consists of specific explanations about the methodology of the empirical study. First, it explains the sample selection strategy and provides information about the data collection process. Second, it presents information about the measures utilized in the study. How the Time 1, Time 2, Time 3, and supervisor questionnaires have been developed and conducted with hotel CCEs in Nigeria are explained in detail in chapter 4. Third, this chapter concludes with strategy of data analysis. Data analysis delineates information about how the measurement model is tested and the relationships in the structural model are assessed. It also delineates information about how respondents' profile and summary statistics as well as correlations of observed variables are reported.

4.1 Deductive Approach

This study uses deductive approach for the following reasons. First, the theoretical framework of this study is based on the transactional theory of stress. Therefore, this study utilizes the transactional theory of stress and previous and recent empirical evidence to develop and test the study relationships. Second, to assess the relationships, this study obtains data from hotels CCEs two weeks apart in three waves and their immediate supervisors in Nigeria. As stated by Snieder and Larner (2009) "The deductive approach follows the path of logic most closely. The reasoning starts with a theory and leads to a new hypothesis. This hypothesis is put

to the test by confronting it with observations that either lead to a confirmation or a rejection of the hypothesis” (p. 16).

In deductive approach, the researcher proposes a research, conceptual, or theoretical model. This model consists of a number of hypotheses developed based on theoretical underpinning(s) as well as past and recent empirical evidence. The relationships in the model are assessed with appropriate methods and then the results which support and/or do not support hypotheses are presented. This is followed by discussion of theoretical and management implications. What is given above is shown in Figure 2.

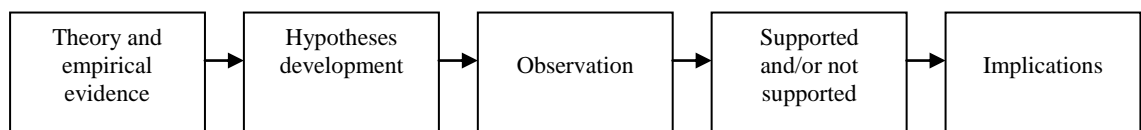


Figure 2: Deductive Approach

In short, this study used the transactional theory of stress as the theoretical underpinning and previous and recent writings to develop hypotheses regarding work engagement as a mediator of the impacts of challenge and hindrance stressors on quitting intentions, service recovery performance, creative performance, and job performance. Data came from hotel CCEs in Nigeria.

4.2 Sample

The current study deployed judgmental sampling. As one of the non-probability sampling techniques, judgmental sampling occurs when “...elements selected for the sample are chosen by the judgment of the researcher” (Black, 2010, p. 225). Consistent with various similar studies, this study selected a representative sample

based on four criteria. First, the international four- and five-star chain hotels were taken into account in this study. When compared with the other local hotels, such international chain operations have better human resource practices, proper mechanisms for complaint management, and encourage their employees for fresh and novel ideas for service improvement (cf. Karatepe, 2013b; Karatepe & Karadas, 2015). Second, this study included full-time employees in the sample because full-time employees take advantage of various high-performance work practices and social support and stay longer at work than do part-time employees (Karatepe & Magaji, 2008).

Third, full-time CCEs are the ones included in the study sample. These employees have intense face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions with customers and play a significant role in delivery of service quality and solution of customer problems (e.g., Choi et al., 2014; Karatepe, 2011). Fourth, this study consisted of local CCEs in the hotel industry in Nigeria. Collecting data in Nigeria is relevant and significant because the Nigerian hospitality context is still underrepresented in the extant hospitality research (cf. Karatepe, 2015b; Karatepe & Agbaim, 2012).

These criteria led the researcher to collect data from a judgmental sample of CCEs in the international four- and five- star chain hotels in Nigeria. They were employed as front desk agents, guest relations representatives, food servers, beverage servers, door attendants, bell attendants, and reservations agents.

4.3 Procedure

Data were collected from hotel CCEs in Abuja, the capital city of Nigeria. Specifically, there were 19 four- and five-star international chain hotels in the capital

city. This information was obtained from the National Institute of Hospitality and Tourism in Abuja. Though the researcher contacted management of 20 hotels through a letter that explained the purpose of the study and requested permission for data collection, he was able to receive permission from 11 (i.e., two five- star and nine four-star hotels) hotels. None of the hotels granted permission to the researcher to distribute the questionnaires to their CCEs. Instead, the representatives of these hotels did this. However, this data collection is likely to result in selection bias. Therefore, the researcher requested these representatives to distribute the questionnaires to employees in different customer-contact positions. This is congruent with similar studies conducted with hotel CCEs (e.g., Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009).

This study gathered data from hotel CCEs two weeks apart in three waves and their immediate supervisors to minimize the risk of common method bias emerging from the use of self-report data (Podsakoff et al., 2012). With this realization, this study used the Time 1, Time 2, Time 3, and supervisor questionnaires during data collection. It should here be highlighted that using a time-lagged design and collecting multiple sources of data is not widespread in the extant hospitality research (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Line & Runyan, 2012). This can also be considered a methodological contribution.

By considering other studies in the current literature (Anseel et al., 2010; Karatepe & Karadas, 2015), the researcher utilized several response-enhancing techniques before and during data collection. Specifically, each questionnaire (i.e., the Time 1, Time 2, Time 3, and supervisor questionnaires) had a cover page. This cover page consisted of information associated with anonymity and confidentiality. This cover page also

included a statement that there were no wrong or rights answers to the items in the survey instruments (Podsakoff et al., 2012). The researcher obtained support and coordination from management of the hotels. Employees' participation in the study was voluntary. The researcher used envelopes to take the questionnaires and matched the questionnaires through identification codes (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015).

The Time 1 questionnaire consisted of the challenge and hindrance stressors items and items about respondents' demographic information. The Time 2 questionnaire included the work engagement items, while the Time 3 questionnaire contained the quitting intentions items. Since this study has used supervisor ratings about CCEs' performance outcomes, the supervisor questionnaire consisted of the service recovery performance, creative performance, and job performance items.

4.4 Measures

The total number of items in the Time 1, Time 2, Time 3, and supervisor questionnaires were 39. These items belonged to the challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, work engagement, quitting intentions, service recovery performance, creative performance, and job performance measures. Before starting the main data collection, consistent with the works of Karatepe and Choubtarash (2014), Karatepe et al. (2014), and Karatepe and Vatankhah (2014), each questionnaire was tested with different pilot samples. Specifically, each employee questionnaire was tested with a pilot sample of 10 CCEs. The supervisor questionnaire was tested with a pilot sample of 10 supervisors. These pilot studies did not lead to any changes in the questionnaires because CCEs and their supervisors did not report any problems concerning the understandability of the items.

4.4.1 Challenge and Hindrance Stressors

To measure challenge and hindrance stressors, this study used Cavanaugh et al.'s (2000) 11-item scale. That is, challenge stressors included six items, while five items were used to measure hindrance stressors. The 11-item scale was employed to assess challenge and hindrance stressors and was shown to have good psychometric properties (e.g., Babakus et al., 2016; Liu, Liu, Mills, & Fan, 2013; Min et al., 2015). Response options included a five-point scale (5 = produces a great deal of stress; 4 = produces moderate stress; 3 = cannot tell; 2 = produces very little stress; 1 = produces no stress).

4.4.2 Work Engagement

The shortened version of the Utrecht work engagement scale was utilized to measure CCEs' work engagement. Each of the work engagement dimensions (i.e., vigor, dedication, and absorption) included three items. The shortened version has been widely used in the extant literature and shown to possess sound psychometric properties (e.g., Bakker & Sanz-Vergel, 2013; Karatepe, 2013a, 2013b, 2015a; Paek, Shuckert, Kim, & Lee, 2015). Response options (seven-point frequency rating scale) ranged from 6 = always (Every day); 5 = very often (a few times a week); 4 = often (once a week); 3 = sometimes (a few times a month); 2 = rarely (once a month or less); 1 = almost never (a few times a year or less); 0 = never.

4.4.3 Quitting Intentions

Quitting intentions refer to employees' willingness to quit or leave the organization. There are various scale items to assess employees' quitting intentions. However, this study utilized Singh et al.'s (1996) three-item scale to gauge quitting intentions. This is because of the fact that this scale has been used in plenty of empirical studies and has been reported to have sound psychometric properties (e.g., Babakus et al., 2016;

Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe & Kaviti, 2016). Response options consisted of a five-point scale (5 = I strongly agree; 4 = I strongly agree; 3 = I am undecided; 2 = I disagree; 1 = I strongly disagree).

4.4.4 Service Recovery Performance

Service recovery performance is related to CCEs' abilities and actions used to solve customers' problems or complaints to customers' satisfaction (Babakus et al., 2003). The original scale for service recovery performance was developed by Boshoff and Allen (2000). This scale was utilized in a number of empirical studies and had good psychometric properties (Babakus et al., 2003; Choi et al., 2014; Karatepe, 2012; Karatepe & Choubtarash, 2014). This scale included five items. Response options ranged from 5 = I strongly agree; 4 = I strongly agree; 3 = I am undecided; 2 = I disagree; 1 = I strongly disagree.

4.4.5 Creative Performance

This study assessed CCEs' creative performance using six items adapted from the work of Wang and Netemeyer (2004). The adaptation of the items was deemed necessary due to the fact that the original scale focused salesperson creative performance. An observation made in the extant literature shows that these items have already been used in other studies and have been reported to possess good psychometric properties (Karatepe, 2012; Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014). Response option ranged from 5 = Almost always; 4 = Usually; 3 = Sometimes; 2 = Seldom; 1 = Never.

4.4.6 Job Performance

Five items were adapted from Babin and Boles's (1998) study to measure CCEs' job performance. The job performance scale in Babin and Boles's (1998) study measured food servers' job performance. Two items were irrelevant for CCEs' job

performance. Therefore, five items were considered to measure their job performance. As stated before, CCEs' job performance was assessed by their immediate supervisors. These items were already used in past and recent writings and had good psychometric properties (e.g., Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe & Agbaim 2012; Karatepe & Kaviti, 2016). Response option ranged from 5 = I strongly agree; 4 = I strongly agree; 3 = I am undecided; 2 = I disagree; 1 = I strongly disagree.

4.4.7 Control Variables

In empirical studies, several control variables are used to determine whether they significantly influence the study constructs and leads to statistical confounds. However, this should be done when needed. For example, if there are studies showing that the control variables should be used to ascertain their significant effects as well as their confounding impacts, then the researcher incorporates the control variables into the study. Consistent with the works of Karatepe (2015a), Karatepe and Aleshinloye (2009), and Min et al. (2015), this study considered gender and organizational tenure as the control variables.

Gender was measured as a binary variable (0 = male and 1 = female). Organizational tenure was measured in four categories (1 = under 1 year, 2 = 1-5 years, 3 = 6-10 years, and 4 = 11-15 years).

4.5 Strategy of Data Analysis

4.5.1 Respondents' Profile

Respondents' profile included age, gender, education, organizational tenure, and marital status. This was reported using frequencies and percentages via SPSS.

4.5.2 The Measurement and Structural Models

The measurement and structural (fully mediated) models were tested based on Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach. In the first step, the measurement model was tested in terms of the scales' psychometric properties. That is, convergent and discriminant validity checks were made using confirmatory factor analysis. Convergent validity refers to "degree to which multiple methods of measuring a variable provide the same results", while discriminant validity refers to "degree to which measures of different latent variables are unique" (p. 399). (O'Leary-Kelly & Vokurkar, 1998, p. 399). For convergent validity, a cut-off value of 0.50 was considered for each standardized loading (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, a cut-off value of 0.50 was considered for average variance extracted (AVE) by each latent variable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). Before this, one should show that the model fit statistics is deemed acceptable (Hair et al., 2010).

For discriminant validity, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion was used. Specifically, the shared variance between all pairs of variables was computed. Each finding should be below the AVE for the individual variable. In addition, this study utilized maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared variance (ASV) for testing discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2010). The results for MSV and ASV should be below the AVE (Hair et al., 2010; Tasci & Semrad, 2016).

Internal consistency reliability was measured in two ways. First, coefficient alpha for each observed scale was calculated. The cut-off value of 0.70 for each variable was used (Nunnally, 1978). Second, composite reliability for each latent variable was calculated. The cut-off value of 0.60 for each latent variable was used (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

In the second step, the measurement model that proved to have good psychometric properties was used to assess the relationships in the structural model. Before this, the fully mediated model was compared with several alternative models on the χ^2 difference test. The mediating effects were assessed using bias-corrected bootstrapping method (Zhao et al., 2010).

The following model fit statistics were used for the assessment of the measurement and structural models: CMIN measure CMIN/DF, CFI, PNFI, TLI, RMSEA, and SRMR (Hair et al., 2010). CMIN is the traditional measure for evaluating the overall model fit and is the same as the chi-square statistic. It “assesses the magnitude of the discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices” (Hu & Bentler, 1999, p. 2).

Studies indicate that CFI is one of the highly reported fit indices in structural equation modeling (SEM) (Hair et al., 2010; Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). This fit index “assumes that all latent variables are uncorrelated (null/independence model) and compares the sample covariance matrix with this null model” (Hooper et al., 2008, p. 55). The values for this index range between 0.0 and 1.0 and a cut-off value equal to or greater than .90 is as indicative of good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Proposed by Tucker and Lewis (1973), TLI is a “comparison of the normed chi-square values for the null and specified model, which to some degree takes into account model complexity” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 642). While TLI is not normed, its values can be lower than 0 or higher than 1. Although, a model with TLI value close to 1 is considered to have good fit, however, a model with higher value is considered a better fit (Hair et al., 2010). PNFI is another modification of the non-fit indices that takes into account the degree of freedom (i.e., complexity) of the model (Hu &

Bentler, 1999). This index is used when comparing models with one another. PNFI “adjusts the normed fit index (NFI) by multiplying it times the parsimony ratio. Relatively high values represent relatively better fit, so it can be used in the same way as the NFI” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 643). While there is no threshold level recommended for this index, the model with the highest PNFI value is considered to fit the data better (Hair et al., 2010). SRMR is the “square root of the discrepancy between the sample covariance matrix and the model covariance matrix. Values for the SRMR range from zero to 1.0 with well-fitting models obtaining values” (Hooper, et al., 2008, p. 55; Hu & Bentler, 1999) close to .08 are deemed acceptable. RMSEA is based on the “analysis of residuals, with smaller values indicating a better fit to the data” (Kelloway, 1998, p. 27). The values range between 0.03 and 0.08 (Hair *et al.*, 2010). However, Kelloway (1998) suggested that values lower than .10 indicates a good fit while values below .05 indicate a very good fit to the data.

According to Hooper et al. (2008), the abovementioned indices are preferred than other indices because of their insensitive nature to sample size, model misspecification and parameter estimates. The abovementioned analyses were carried out via SPSS and AMOS (Arbuckle, 2011).

4.5.3 Summary Statistics and Correlations

Means and standard deviations of observed variables were reported. Correlations of all observed variables (Pearson product-moment) were also given. Broadly speaking, means, standard deviations, and correlations of gender, organizational tenure, challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, work engagement, service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions were reported.

Chapter 5

RESULTS

This section presents information about the findings of this study. Specifically, the chapter reports the results of the demographic profile. It reports the findings of the confirmatory factor analysis. Similarly, the findings of means, standard deviations, and correlations of observed variables used are reported. Data analysis also presents the results of the model comparisons including the hypothesized model and alternative models 1 and 2.

5.1 Respondents' Profile

In Table 2, the results of the demographic profile include age, education, gender, marital status, and organizational tenure. Of the 287 respondents, 120(41.8%) respondents were between the ages of 18 and 27, 128(51.6%) respondents were between the ages of 28 and 37, 18(6.3%) respondents were between the ages of 38 and 47, and only 1(.3%) respondent was 58 and older. The results indicated that 140(48.8%) male and 147(51.2%) female respondents were involved in the study. In terms of education, 167(58.2%) respondents had four-year college degrees, 28(9.8%) respondents had secondary and high school education, 78(27.2%) respondents had two-year college degrees, and the rest 14(4.9%) had graduate degrees. Of the respondents, 171(59.6%) had been working in the organization between 1 and 5 years, 85(29.6%) under one year, 25(8.7%) between 6 and 10 years, and 6(2.1%) between 11 and 15 years. The results indicated that 208(72.5%) respondents were single or divorced, while 79(27.5%) respondents were married.

Table 2: Demographic Profile Results

	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
18-27	120	41.8
28-37	148	51.6
38-47	18	6.3
58 and over	1	.3
Total	287	100
Gender		
Male	140	48.8
Female	147	51.2
Total	287	100
Education		
Secondary and high school	28	9.8
Two year college degree	78	27.2
Four year college degree	167	58.2
Graduate degree	14	4.8
Total	287	100
Organization Tenure		
Under 1 year	85	29.6
1-5 years	171	59.6
6-10 years	25	8.7
11-15 years	6	2.1
Total	287	100
Marital Status		
Single or divorced	208	72.5
Married	79	27.5
Total	287	100

5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Some items were dropped due to low standardized loadings and correlation matrix errors based on the results of confirmatory factor analysis. Specifically, two items from challenge stressors, one item from hindrance stressors, three items from work engagement, three items from creative performance, and two items from job performance were deleted from the model. Therefore, the model showed acceptable fit statistics (CMIN = 739.694; DF = 327; CMIN/DF = 2.25; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; PNFI = .74; RMSEA = .066; SRMR = .057) (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Evidence from Table 3 showed that the loadings ranged from .68 to .92 and were statistically

significant. Table 3 revealed that the maximum shared variance (MSV) and average shared variance (ASV) of the latent variables ranged from .11 to .67 and .06 to .21, respectively. Similarly, Table 3 also indicated that the average variance extracted (AVE) by the latent variables ranged from .50 to .72, demonstrating evidence of convergent validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). To check the discriminant validity, the MSV, ASV and AVE was compared. The results revealed that the AVE by each variable was greater than the MSV and ASV, demonstrating evidence of discriminant validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). Coefficient alphas were greater than .70, while composite reliabilities were greater than .60. These results demonstrated evidence of internal consistency reliability.

Table 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Scale items	Loading	<i>t</i>	AVE	MSV	ASV	CR	α
Challenge stressor			.50	.38	.10	.80	.79
The number of projects and or assignments I have	-	-					
The amount of time I spend at work	.70	1.00					
The volume of work that must be accomplished in the allotted time	.68	10.28					
Time pressures I experience	-	-					
The amount of responsibility I have	.70	10.03					
The scope of responsibility my position entails	.74	10.26					
Hindrance stressor			.50	.38	.09	.76	.75
The degree to which politics rather than performance affects organizational decisions	.60	1.00					
The inability to clearly understand what is expected of me on the job	.57	7.53					
The amount of red tape I need to go through to get my job done	-	-					
The lack of job security I have	.81	9.12					
The degree to which my career seems stalled	.68	8.50					
Work engagement			.55	.11	.06	.88	.87
At my work, I feel bursting with energy	.51	1.00					
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	-	-					
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	.72	9.44					
My job inspires me	.86	8.82					
I am enthusiastic about my job	-	-					
I am proud of the work that I do	.75	8.34					
I feel happy when I am working intensely	.83	8.71					
I get carried away when I am working	.74	8.27					
I am immersed in my work	-	-					
Service recovery performance			.68	.67	.21	.91	.92
Considering all the things this employee does, he/she handles dissatisfied customers quite well	.84	1.00					
This employee doesn't mind dealing with complaining customers	.79	15.83					
No customer this employee deals with leaves with problems unresolved	.79	15.70					
Satisfying complaining customers is a great thrill to this employee	.86	18.17					
Complaining customers this employee has dealt with in the past are among today's most loyal customers	.84	17.46					

Table 3: (CONT.)

Scale items	Loading	<i>t</i>	AVE	MSV	ASV	CR	α
Creative performance			.63	.53	.18	.83	.85
This employee carries out his/her routine tasks in ways that are resourceful	.73	1.00					
This employee comes up with new ideas for satisfying customer needs	.84	12.91					
This employee generates and evaluates multiple alternatives for novel customer problems	-	-					
This employee has fresh perspectives on old problems	-	-					
This employee improvises methods for solving a problem when an answer is not apparent	-	-					
This employee generates creative ideas for service delivery	.80	12.42					
Job performance			.72	.67	.21	.88	.88
This employee is a top performer	.70	1.00					
This employee is in the top 10% of frontline employees here	-	-					
This employee gets along better with customers than do others	.92	14.60					
This employee knows more about services delivered to customers than others	.90	14.36					
This employee knows what his/her customers expect better than others	-	-					
Quitting intentions			.66	.19	.06	.86	.85
I often think about quitting	.77	1.00					
I will probably look for a new job next year	.80	13.31					
It is likely that I will actively look for a new job next year	.87	13.94					

Model fit statistics: CMIN = 739.694; DF = 327; CMIN/DF = 2.25; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; PNFI = .74; RMSEA = .066; SRMR = .057

Notes: All loadings are significant at the .01 level. CMIN = Overall Discrepancy Measure; DF = Degree of Freedom; CFI = Comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; PNFI = Parsimony normed fit index; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = Standardized root mean square residual; AVE = Average variance extracted; MSV = Maximum shared variance; ASV = Average shared variance; CR = Composite reliability. Scale items with *t* value = 1.00 are fixed parameters. α = Alpha coefficient. (-) = Dropped during confirmatory factor analysis.

The results of means, standard deviations, and correlations were presented in Table 4. Some of the correlations among the study variables were not significant. On the other hand, there was a significant positive correlation between challenge stressors and quitting intentions. While hindrance stressors had a significant positive correlation with quitting intentions, work engagement was significantly and positively correlated with service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and negatively correlated with quitting intentions.

Table 4: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Observed Variables

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Challenge stressors	2.54	.92	-						
2. Hindrance stressors	2.88	1.03	.507**	-					
3. Work engagement	4.52	1.34	-.029	.151*	-				
4. Service recovery performance	3.61	.89	-.049	-.037	.260**	-			
5. Creative performance	3.72	.84	.012	-.002	.256**	.575**	-		
6. Job performance	3.52	.98	.002	.001	.254**	.730**	.659**	-	
7. Quitting intentions	2.79	1.03	.358**	.296**	-.158**	.002	-.030	.079	-

Notes: Composite scores for each variable were computed by averaging scores across items representing that variable. SD: Standard deviation.

** Correlations are significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

* Correlations are significant at the .05 level (two-tailed).

Table 5: Results of Model Comparisons

Models Comparison	CMIN	df	Δ CMIN	Δ df	CFI	TLI	PNFI	RMSEA	SRMR	Model
1. Hypothesized model Challenge stressors → Work engagement; Hindrance stressors → Work engagement; Work engagement → Service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, quitting intentions	845.52	380	-	-	0.90	0.90	0.73	0.065	0.077	—
2. Alternative model 1 Challenge stressors → Work engagement, service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, quitting intentions Hindrance stressors → Work engagement, service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, quitting intentions; Work engagement → Service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, quitting intentions	796.83	372	48.69	8	0.91	0.90	0.72	0.063	0.057	1 and 2
3. Alternative model 2 Challenge stressors → Work engagement, quitting intentions; Hindrance stressors → Work engagement, quitting intentions; Work engagement → Service recovery performance, Creative performance, job performance, quitting intentions	798.75	378	46.77	2	0.91	0.90	0.73	0.062	0.058	1 and 3

Notes: The alternative model 2 seems to fit the data better. CFI = Comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; PNFI = Parsimony normed fit index; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = Standardized root mean square residual.

5.3 Model Comparison Results

A comparison of the hypothesized model ($cmin = 854.52$, $df = 380$) with the alternative model 1 ($cmin = 796.83$, $df = 372$) and alternative model 2 ($cmin = 798.75$, $df = 378$) was initiated. This is consistent with a recent study (Karatepe, 2015). A comparison of model results in this study demonstrated that the alternative model 2 seemed to have a better fit than the hypothesized model and alternative model 1 based on the following fit statistics (CMIN = 798.75, DF = 378, CMIN/DF = 2.11, CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.90, PFNI = 0.73, RMSEA = 0.062 and SRMR = 0.058).

As demonstrated in the Figure 3, the results indicate that challenge stressors are significantly and negatively related to work engagement ($\gamma_{11} = -.23$, $t = -2.22$). Thus, hypothesis 1 is not supported. The results in Figure 3 also demonstrate that hindrance stressors are significantly and positively related to work engagement ($\gamma_{21} = .28$, $t = 2.68$). Likewise, hypothesis 2 is not supported. As revealed in Figure 3, work engagement has significant positive effects on service recovery performance ($\beta_{21} = .33$, $t = 4.56$), creative performance ($\beta_{31} = .27$, $t = 3.85$), and job performance ($\beta_{41} = .28$, $t = 3.86$) and significant negative effect on quitting intentions ($\beta_{51} = -.22$, $t = -3.26$). Therefore, hypotheses 3(a), (b), (c), and (d) are supported. Although, there is no proposed direct relationship between the stressors and quitting intentions, the results indicate that challenge stressors significantly increase quitting intentions ($\gamma_{12} = .29$, $t = 2.99$). Similarly, hindrance stressors have significant positively relationship with quitting intentions ($\gamma_{22} = .21$, $t = 2.12$).

The bootstrapping analyses confirmed the indirect effects of challenge stressors on quitting intentions (indirect estimate = .05, $p < .005$, lower limit = .013 and upper

limit = .124) and hindrance stressors on quitting intentions (indirect estimate = -.06, $p < .004$, lower limit = -.146 and upper limit = -.017) through work engagement. Thus, hypotheses 4 and 5 are not supported. The results explain 0.7% of the variance in challenge stressors, 0.2% in hindrance stressors, 6.3% in work engagement, 11.7% in service recovery performance, 8.2% in creative performance, 7.7% in job performance, and 26.3% in quitting intentions. In summary, Table 6 provides the overall hypothesis test results of this study.

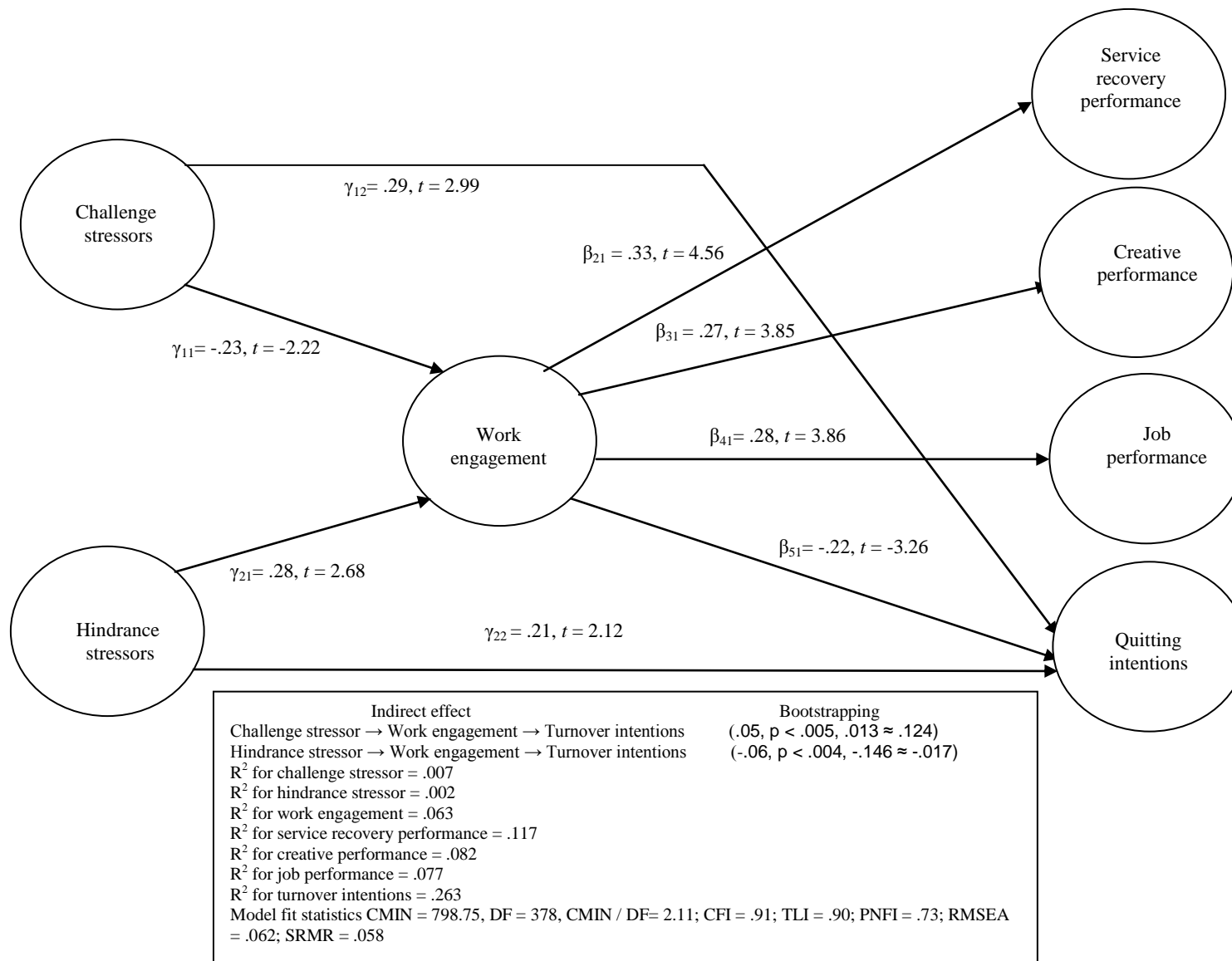


Figure 3: Alternative Model 2

Table 6: Summary of Hypothesis Test Results

H1	Challenge stressors	→	work engagement (+)		Not supported	
H2	Hindrance stressors	→	work engagement (-)		Not supported	
H3a	Work engagement	→	service recovery performance (+)		Supported	
H3b	Work engagement	→	creative performance (+)		Supported	
H3c	Work engagement	→	job performance (+)		Supported	
H3d	Work engagement	→	quitting intentions (-)		Supported	
H4a	Challenge stressors	→	work engagement	→	service recovery performance	Not supported (indirect effect)
H4b	Challenge stressors	→	work engagement	→	creative performance	Not supported (indirect effect)
H4c	Challenge stressors	→	work engagement	→	job performance	Not supported (indirect effect)
H4d	Challenge stressors	→	work engagement	→	quitting intentions	Not supported (indirect effect)
H5a	Hindrance stressors	→	work engagement	→	service recovery performance	Not supported (indirect effect)
H5b	Hindrance stressors	→	work engagement	→	creative performance	Not supported (indirect effect)
H5c	Hindrance stressors	→	work engagement	→	job performance	Not supported (indirect effect)
H5d	Hindrance stressors	→	work engagement	→	quitting intentions	Not supported (indirect effect)

Chapter 6

DISCUSSION

This section presents the assessment of the findings of this study. Furthermore, the theoretical and managerial implications are presented. The limitations and future research suggestions are provided in this chapter.

6.1 Evaluation of Findings

Empirical studies have demonstrated that customer contact jobs in the hospitality business are stressful, and often characterized by low wages, long working hours, and other potential stressful demands (Karatepe, 2013a; Karatepe et al., 2014). Stress at work has been found to deplete energy, lower morale, increase burnout, and voluntary turnover (Crawford et al., 2010; Hon et al., 2013). However, empirical evidence has established that not all stressors are likely to have negative effects on employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes at work (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to develop and test a conceptual model that examines (1) the influences of both challenge and hindrance stressors on work engagement and quitting intentions; (2) the effect of work engagement on the abovementioned job outcomes; and (3) the mediating role of work engagement in these relationships. Data used in this study were obtained from hotel CCEs in Nigeria through multiple sources including a two-week time lag in three waves.

The findings indicated that challenge stressors significantly reduced work engagement and triggered quitting intentions. The relationship between challenge stressors and work engagement is consistent with Min et al.'s (2015) study. This relationship clearly demonstrates that hotel CCEs are unable to attain positive state of mind due to the stressors they experience at workplace. In addition, the findings suggest that challenge stressors experienced by Nigerian hotel CCEs prevent them from being fully involved and engrossed in their work roles, and consequently, increase their intentions to quit. Furthermore, the negative relationship between challenge stressors and work engagement might possibly be the indications of the present economic downturn and lack of contemporary human resource practices in the Nigerian hotel settings (Nwosu, 2014).

Interestingly, the findings demonstrated that hindrance stressors significantly increased work engagement and triggered quitting intentions. The relationship between hindrance stressors and quitting intentions is consistent with previous study (Podsakoff et al., 2007). However, the significant positive relationship between hindrance stressors and work engagement is contrary to the results obtained in previous research (Crawford et al., 2010; Tadić et al., 2015). The reasonable explanation for this relationship is likely to be the levels of corruption, high unemployment rate, job insecurity in Nigeria. It appears that those hotel CCEs are energetic, highly involved and deeply engrossed in their work role, not because they enjoy the job but because they simply want to maintain a source of income until they secure a better job. Likewise, the significant positive relationship between hindrance stressors and intentions to quit indicate that hotel CCEs are searching for a new job.

Consistent with the proposed hypotheses, work engagement significantly increased service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and lower quitting intentions among hotel CCEs in Nigeria. The findings demonstrate that work engagement is important to hotel CCEs attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in Nigeria. The findings support the general notion that engaged employees are highly involved in their work, use their capacity to solve problems and pay attention to details, and are fully absorbed in their work to the extent that they do not pay attention to time (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). The findings also reveal that work engagement mediates the effects of challenge and hindrance stressors on service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and lower quitting intentions. It appears that challenge and hindrance stressors experienced at workplace activated their work engagement mechanisms which enable them to perform and display lower intentions to quit.

6.2 Theoretical Implications

There are some important theoretical contributions provided by this study. The findings of this study elaborate, clarify and broaden our understandings on crucial overview of the challenge-hindrance stressor framework and work engagement relationships. Consistent empirical evidence suggests that the effects of challenge and hindrance stressors on work engagement systematically vary, providing support, that different relationship indeed exist between stressors and work engagement (Crawford et al., 2010; Tadić et al., 2015). In addition, this study contributes to the challenge-hindrance stressor framework by (1) using a sample of CCEs in the hotel settings where low wage, long working hours, and high quitting rate are common phenomena (Karatepe, 2013a; Karatepe et al., 2014); (2) incorporating four crucial job outcomes in the hotel settings simultaneously; (3) using data from contextual

settings marred with job insecurity, high unemployment rate, economic and political instability (Karatepe & Magaji, 2008). Furthermore, this study also presents additional implications to the challenge-hindrane stressor framework and work engagement relationships.

From the conceptual model, this study proposed that challenge stressors will enhance CCE's work engagement, while hindrance stressors will mitigate CCE's work engagement; work engagement will increase service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and lower quitting intention. Work engagement will act as mediator of the effects of the challenge and hindrance stressors on service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and lower quitting intention. While most empirical evidence indicates positive relationships between challenge stressors and work engagement (Crawford et al., 2010; Karatepe et al., 2014; Tadić et al., 2015), the results of this study contradict the basic assumption of *positive relationship*. The findings indicate that challenge stressors had a significant negative relationship with work engagement. This is consistent with previous findings (Min et al., 2015). The findings support the notion that some employees can perceive challenge stressors as energy depleted that obstruct their learning and growth (Bakker & Sanz-Vergel, 2013). The findings also suggest that perceptions of demands as either challenge or hindrance differ between occupational and contextual settings.

The most interesting finding of this study is the effects of hindrance stressors on work engagement. As demonstrated in this study, hindrance stressors significantly increased work engagement. This result opposes previous empirical studies that hindrance reduced work engagement (e.g., Crawford et al., 2010; Tadić et al., 2015).

However, this study expands the challenge-hindrance stressor framework and work engagement relationships by demonstrating that hindrance stressors significantly increased work engagement in Nigerian hotel industry.

6.2 Management Implications

The study's results demonstrate that hospitality management should pay more attention to the stressors among CCEs, especially, as they are the ones frequently interacting with customers, providing services and solving issues related to service quality and delivery process. According to the transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), individuals appraise whether each job demand has repercussions for their well-being (Judge & Colquitt, 2004). First, as indicated in the results, challenge stressors (e.g., high workload, time pressure, high levels of job responsibility) reduced CCE's work engagement, because CCEs view these stressors as obstacles to their development and accomplishments. Stressors are unavoidable part of frontline service jobs which cannot be eliminated, and as such, hotel CCEs perceive challenge stressors as too high that discourage them from being involved and highly engrossed in their work role which also triggers their intentions to quit. Therefore, hotel management should ensure that necessary training is provided for CCEs on how to handle or cope with stressors such as high levels of job responsibility and workload and implements policies that motivate hotel CCEs to aspire for and effectively manage more responsibilities and/or workload at workplace. For example, hotel management should provide an attractive reward package that complements high levels of responsibility and performance outcomes. In addition, management should empower hotel CCEs to deal with issues related to complaints, service recovery and delivery processes. Such empowerment practices will enhance hotel CCEs' work engagement and overall performance. Once hotel

CCEs are adequately compensated, trained and recognized for their performance, they will be highly engaged and fulfill their tasks successfully and exhibit lower intentions to quit.

Second, this study demonstrates that hindrance stressors (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, organizational politics, hassles etc.) increased hotel CCE's work engagement and intentions to quit. Therefore, hotel management should establish cultural policies that eliminate organizational politics and ensure that CCEs' tasks are clearly stated and assigned. During recruitment and selection process, hotel management should clearly specify responsibilities assigned to each job role and establish a hiring system that implements fair treatment, respect and equal opportunities among CCEs. In addition, management should launch effective communication systems that disseminate adequate information needed to perform tasks. Under these circumstances, CCEs with enhanced work engagement, will effectively manage stressors, display higher performance outcomes and commitment to the hotel organization. However, hotel management should ensure that all terms and conditions attached to each front job position are clearly written and communicated to all CCEs. In the hotel settings, engaged CCEs experiencing hindrance stressors are likely to be involved, energetic and engrossed in their work role simply because they are afraid of losing their jobs. Therefore, management should avoid back door approach when implementing and executing policies and procedure, as this may increase stressors and quitting intentions among CCEs. In addition, involving CCEs in decision making and implementing their ideas and suggestions in operations will boost their confidence and sense of belongings.

Finally, through training program, mentor support, and teamwork initiation enhancement program, hotel CCEs will feel motivated to perform beyond their role expectations and consequently, leading to effective organizational performance. In addition, hotel management should hire and retain employees who can handle different types of stressors, are highly engaged in their tasks, and show positive outcomes (cf. Karatep & Olugbade, 2009).

6.3 Limitations and Future Research Suggestions

The findings of this study provide useful theoretical and managerial implications. However, this study also has several limitations and future research suggestions. First, data for this study were collected from hotel CCEs in Nigeria, and as such, the findings obtained cannot be generalized to hospitality settings in other countries. Since Nigeria, a sub-Saharan African country, has been documented for its political instability, high levels of corruption, job insecurity and gloomy economy, combining data from hotel CCEs in other countries where there are advanced contemporary human resource management practices, political stability, job security, and opportunities for career development, given the relationships between stressors and work engagement, would enrich our understanding on the challenge-hindrances stressor framework and work engagement relationships.

Second, this study examined the association between stressors, work engagement, attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. However, it is possible that other mechanisms may buffer the effects of these stressors on work engagement, thus, future research should incorporate job resources in order to ascertain and clarify the influences of challenge and hindrance stressors on work engagement and the selected attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. For example, job control, feedback, opportunities for

development, or participation in decision making are likely to be good job resources for testing the simultaneous effects of job stressors-resources on work engagement and the selected attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in the hotel industry.

Third, in terms of measurement scale, this study used scale developed by Cavanaugh et al. (2000) to measure challenge and hindrance stressors. Since this study focuses on the effects of stressors on CCEs' outcomes, in which some aspects of stressors are classified as challenge (e.g., high workload, high levels of job responsibility and time pressure) and hindrance (e.g., job insecurity, role conflict, role ambiguity, organizational politics, and hassles), treating challenge and hindrance stressors as a second-order latent variable will contribute to our understanding about the challenge-hindrance stressors and work engagement relationships in the hotel settings in sub-Saharan African countries.

Finally, while this study investigated the mediating role of work engagement in the association between stressors and CCE's service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions, empirical study has demonstrated that strains and motivation are likely to offset the impacts of stressors on employees' performance outcome (LePine et al., 2005). Since this study did not examine the mediating role of strain in the association between stressors and CCE's service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions, it may be important that future research should investigate the simultaneous mediating roles of burnout and work engagement in these relationships. This will broaden our understanding about the challenge-hindrance stressors framework in the hospitality settings.

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION

7.1 Conclusion

This study has provided evidence that different relationships exist in the impacts of challenge and hindrance stressors and work engagement relationships. From the conceptual model, this study developed and tested the role of work engagement as a mediator between challenge and hindrance stressors and critical employee outcomes (e.g., service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions). Specifically, this study tested: (1) the influences of both challenge and hindrance stressors on work engagement and quitting intentions; (2) the effect of work engagement on the abovementioned job outcomes; and (3) the mediating role of work engagement in these relationships. Data were obtained from full-time CCEs in the international four-and five-star chain hotel in Nigeria through multiple sources and a two-week time lag. Despite being an oil-rich country, Nigeria is still a developing country in the sub-Saharan Africa. The hospitality industry in Nigeria is an important service setting to assess the previously mentioned relationships because these employees have intense direct interactions with customers and perform a significant role in delivery of service quality and solution of customer problems. In addition, they are faced with a number of challenge and hindrance stressors at work where contemporary human resource practices are not prevalent.

The present study proposed and tested some specific hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 proposed that challenge stressors are positively related to work engagement. The findings demonstrated that challenge stressors significantly decreased CCE's work engagement. This is contrary to the proposed hypothesis. Hypothesis 2 proposed that hindrance stressors are negatively related to work engagement. Likewise, the findings did not provide support for the hypothesized negative relationship between hindrance stressors and work engagement. The findings revealed that hindrance stressors significantly increased CCE's work engagement. Hypothesis 3 proposed that work engagement is positively related to (a) service recovery performance, (b) creative performance, (c) job performance, and (d) negatively related to quitting intentions. Consistent with the proposed hypotheses, work engagement significantly increased service recovery performance, creative performance, and job performance and reduced quitting intentions. Thus, these provided supports for the proposed hypotheses. Hypothesis 4 proposed that work engagement will mediate the effects of challenge stressors on (a) service recovery performance, (b) creative performance, (c) job performance, and (d) quitting intentions. When it comes to the mediating role of work engagement, it appeared that work engagement mediated the impacts of challenge and hindrance stressors on service recovery performance, creative performance, job performance, and quitting intentions. Although, the direct paths from challenge and hindrance stressors to quitting intentions were not hypothesized, the results demonstrated significant positive relationships between stressors and quitting intentions. That is, challenge and hindrance stressors significantly increased quitting intentions.

This study presented model comparison based on the four different criteria suggested by Morgan and Hunt (1994). Informed by this notion, the results reveal that the

alternative model 2 seems to have a better fit statistic than both hypothesized model and alternative model 1. Accordingly, the findings of this study have contributed to the challenge-hindrane framework and have provided useful implications for future studies and hotel management.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A: Questionnaires

A FIELD STUDY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY IN NIGERIA

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 Mr. Olusegun A. Olugbade through his e-mail address:
olusegun.olugbade@cc.emu.edu.tr.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Research Team:

Olusegun A. Olugbade
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SECTION I.

Please use the following five-point scale to answer the following:

- (1) Produces no stress
- (2) Produces little stress
- (3) Produces stress
- (4) Produces much stress
- (5) Produces a great deal of stress

01. The number of projects and/or assignments I have.	1	2	3	4	5
02. The amount of time I spend at work.	1	2	3	4	5
03. The volume of work that must be accomplished in the allotted time.	1	2	3	4	5
04. Time pressures I experience.	1	2	3	4	5
05. The amount of responsibility I have.	1	2	3	4	5
06. The scope of responsibility my position entails.	1	2	3	4	5
07. The degree to which politics rather than performance affects organizational decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
08. The inability to clearly understand what is expected of me on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
09. The amount of red tape I need to go through to get my job done.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The lack of job security I have.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The degree to which my career seems stalled.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION II.

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 working 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 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 NIGERIA

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 Mr. Olusegun A. Olugbade through his e-mail address:
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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 NIGERIA

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 Mr. Olusegun A. Olugbade through his e-mail address:
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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

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

A FIELD STUDY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY IN NIGERIA

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 Mr. Olusegun A. Olugbade through his e-mail address:
Olusegun.olugbade@cc.emu.edu.tr.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Research Team:

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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

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

SECTION II.

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

7. This employee is a top performer.	1	2	3	4	5
8. This employee is in the top 10 percent of frontline employees here.	1	2	3	4	5
9. This employee gets along better with customers than do others.	1	2	3	4	5
10. This employee knows more about services delivered to customers than others.	1	2	3	4	5
11. This employee knows what his/her customers expect better than others.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Considering all the things this employee does, he/she handles dissatisfied customers quite well.	1	2	3	4	5
13. This employee doesn't mind dealing with complaining customers.	1	2	3	4	5
14. No customer this employee deals with leaves with problems unresolved.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Satisfying complaining customers is a great thrill to this employee.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Complaining customers this employee has dealt with in the past are among today's most loyal customers.	1	2	3	4	5