

The Effect of Perceived Employability on Front-Line Employee's Job Outcomes: Evidence from Two Service Settings

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ABSTRACT

The concept of perceived employability is conceptualized in existing literature as a subjective measure that concerns the beliefs of a person and how easy it is to find new jobs. Employability is dependent on specific circumstances, context, and time. In this thesis perceived employability has been investigated via two distinct studies in the hospitality industry. The first study purposes to investigate a conceptual model that examines the consequence of job insecurity as a moderator on the associations between perceived employability and employee well-being. It tests the impact of perceived employability on work engagement likewise. For this specific study, data were collected from frontline workers working full-time in five-star hotels in Northern Cyprus to examine the study variables; the (PLS-SEM) partial least square structural equation model was conducted and supported the research hypotheses. Consistent with the study predictions and results from the literature, perceived employability was found to have a significant positive impact on work engagement. According to the revealed results, job insecurity negatively as a hindrance stressor affects the association between perceived employability and work engagement. The knowledge gathered in this research is a cause of stress on the significance of employability in the enhancement of employee skills and qualifications, as well as in the reduction of perceived job insecurity, particularly in the tourism sector, which has a sensitive structure. As stated before, the topic of “Employability” has gained significant attention in recent years and its impact on organizational behaviour could be seen through the research literature of job loss and job search. Employability is all about gaining and maintaining employment, it involves the ability to move autonomously and to deal effectively with the career-related changes occurring in the

current uncertain labour market. Therefore, the second empirical study intends to test a conceptual model that investigates employability as a moderator of the relationships between job insecurity (JI) and service sabotage (SS). It also measures the impact of (JI) on the (SS) behaviour. Data for this study was obtained from a sample of staff working full time, in 3 and 4-star hotels in Cameroon. To test the study variables, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted, and research hypotheses were supported. Coherent with the study predictions and previous literature findings job insecurity had a significant and positive impact on service sabotage. According to the study results, employability increases the relationship between (JI) and (S.S). The findings of this study suggest some perceptions about the significance of employability on the selection of staff and their behaviours for organizational performance. Implications of the empirical findings for each study are discussed, and future research directions are provided.

Keywords: Perceived Employability, Job Insecurity, Frontline Employees, Work Engagement, Service Sabotage, Hospitality Industry.

ÖZ

Algılanan istihdam edilebilirlik kavramı, mevcut literatürde, bir kişinin inançlarını ve yeni iş bulmanın ne kadar kolay olduğunu ilgilendiren öznel bir ölçü olarak kavramsallaştırılmıştır. İstihdam edilebilirlik, belirli koşullara, bağlama ve zamana bağlıdır. Bu tezde otelcilik sektöründe algılanan istihdam edilebilirlik iki ayrı çalışma ile incelenmiştir. İlk ampirik çalışma, algılanan istihdam edilebilirlik ve çalışan refahı (işe bağlılık) arasındaki ilişkilerin bir moderatörü olarak iş güvensizliğinin etkisini araştıran bir araştırma modeli tasarlamayı ve test etmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Ayrıca, algılanan istihdam edilebilirliğin iş bağlılığı üzerindeki etkisini de ölçer. Veriler, çalışma değişkenlerini test etmek için Kuzey Kıbrıs'taki beş yıldızlı otellerde çalışan tam zamanlı ön büro çalışan işçilerden toplandı. Kısmi en küçük kare yapısal eşitlik modeli (PLS-SEM) uygulanmış ve araştırma hipotezlerini desteklemiştir. Önceki literatürden elde edilen çalışma öngörülleri ve bulguları doğrultusunda, algılanan istihdam edilebilirliğin işe bağlılık üzerinde önemli bir olumlu etkiye sahip olduğu bulunmuştur. Sonuç, bir engel stres faktörü olarak, iş güvencesizliğinin algılanan istihdam edilebilirlik ile işe bağlılık arasındaki ilişkiyi olumsuz etkilediğini ortaya koydu. Bu çalışmanın bulguları, istihdam edilebilirliğin önemine ilişkin bazı kavramlar sağlamanın yanı sıra, çalışanların iş seçimi ve kuruluşlarda iş performansı sırasındaki tutumlarını etkileyen faktörler de temin etmektedir. Bu çalışmada elde edilen bilgiler, özellikle hassas bir yapıya sahip olan turizm endüstrisinde mesleki becerilerin ve mesleki katılımın geliştirilmesinde istihdam edilebilirliğin değerini vurgulamak ve iş güvensizliği algısını azaltmak için bir kaynaktır. Daha önce de belirtildiği gibi, “İstihdam edilebilirlik” konusu son yıllarda önemli bir ilgi görmüştür ve bunun örgütsel davranış üzerindeki etkisi, iş kaybı ve iş arama araştırma literatürü

aracılığıyla incelenebilir. İstihdam edilebilirlik tamamen istihdam kazanmak ve sürdürmekle ilgilidir, özerk hareket etme ve mevcut belirsiz işgücü piyasasında meydana gelen kariyerle ilgili değişikliklerle etkili bir şekilde başa çıkma becerisini içerir. Bu nedenle, ikinci ampirik/deneysel çalışma, iş güvensizliği (İG) ve hizmet sabotajı (HS) arasındaki ilişkilerin bir moderatörü olarak istihdam edilebilirliği araştıran bir araştırma modeli tasarlamayı ve test etmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Ayrıca (İG)'nın (HS) davranışı üzerindeki etkisini de ölçer. Kamerun'daki 3 ve 4 yıldızlı otellerde çalışan tam zamanlı ön büro çalışan personellerden toplanan veriler, çalışma değişkenlerini test etmek için, hiyerarşik bir regresyon analizi uygulandı ve araştırma hipotezlerini destekledi. Çalışma öngörülleri ve önceki literatür bulguları (İG) ile uyumlu olarak, (HS) üzerinde önemli ve olumlu bir etkiye sahipti. Sonuç ilginç bir şekilde istihdam edilebilirliğin (İG) ve (HS) arasındaki ilişkiyi artırdığını ortaya koydu. Bu çalışmanın bulguları, istihdam edilebilirliğin önemi ve çalışanın iş seçimi üzerindeki etkileyen faktörleri ve kuruluşlarda iş performansı sırasındaki tutumları hakkında bazı bilgiler sunmaktadır. Her çalışma için deneysel bulguların çıkarımları tartışılır ve gelecekteki araştırma yönergeleri sağlanır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Algılanan İstihdam, İş Güvensizliği, Ön büro Çalışanları, İşe Bağlılık, Hizmet Sabotajı, Konaklama Endüstrisi.

To my son

“Alp Alpler” who is always an inspiration to me...

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iii
ÖZ.....	v
DEDICATION	vii
ACKNOWLEDGMENT.....	viii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
1 INTRODUCTION	1
2 LITERATURE REVIEW.....	4
2.1 Perceived Employability: Definition	4
3 HINDRANCE STRESSORS AND PERCEIVED EMPLOYABILITY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY	11
3.1 Tourism in Northern Cyprus.....	11
3.1.1 Employability in Northern Cyprus Context.....	12
3.2 Hypotheses Development.....	14
3.2.1 Perceived Employability: Associations with Work Engagement	14
3.2.2 Moderating Role of Job Insecurity	17
3.3 Methodology.....	20
3.3.1 Sample and Procedure	20
3.4 Measurement	22
3.5 Results	23
3.5.1 Measurement Results.....	23
3.5.2 Discriminant Validity	24
3.5.3 Assessment of the Structural Model.....	25

3.5.4 Moderating Effect of Job Insecurity	26
3.6 Discussion and Conclusion.....	27
3.6.1 Managerial Implications	30
3.6.2 Limitations and Further Research	31
4 THE MODERATING ROLE OF EMPLOYABILITY IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: UNDESIRED JOB OUTCOMES	33
4.1 Tourism in Cameroon	33
4.1.1 Employability in Cameroon Context.....	35
4.2 Hypothesis Development	39
4.2.1 Job Insecurity and Service Sabotage	39
4.2.2 Job Insecurity and Employability.....	41
4.2.3 The Moderating Role of Employability.....	43
4.3 Method	45
4.3.1 Sample and Procedure	45
4.3.2 Respondent's Profile	46
4.4 Measurement	47
4.4.1 Data Analysis	48
4.4.2 Measurement Model.....	48
4.5 Results	49
4.5.1 Measurement Results and Descriptive Statistics.....	49
4.5.2 Moderating Effect of Job Insecurity.....	55
4.6 Discussion and Conclusion.....	56
4.6.1 Summary of the Findings.....	56
4.6.2 Theoretical Contribution.....	59
4.6.3 Practical Implication.....	61

4.6.4 Limitations and Future Research.....	63
4.6.5 Concluding Remarks	65
5 CONCLUSION	66
REFERENCES	68
APPENDIX	100

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: An overview of past employability researches	7
Table 2: Item loadings, construct reliability, and validity	24
Table 3: Results of the heterotrait–monotrait Ratio (HTMT) of correlations.....	25
Table 4: Structural model assessment with moderation	25
Table 5: Means, standard deviations, and correlations of variables	26
Table 6: Factor loadings and rotated component matrix	51
Table 7: Pearson correlations	52
Table 8: Hierarchical multiple regression results: Employability as a moderation in the relationship between job insecurity and service sabotage	53

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual model	20
Figure 2: Moderating effect	27
Figure 3: Hypothesized model	45
Figure 4: Simple slope results	56

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The definition of employability is of importance in meeting the instability demanded by the industry, in growing an employee's professional commitment, and in raising the perception of work insecurity, particularly in the fragile and sensitive structure of the tourism sector (Ozkoc, & Caliskan, 2020). Employability is an employee's awareness of his or her possibilities to attain a new job. It is an individual's work-related adaptability that enhances his or her ability to find and use job and career opportunities within or outside the current workplace (Bozionelos et al., 2016).

It has also been conceptualized in existing literature as a subjective measure that concerns the beliefs of a person and how easy it is to find new jobs. Employability is dependent on specific circumstances, context, and time (Vanhercke, De Cuyper., Peeters, & De Witte, 2014). . Employability has a range of significant consequences for the well-being of workers, and thus, further research is required to define the procedures, effects, and limits of the requirements for organizational performance (De Cuyper, Sulea, Philippaers, Fischmann, Iliescu, & De Witte, 2014).

Besides, rapid globalization and technological advances have become a reality in today's life. Therefore, companies need to concentrate on adaptation and employee involvement to stay ahead of their rivals. Fostering sustainable workplace employment is also crucially required to adjust and successfully react to environmental changes

(Malik, & Garg, 2020). Therefore, in this competitive market environment, especially for the tourism and hospitality sector, the main concern is to be able to deliver high-quality services to customers. Finding and retaining skilled and qualified employees who can provide frontline service jobs are priorities for hospitality organizations (Alpler, & Arasli, 2020). With this realization, hospitality managers need to provide their employees with sufficient support and peace of mind, which can motivate them to show high-quality performance in the workplace. If those employees experience workplace stress and unjust behaviors or if they are not assured about their job security, this will not be to the advantage of the organization (Arasli, Arici, & Çakmakoglu Arici, 2019). Job insecurity has been causing a stir among researchers (Chiu, & Peng, 2008; Tian, Zhang, & Zou, 2014) because the outcomes of perceived job insecurity are often costly to service organizations in several aspects.

The association between employability and the well-being of workers has been to the attention of many researchers (Vanhercke et. al., 2014). “Work Engagement” refers to “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002).

Given that, in this dynamic business setting, in particular for the tourism and hospitality industry, the key challenge is the need to offer high-quality service to clients, attracting and retaining trained and qualified workers for front-line service employment. (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012).

Accordingly, hospitality managers need to provide their employees with sufficient support and a sense of security so that they will be assured about their current working

position and will be encouraged to increase their performance at the workplace. (Arasli et al., 2019). With this realization, Job insecurity has been a top topic of interest among researchers (Chiu & Peng, 2008; Tian et al., 2014; Vander Elst et al., 2014), because it usually has costly consequences for the organizations. (NaderiadibAlpler & Arasli, 2020).

Job insecurity, defined as an organizational stressor, may influence counter-productive behaviors (Tian et al, 2014) like service sabotage actions, which could be impertinent to an organization's reputation (Jacobs, 2019). Some scholars (De Witte, 1999; Tian et al, 2014) have investigated and formed several negative organizational outcomes like counterproductive behaviors of employees which are the result of job insecurity in the organizations.

In light of the information given above, the primary objective of the second study is to propose and test a conceptual model that evaluates work engagement as a positive outcome of perceived employability via the moderating effect of job insecurity. According to the literature, perceived employability assists the workforces to deal with job insecurity (De Cuyper, Sulea, Philippaers, Fischmann, Iliescu, & De Witte, 2014). Employability stands with the perception of job insecurity, which is a leading factor in organizational psychology and the labor market. Even though the beneficial association between perceived employability and work engagement has been supported and approved (Cuyper, Bernhard-Oettel, Berntson, Witte, & Alarco, 2008), it is conceivable that the attributes of these relationships may be decided by certain prospective moderators like job insecurity.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Perceived Employability: Definition

The definition of employability was first used in the early twentieth century. This was focused on the dichotomy of “employable” individuals (capable and eager and/or wanting to work) and “unemployable” individuals (unable to work and who needed help).

According to (Bernstrøm, Drange, & Mamelund, 2019; Berntson, Sverke, & Marklund, 2006), employability is an employee’s knowledge of his or her prospects for a new career. This is an individual’s work-related adaptability that improves his or her ability to discover and take advantage of job and career opportunities inside or outside the current workplace. However, it is the worker’s understanding of potential employment prospects, either with the current employer or with another employer.

Such perspectives and understanding are focused on both human and contextual factors. Human factors include human capital (educational level or training), social capital (connections and networks), and adaptability (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004; Feldman, & Ng, 2007). Contextual factors, on the other hand, are pressure problems, such as unemployment or labor market demands (Magnano, Santisi, Zammitti, Zarbo, & Di Nuovo, 2019). These variables can predict workers’ perceptions of available employment (deBruin, & Dupuis, 2008).

According to the past “Employability” literature, most of the researches has been carried out in higher education contexts like schools, vocational schools, institutions and universities, etc. (Bargsted et al., 2021; Bennett et al., 2021; Donald et al., 2018). In these researches, authors have mostly focused on the skills and abilities of individuals to increase their career adaptability and their possible chances to be ready and hired in a workplace. Moreover, there is an insufficient number of studies in the hospitality sector relative to employability, and those few studies conducted in the hospitality industry have focused on young professionals and newly graduated students' skills, training, and career development (Caliskan & Ozkoc, 2020 & Dhaliwal & Misra, 2020). However, studies on the presence of such individuals who are going to be future employees with a high level of employability, (perceived employability), in the organizations and their behavioral consequences for the outcome of the organizations especially in the hospitality industry is very rare. According to this gap and the timely relevance of this topic, this thesis aims to extend and expand the limited literature (narrow body of knowledge of perceived employability) in hospitality literature. Besides, the rationale of this objective is the limited employability research in hospitality as presented in table 1.

For that reason, in this thesis perceived employability is being investigated via two different perspectives in the hospitality industry. The first study purposes to investigate a conceptual model that examines the consequence of job insecurity as a moderator on the associations between perceived employability and employee well-being and the second empirical study intends to test a conceptual model that investigates employability as a moderator of the relationships between job insecurity (JI) and service sabotage (SS). It also measures the impact of (JI) on the (SS) behavior.

Hypothesis development, research model, data analysis, discussion, and results of each study are provided in the following chapters.

Table 1: An overview of past employability researches

Journal Name	Authors	Definition of Employability	Samples	Measures	Findings	Limitations , Future suggestions
Career Development International	Bargsted et al. (2021)	Defined employability as “a person’s perception about their own abilities, capacities and skills that promote career possibilities, which help him/her to maintain or enhance their functional, learning and career resources and skills” (p.2).	1,485 graduates from a Chilean Higher Education Institution, who finished their studies between 2013 and 2016.	Perceived employability was measured using the Ripoll et al. (1994) adaptation of the three items on Employment. Competence employability was measured using the short-form employability five-factor instrument (see Van der Heijden et al., 2018), which includes 22 items	Subjective career success partially mediates the relationship between competence employability model and perceived employability. However, objective career success was not related to perceived employability.	The study made use of a cross-sectional design, which hinders the identification of causal direction. Future samples could include different educational levels. Mediators could include job insecurity, perceived support in an organizational/context level and even personality traits.
Perspectives: policy and practice in higher education	Bennett et al. (2021)	Employability was defined as “a range of essential skills including both technical skills and broad capabilities such as problem-solving, self-regulation, creative thinking and career exploration”(p.2).	12,708 university students by using an online self -assessment Tool.	The study utilised Bennett’s measure of perceived employability (Bennett 2020; Bennett and Ananthram in review), which integrates principles of Bandura’s (1986) social cognitive theory (SCT) and Lent, Brown, and Hackett’s (1994) social cognitive career theory	women in STEM were often more confident than men. Moreover, women in STEM reported higher confidence than women in non-STEM and the need to focus on career transition and advancement support given that women are confident whilst studying, yet less likely than	Future research might seek to monitor the confidence of STEM students relative to academic performance and engagement, both across the student lifecycle and into the labour market. labour market.

				(SCCT) into a formative, online self-measure of perceived employability.	men to advance in their careers.	
Asian Journal of Education and Social Studies	(Dhaliwal & Misra, 2020)	In this research paper, employability was defined “initially as possessing knowledge, skills, and abilities that help in getting employment, continuous enhance and develop the abilities and skills to fulfill the needs of the market, employers and customers and remain significant and suitable for the workforce, society and to the economy.” (p.22).	The published articles between 1983 to 2018, conducted in the field of the hospitality industry across the globe were incorporated as the main data for this study.	An investigation of employability skills in field of hospitality industry was conducted. 97 unique skills were identified in totality. The most commonly needed top 10 skills are mentioned in this research.	The study conferred about moderate and least reported skills by the hospitality industry in the study and the academic institutions have to make efforts to develop these skills among their students as expected globally by the hospitality industry.	The study highlighted only the requirement of industry, and mentioned the skills preferred by the industry. In future, more studies may be carried out by other stakeholders i.e. students and academia also.
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	(Caliskan & Ozkoc, 2020)	Employability is defined as the “subjective evaluation of an employee’s ability to obtain a new job or maintain an existing employment” (p.3972).	The research population composes of 361 permanent employees working at four- and five-star hotels’ in Cappadocia, Turkey.	Employability was measured using a six-item scale which was developed by Berntson and Marklund (2007).	The findings revealed that employees’ perceptions of JIS are affected positively by FC and IC and negatively by PC. Additionally, this study confirmed that the perception of EMP moderates the relationships between the characteristics of organizational change (FC, IC, PC) and JIS.	Further studies with longitudinal design and wider samples covering different regions and/or tourism destinations need to be carried out to validate the results of this study and to further clarify the direction of the relationships presented here.
Journal of Vocational Behaviour	Blokke et al. (2019)	“Employability is defined as the individual's perception of employment opportunities with the current (i.e., internal)	704 Dutch young professionals (21–35 years.	Perceived employability was measured with eight items that reflect internal and external	This study demonstrates that career shocks play an important role in young professionals' early	Future research is needed to explore this question further and to validate our model. Additional

		or another (i.e., external) employer” (p.173).		employability (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2008, 2010).	career development in tandem with career competencies and career success.	methods, such as supervisor ratings and employment outcomes, could be used to check whether the changes we found in the distribution of young professionals' employability reflect a true impact on their employability.
Personnel Review	Bernstrom et al. (2019)	Basic employability is defined as “the individual’s perception of his or her possibilities of obtaining and maintaining employment. (p.235).	nationally representative Norwegian survey data from 12,945 employees (2009–2013)	Aspiring and basic employability was measured using the instruments presented and tested in Drange et al. (2018).	Employees with higher aspiring employability and education levels have a significantly lower preference for job security, but this is not the case for employees with higher basic employability.	the diverging results for basic and aspiring employability clearly support that these are two distinct phenomena with different causes and consequences for an employee. The two phenomena should be researched and discussed as separate concepts.
Career Development International	Donald et al. (2018)	“Employability is the ability to acquire employment when needed, or as Rothwell and Arnold (2007) suggested, it is the ability to keep the job one has or to get the job one wants” (p.513).	38 final year students from a UK university	A qualitative method using semi-structured Interviews was applied.	As undergraduates progress, students feel more employable from a personal perspective, but less employable from a market perspective due to competition for graduate jobs and the cost/benefit conflict of resources.	Future research focusing on generalist degree subjects at a more granular level would make a valuable contribution to this sparse area in existing career theory literature.
Vocational Education and Training	Small et al. (2017)	“the capacity to be self-reliant in navigating the labor market, utilizing knowledge,		Research has been conducted via providing	There is an expectation that graduates will have	Future research is also needed to assess

		individual skills and attributes, and adapting them to the employment context, showcasing them to employers, while taking into account external and other constraints” (p.151).		an employability framework.	attained employability, making them work-ready and well positioned to contribute to sustaining strong economic growth and development of their employer or country	the effect on young and work-inexperienced graduates of a model of employability that does not include interpersonal qualities as a separate component, particularly as interpersonal skills are a key selection criterion of potential graduate employers.
Group & Organization Management	Bozionelos et al. (2016)	“work-centered adaptability that enhances his or her ability to find and use job and career opportunities within or outside the current workplace” (p.138).	Participants were IT professionals employed in SMEs in three European countries, Greece, Italy, and Poland	Line managers rated participants using the managerial version of Van der Heijde (2006) measure for employability.	it reveals the functionality of mentoring across the whole spectrum of organizational sizes, by showing that mentoring receipt is associated with positive outcomes in the SME environment	suggests that the beneficial properties of mentoring extend to organizations of small and medium size and are not limited to particular national cultural contexts, raising the need for more fine-grained research in various contexts.

Chapter 3

HINDRANCE STRESSORS AND PERCEIVED EMPLOYABILITY IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY

3.1 Tourism in Northern Cyprus

Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) is located in the northern part of Cyprus. Entire TRNC is 3,355 square kilometres and a total coastal resource is 360 kilometres long. It is possible to reach to TRNC with the airway and maritime line. There are two harbours, Girne and Famagusta and two airports, Ercan and Geçitkale. Cyprus is an ancient land of relics of the Great Mediterranean cultures and civilizations. Because of its weather, beaches, fauna and flora, rich history and historical places, delicious cuisine, and the Cypriot hospitality; tourism have become the locomotive sector of TRNC economy. Tourism became one of the most developing sectors in the world. Therefore, tourism is the most primary sector for TRNC economy as well. Since 1980's, TRNC tourism sector has been declared as the leading sector in the economic development which provides prosperity (Altınay and Hussain, 2005). In addition, tourism is one of important sources of income of TRNC. Back in the early 1970s Varosha, Famagusta was the most popular destination in Cyprus, (and popular in the world) before its abandonment in Turkish invasion of Cyprus 1974. Nowadays, Turkey, UK and other northern European countries are the source of most tourist arrivals. Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus TRNC is an ideal holiday destination and every year attracts thousands of tourists seeking to enjoy its long summers, pristine

natural environment and archaeological sites (North Cyprus Hoteliers Association, 2019).

Despite the embargos imposed on the TRNC, there has been significant investment in the tourism industry due to increased demand. There are now 134 tourist facilities on the island, with a total bed capacity of 21, 583¹. As one of the leading sectors in the TRNC economy, tourism constituted 8.7% of Gross National Product (GNP) in 2016 and tourist activities now represent a key area of economic growth according to TRNC Ministry of Tourism. TRNC offers a range of activities for holidaymakers to enjoy—these include sea tourism, yachting, mountaineering, water sports, golf, horse riding, speleology, trekking, diving, festivals and fairs.

3.1.1 Employability in Northern Cyprus Context

Perceived employability has been conceptualized in existing literature as a subjective measure that concerns the beliefs of a person and how easy it is to find new jobs. Employability is dependent on specific circumstances, context, and time (Vanhercke et al., 2014). Employability has a range of significant consequences for the well-being of workers, and thus, further research is required to define the procedures, effects, and limits of the requirements for organizational performance (De Cuyper et al., 2014).

Besides, rapid globalization and technological advances have become a reality in today's life. Therefore, companies need to concentrate on adaptation and employee involvement to stay ahead of their rivals (Karatepe, Rezapouraghdam, & Hassannia, 2020). In addition, according to the literature, perceived employability acts as a buffer for employees' job insecurity perception (De Cuyper, Sulea et al., 2014). Employability stands with the perception of job insecurity, which is a leading factor in organizational psychology and the labor market.

Even though the relationship between perceived employability and work engagement has been supported and well discussed (Cuyper et al, 2008), it is conceivable that the attributes of these relationships may be decided by certain prospective moderators like job insecurity.

Described as workers' awareness of possible forced work cuts (Hellgren, & Sverke, 2003), job insecurity has been recommended to be strongly associated with perceived employability (Ngo, Liu, & Cheung, 2017; Wittekind, Raeder, & Grote, 2010).

Job insecurity as hindrance stressor, is impending to hamper employees' learning skills, development, and progress (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010). This work thus not only describes the boundary state of perceived employability concerning the performance of employees but also unravels the relative functions of perceived employability and job insecurity.

Moreover, most of the recent employability research has been performed in Western countries, where the employability concept was focused on the work background of staff. However, the entire results might not be generalizable for all nations because of cultural and systemic distinctions. As such, there is no knowledge about the accuracy of these works in different regions of the world.

We undertook this research in Northern Cyprus, which can provide fresh insights into this problem. The economy of Northern Cyprus, which is dominated by the service sector, which includes trade, education, and tourism. In particular, the tourism and hospitality sector is at the forefront of development in the country.

Our study also used remedies, such as time-lagged data collection for controlling common method variance in the job insecurity research, to reduce the risk (Podsakoff, 2003).

The need to investigate the above-alleged relationships and to answer the question of what an organization can do to diminish the effects of job insecurity in a touristic Mediterranean island context cannot be underestimated. By understanding frontline employees' motivations to have an improved commitment and performance, researchers and practitioners can develop guidelines that organizations may use to avoid or reduce job insecurity.

3.2 Hypotheses Development

3.2.1 Perceived Employability: Associations with Work Engagement

To maintain employability, individuals need to be able to respond to endless changes. Factors such as globalization and the rapid growth and development of technology have had an impact on the types of skills and abilities required to be successful in today's organizations (Olson, D. A., & Shultz, 2013). The emphasis of most companies is on the acquisition of skilled employees who possess specialized skills and who can continue to do so (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, & Wright, 2017). With the transition to knowledge work, the values of using talents and continuing to grow, improve, and enhance one's skills, abilities, and talents are core components of career and personal success that have a direct effect on employability (Pardo-Garcia, & Barac, 2020).

Most scholars define employability as a workplace benefit, provoking power over one's daily life and, in a wider context, on individual's occupation Control is similar to the concept of resources in this analysis shown in common work-related theories

like the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004).

The fundamental idea is that resources are positively linked to employment-related and general well-being and has received substantial support from the JD-R model. Considering that (perceived) employability is a human resource, it follows that (perceived) employability is positively linked to employee well-being. It has also been confirmed that workers who feel ‘closed up’ in jobs that they do not want and that experience challenges in seeking new employment are likely to be less employable (De Cuyper, Notelaers, & De Witte, 2009; Jackson, & Tomlinson, 2020).

As a desirable result for the workforce, work engagement is defined as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Karatepe, & Ngeche, 2012). A host of work engagement research has employed the JD-R paradigm as an explanatory tool (Schaufeli, & Taris, 2014). The model indicates that dedication to work derives from the motivating importance of two categories of resources: employment resources, which contribute to various facets of work that are realistic for achieving work goals, mitigating task demands, and fostering personal growth and development, and personal resources.

There are facets of self-reliance that are usually related to resilience and the willingness to successfully monitor and affect one’s atmosphere (e.g., self-efficacy, self-esteem dependent on the organization, motivation, and mental stability) (Demerouti, & Bakker, 2011).

As a type of personal resource, perceived employability is predicted to be positively associated with work engagement. Empirically, Ref. (Cuyper et al, 2008) stated that there is a positive relationship between perceived employability and work engagement. Employability has been claimed to provide people with a sense of autonomy and to make them more likely to achieve participation at work. We, therefore, suggest the following hypothesis:

- **Hypothesis 1 (H1).** Perceived employability is positively related to work engagement.

Employability is linked to the sense of job insecurity and is a leading influence in occupational psychology and the labor market. Currently, according to the literature, perceived employability helps employees deal with workplace uncertainty, which is known as job insecurity (Forrier, & Sels, 2003; Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002). In such a manner that employability increases the sense of being in charge of one's life, which, in turn, decreases the negative consequences of work instability (Bakker, & Demerouti, 2007). This viewpoint reflects visions from studies on the Job Demands–Resources model (Elman, & Angela, 2002).

Job demands refer to the aspects of a career that workers perceive as oppressive, such as workplace instability. Job resources boost qualities that encourage professional growth and learning—attributes that may contribute to higher levels of employability. Job resources are known to be “effective in the achievement of work goals, but also the reduction of the health-related issues of job demands.”

Employability was found to be one of the possible antecedents of job insecurity (Berntson, & Marklund, 2007; Sverke et al., 2002). High-employability employees

were contrasted to low-employability employees in one study and were less likely to suffer workplace dissatisfaction.

Managers should recommend jobs with a reasonable degree of protection to recruit and maintain extremely productive workers that can quickly pursue alternate jobs in the case of unfavorable working conditions. It was claimed by Schaufeli (1992) that employees with lower academic levels are more prone to facing job insecurity than highly qualified workers. They also assumed that the standard of academic level should be a measure of employability (Forrier, & Sels, 2003; Elman, & Angela, 2002). Moreover, employees are expected to look for employment security rather than job stability, which means that employees establish employment stability by moving across organizational boundaries and from one job to the next, rather than staying within a single organization or job (Silla, De Cuyper, Gracia, Peiro, & De Witte, 2009). In this regard, employment security is conditioned by employees' employability (Lazarus, & Folkman, 1984). They concluded that highly employable employees are likely to face less job insecurity. Again, it has been suggested by researchers that employability will possibly decrease the likely unfavorable consequences of job insecurity. It is hypothesized that:

- **Hypothesis 2 (H2).** Perceived employability is negatively related to job insecurity.

3.2.2 Moderating Role of Job Insecurity

Hindrance stressors have the potential to interrupt the development, progress, and progression of workers. Such stressors obstruct their progress toward the accomplishment of objectives (Crawford et al., 2010). According to Wang, Lu, & Siu (2015). "...job-insecure employees are not able to be fully engaged at work, because

they are concerned about their job outcomes. Instead, they will experience greater anxiety, anger, or frustration..., but less positive affect...” Consequently, it is apparent that job insecurity impedes employees’ work engagement.

While we have concluded that perceived employability is positively linked to work engagement, it is conceivable that the characteristics of these relationships could be dependent on certain prospective moderators (De Cuyper et. al., 2014). One of those possible moderators is job insecurity, which refers to “the perceived stability and continuance of one’s job as one knows it” (Probst, 2003). (p. 452). This represents the individual opinion of an employee as to whether the ideal aspects of his or her work are intact and whether or not he or she should choose to do it. People with poor levels of job security tend to feel uncertain regarding the potential availability of employment in the future. Perceptions of job insecurity may have an effect not just on the cognitive well-being of employees, but also on their own (Karatepe, & Ngeche, 2012; Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989).

Based on the degree of job insecurity, people’s responses to perceived employability can differ. Specifically, we speculate that a favorable correlation between perceived employability and work engagement will diminish as individuals feel more uncertain regarding their jobs. Such a hypothesis should be interpreted from the point of view of investing parties (De Cuyper et. al., 2014; Kim, & Kim, 2020).

Perceived employability is dependent not only on previous corporate commitment (e.g., training) but also on the comprehensive involvement of employees in their human capital (e.g., education). As a consequence, employees typically anticipate their investments to be compensated by businesses, and job security may be a benefit of that

nature (Chiesa, Fazi, Guglielmi, & Mariani, 2018). If it is not, then highly employable workers can believe they are not adequately paid for their contributions and thus suffer a psychological violation of the contract.

This has certain adverse effects, such as decreased loyalty, organizational engagement, job satisfaction, and motivation at work (Park, Youn, & Moon, 2020). According to a different study, the connection between perceived employability and optimal functioning (i.e., in-role success and supportive behavior) is much less than the rate of perceived job insecurity (Imam, & Chambel, 2020). The present research would proceed to position the relationship between perceived employability and employment-related well-being in the sense of perceived job insecurity. We, therefore, suggest the following hypothesis:

- **Hypothesis 3 (H3).** Job insecurity is negatively related to work engagement.
- **Hypothesis 4 (H4).** When the job insecurity level is high, the positive affiliation between perceived employability and work engagement is reduced.

The conceptual model displaying the above-mentioned hypothesized relationships can be seen in Figure 1.

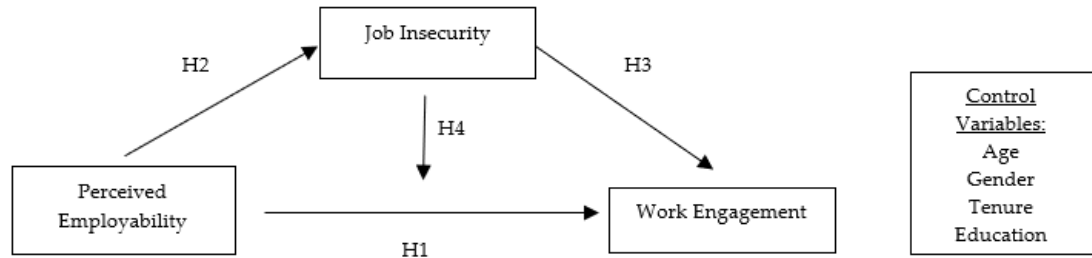


Figure 1: Conceptual model

3.3 Methodology

3.3.1 Sample and Procedure

The suggested hypothesis was tested based on data gathered from full-time frontline workers at five-star hotels throughout Northern Cyprus. The research group included frontline employees who spend much of their time interacting with clients' queries in a face-to-face manner. This includes employees who work as front desk staff, door attendants, reception clerks, bell attendants, concierges, and customer service representatives. According to details obtained from the Ministry of Tourism, Culture, and the Environment at the time of this research, there were 17 five-star hotels situated in Northern Cyprus. The research group approached the administrations of all five-star hotels with a letter containing the purpose of the study and asking for permission for data collection. As result, the management of 12 five-star hotels approved their contributions to the empirical study.

Moreover, following the procedures given by Podsakoff et al. (2003) regarding common method bias , a major risk that leads to the error of measurement, which, in consequence, can improve or devalue the correlations observed between research variables (De Cuyper, Van der Heijden, & De Witte, 2011; Podsakoff, MacKenzie,

& Podsakoff, 2012). We used phase distinction by adding a time gap of two weeks between the study variables.

Two separate questionnaires were used for this research: the Phase I and Phase II questionnaires. The Phase I questionnaire included the perceived employability and job insecurity variables (predictor and moderator variables). The Phase II questionnaire consisted of work engagement variables, as well as items related to control variables, like respondents' age, gender, education, and organizational tenure. The employees were instructed to self-administer the questionnaire, to place it in an envelope, and to submit it to the research team.

The questionnaire was considered to be suitable for data collection depending on the findings of a pilot study performed with 15 employees. Approximately 216 questionnaires were given to frontline workers after approval was received from the hotel management. Besides, a corresponding letter specifically stating the purpose of the survey and the confidentiality of the respondents' profiles was added to the copies of each questionnaire. Out of the 216 copies distributed, 198 questionnaires were received in a two-week time period. As a result of missing data, 13 questionnaires were rejected, leaving 185 usable questionnaires for further analyses with a response rate of 85%, which is a remarkable number.

Out of the 185 questionnaires, 68% of the respondents were men, while the other 32% were women. Most of them appeared to be adults between their mid-20s and mid-40s, such that the elderly participants accounted for only about 6%. Among the participants, 45% were high school leavers or those with high school diplomas, 32% were university graduates, and the remaining group had either a primary school leaving certificate or

a secondary school certificate. A worthy number of the participants, 35%, had worked in the same organization for two to four years, and another 28% had between 5 and 7 years of tenure. Remarkably, almost 29% of the 185 respondents had working tenure in the same organization of 11 years or above, while just a small amount of the 8% were new and had served for a year or less.

3.4 Measurement

To measure perceived employability, a four-item scale used by De Cuyper et al. (2011b) was adopted (Jakobsen,& Jensen, 2015) (e.g., “I am optimistic that I would find another job if I looked for one”, “I could easily switch to another employer if I wanted to”). Seven items from Hellgren and Sverke (2003) were used to measure job insecurity (e.g., “There is a risk that I will have to leave my present job”, “I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to”). For measuring work engagement, this study utilized the shortened version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale developed by Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006) (De Cuyper, Mauno, Kinnunen, & Mäkikangas, 2011).

This scale consisted of nine items (e.g., “At my work, I feel bursting with energy”, “I am enthusiastic about my job”). All 20 items representing the study variables, together with control variables (age, gender, education, organizational tenure), were gauged on Likert scales of five points, from 1 indicating strongly disagree to 5 denoting strongly agree. All items in Phase I and Phase II questionnaires were originally prepared in English and then translated into Turkish through the back-translation method of Parameswaran and Yaprak (1987) (Schaufeli, Bakker,& Salanova, 2006). Consistently with the current literature, the potential effects of age, gender, organizational tenure, and education on the study relationships were controlled.

However, the results revealed that the aforementioned variables did not confound the statistical results.

3.5 Results

3.5.1 Measurement Results

The measuring model necessitates the determination of convergent validity, the reliability of internal consistency and continuity, the differential validity, and the corresponding validity of the item (Parameswaran, & Yaprak, 1987). The reliability of internal consistency applies to all objects being evaluated under the same definition (Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams, & Hair Jr, 2014) Cronbach's alpha (CA) and composite reliability (CR) are used as internal performance estimators in management studies (Sun, Zhang, Liu, & Lu, 2007). The CR was selected to assess the internal accuracy of the measures undertaken in the present report.

The description in this study using CR was established as a rule of thumb according to Bagozzi and Yi (1988) (Peterson, & Kim, 2013). Additionally, the CR must be more than 0.70, as recommended by Hair, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2011) (Bagozzi, & Yi, 1989). The results of the CR, AVE, and CA are shown in Table 2. The levels for each latent construct in the AVE must have values of 0.50 or more to reach acceptable convergent validity according to Chin (1998) (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). All values in our research met the commonly accepted cut-off criteria (>0.50).

Table 2: Item loadings, construct reliability, and validity

Construct	Items	Loadings	AVE	CR	Alpha	VIF
Employability			0.61	0.86	0.782	
	EM1	0.814				2.038
	EM2	0.877				2.486
	EM3	0.826				1.928
Job Insecurity	EM4	0.573	0.639	0.876	0.817	1.351
	JS1	0.764				2.154
	JS2	0.85				2.514
	JS3	0.805				1.497
Work Engagement	JS4	0.776	0.631	0.939	0.926	1.475
	WE1	0.847				3.028
	WE2	0.869				3.038
	WE3	0.854				3.028
	WE4	0.859				2.267
	WE5	0.728				1.886
	WE6	0.673				2.988
	WE7	0.806				3.408
	WE8	0.780				3.420

3.5.2 Discriminant Validity

Once the values of the variables are bigger than the values for other constructs (loadings greater than 0.1) and the square root of the AVE for each component is greater than the differences between pairs of constructs and is above 0.5., discriminant validity occurs (Chin, 1998). In this research, the AVE values vary between 0.610 and 0.639, which is acceptable. Moreover, the heterotrait–monotrait ratio (HTMT) assesses the discriminant validity of the partial least square structural equation model (PLS-SEM). Therefore, Table 3 presents the HTMT values between reflective constructs that are below the commonly accepted criteria of 0.90 (Fornell, & Larcker, 1981).

Table 3: Results of the heterotrait–monotrait Ratio (HTMT) of correlations

	Employability	Job Insecurity	Moderating Effect
Job Insecurity	0.542		
Moderating Effect	0.089	0.149	
Work Engagement	0.652	0.620	0.223

3.5.3 Assessment of the Structural Model

According to Baron and Kenny (1986) (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015) moderation is to “measure and test the differential effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable as a function of the moderator.” As was found using SmartPLS3, job insecurity moderates the direct relationship between employability and work engagement. In our study, we used a basic structural model consisting of work engagement as a dependent variable, employability as an independent variable, and job insecurity as a moderator variable.

The following section will provide the results considering the testing of the hypotheses compared to the main effects. This research applied the partial least squares (PLS) technique by utilizing standard bootstrapping with several 5000 samples and 185 cases to understand and compare the importance of the path values (Baron, & Kenny, 1986). (See Table 4).

Table 4: Structural model assessment with moderation

	Hypothesis	Beta	Mean	Standard Deviation	T-Value	P Values
H1	Employability -> WE	0.355	0.357	0.071	5.021	0.000
H2	JIS -> WE	0.416	0.418	0.065	6.379	0.000
H3	Moderating Effect -> WE	-0.19	-0.181	0.077	2.477	0.013

As shown in Table 5, the highest correlation value is .45 (between perceived employability and work engagement). The symbol “***” indicates significance at the 0.01 level, which is in line with our hypothesis (H1). On other counts, job insecurity denoted a direct negative correlation with perceived employability at -0.34^{**} ($p < 0.01$ level), as was hypothesized (i.e., H2). Meanwhile, the Pearson correlation extraction depicted a significant and negative correlation between job insecurity and work engagement at -0.27^{**} , as was hypothesized (H3).

Table 5: Means, standard deviations, and correlations of variables

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Age	Gender	Education	Tenure	Perceived Employability	Job Insecurity	Work Engagement
Age	1.70	0.79	1						
Gender	0.44	0.48	-0.12	1					
Education	3.44	0.82	0.25**	0.16	1				
Tenure	1.75	0.61	0.38	0.08	-0.11	1			
Perceived Employability	4.02	0.79	0.16	0.29	-0.09	0.11	1		
Job Insecurity	3.25	1.06	0.18	0.36	0.32	0.14	-0.34**	1	
Work Engagement	4.57	1.25	0.16	0.11	-0.29	0.07	0.45**	-0.27**	1

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed Pearson Correlation)

3.5.4 Moderating Effect of Job Insecurity

Job insecurity is introduced as a moderator variable in this research. Job insecurity is assumed to negatively affect the link between employability and work engagement. The findings also show that the higher the influence of job insecurity, the weaker the link between employability and work engagement. Utilizing 5000 samples in the two-step bootstrapping approach with SmartPLS 3, the moderating effect of job insecurity was analyzed (Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016).

Simple slope analysis for understanding the moderation effect was also used in SmartPLS 3. The relationship between employability and work engagement is positive for all three lines, as indicated by their positive slopes in Figure 2. Hence, lower levels of employability are associated with lower levels of work engagement. The line (in blue) that represents a lower level of the moderator (job insecurity) has a flatter slope, while the line (in green) representing a higher level of the moderator has a steeper slope. The simple slope plot shows the negative interaction term: Lower job insecurity levels demand a stronger relationship between employability and work engagement, and vice-versa.



Figure 2: Moderating effect

3.6 Discussion and Conclusion

In this research, we suggested and tested a research model that investigates the effect of perceived employability on organizational well-being, as well as the moderating effect of job insecurity on the relationship between perceived employability and work engagement, via data gathered from employees working in five-star hotels in Northern

Cyprus. All of the relationships proposed in our study were supported by the empirical data. The research findings offer important insights concerning the abovementioned relations.

According to the JD-R model, and assuming that perceived employability is an individual resource, it follows that perceived employability is related to employee well-being. Therefore, according to the results, we established that employability was associated with well-being: Employability was positively related to engagement (H1), that is, an outcome outside the workplace, which suggests that employability may be a powerful predictor.

Still, not much variance could be attributed to employability, possibly because well-being is a fairly broad concept that is predicted by many other variables, or because employability prevents the development of negative experiences, such as unemployment or feelings of being locked in. This idea of employability as a prevention tool does not imply strongly favorable correlates; employability may have the potential to reduce negative feelings rather than to induce positive feelings.

In addition, in our second hypothesis (H2), we argued that perceived employability is negatively associated with job insecurity, which is supported according to our results. Employees are dedicated to the idea of long-term secure employment as a return for human capital investments. Moreover, employees are expected to look for employment security rather than job stability, which means that employees establish employment stability by moving across organizational boundaries and from one job to the next, rather than staying within a single organization or job (Forrier, & Sels, 2003). In this

regard, employment security is conditioned by employees' employability, which is in line with the study from Ngo et al. (2017).

Job insecurity, as a hindrance stressor, impedes the learning of employees and hinders their growth and development (Lazarus, & Folkman, 1984). In such situations, workers have a low degree of dedication to their work. Our finding concerning the influence of job insecurity on work engagement is in line with the findings in the works of (Cuyper et al. , 2008; Hair, Risher, Sarstedt, & Ringle, 2019; De Spiegelaere, Van Gyes, De Witte, Niesen, & Van Hootegem, 2014).

Besides, in comparison with the work of(Cuyper et al. , 2008) , which predicted that job insecurity acts as a mediator between employability and employee well-being, this study focused on job insecurity by hypothesizing it as a moderator. Our empirical findings support our claim, which is a support for our proposed H3 and H4. Our study thus unfolds the different roles performed by perceived employability and job insecurity and also demonstrates the impact of perceived employability on work-related outcomes.

To conclude, employability is a personal resource that has been mostly dealing with different demands, such as job insecurity and work- and life-related variations. According to the literature, perceived employability helps employees deal with workplace uncertainty, which is known as job insecurity (Forrier, & Sels, 2003; Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002), in such a manner that employability increases the sense of being in charge of one's life, which, in turn, decreases the negative consequences of work instability (Fugate et al. , 2004).

Also, it has been discussed by (De Cuyper et al., 2009). that “highly employable workers may perceive a situation that leads to job insecurity as less threatening than less employable workers.” this clarifies that, as a resource, employability is expected to decrease employees’ job insecurity or the fear of not having employment chances, and it has been claimed to provide people with a sense of autonomy and to make them more likely to achieve participation at work (Cuyper et al., 2008).

3.6.1 Managerial Implications

Our study suggests some practical implications for managers. In thinking about a sustainable tourism market environment, job insecurity is a fact, especially in the Northern Cyprus hotel industry. Thus, companies must reduce workers’ perception of job insecurity. When they feel more secure at work, the positive impact of perceived employability on work engagement can be better accomplished, and they will participate more in their jobs.

The management of the hotels should consider all stakeholder groups in the process of decision-making for their organization. In particular, as an important social characteristic of organizational sustainability, job security should be provided to all employees who perform their tasks properly according to the requirements of the organization.

Based on our findings, managers should also seek to facilitate and enhance perceived employability for employees. The value of employability is manifested in developing professional skills and professional involvement and reducing the perception of job insecurity, especially in the tourism industry, which has a delicate and sensitive structure. To enrich employees’ work engagement, the management should support the dedication of workers to their work.

To do this, managers can organize monthly meeting sessions and show appreciation to highly dedicated and successful employees of that month. Meanwhile, they can ask employees to discuss and give their feedback about the factors that trigger their intention to be more engaged and motivated while working. Gathering this information from employees will be helpful for managers to find better solutions for employees to remain devoted and loyal to their work.

3.6.2 Limitations and Further Research

Nevertheless, a set of shortcomings in our research should be noted. Given that little research is accessible on the position of perceived employability in non-Western nations, this analysis strengthens our comprehension in this regard by utilizing samples from Northern Cyprus. It is worth noting that according to our results, employee reactions to perceived employability in terms of work engagement are similar to those of employees in certain Western countries.

Further cross-cultural research will be conducted in such a way as to check the applicability of this paradigm in certain contexts. Second, the cross-section of our research addresses the question of causality. The causal relation between perceived employability and work engagement cannot be readily identified. A longitudinal study that lets researchers assess the causal path and the mutual association between test variables is also desirable.

Moreover, to be able to capture another angle of employability, its influence, and its role, other authors could examine it as a mediator/moderator. Besides, other variables such as emotional intelligence could be implemented as a more acute subjective variable in place of employability. Moreover, since perceived employability can reduce employees' negative feelings, emotions, and consequences, then variables like

burnout, exhaustion, cynicism, or service sabotage can be used as an outcome of perceived employability to display the abovementioned relationship well.

This is to say that the limitations of our model design and survey methods should be side-stepped in future studies. Another shortcoming of this method lies in the use of self-report questionnaires. For instance, the possibilities of common method bias could inflate the results, alter the correlations, or may even be the cause of low loadings, as some items were forced to be dropped along the way. Another study could probably utilize other methods to eliminate bias, like the use of time-lapse-like (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Time interims, or drawing a response from all hotel workers and increasing the number of responses, instead of just the frontline ones, just to avoid selection bias. Again, the use of interviews alongside self-report questionnaires is a fine way to extend the study and obtain more results.

Chapter 4

THE MODERATING ROLE OF EMPLOYABILITY IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: UNDESIRED JOB OUTCOMES

4.1 Tourism in Cameroon

Excerpts from the UNWTO Highlights (2019) showed international tourist arrivals in the Sub-Saharan region of Africa grew from 30.7 million people in 2010 to 43.3 million people in 2018. International tourist arrivals in Cameroon have been on a constant increase since 2006. But Yet, International tourist arrivals in Cameroon increased from just over 900,000 in 2016 to 1.1 million compared to 2017, stated by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2017). Even though this is a positive movement, but according to Tichaawa (2017a) the potential of the tourism sector by the government of Cameroon must be better identified, and the benefits that it could have by developing it sustainably should be evaluated (Harilal et al., 2019).

International tourism receipts stood at USD 524 million in 2017 and of the sub-Saharan region, Cameroon ranked in the 126th position out of the 136th Central African nations likely visited by tourists (UNWTO Tourism Highlights, 2019). The Cameroon government focused on building tourism and establishing the political stability that has been in the country since it got its independence in the 1960s (Richard et al., 2018).

Mary and Ozturen (2019) affirmed that there is little said about the hotel industry of Cameroon. Hence, this study pays some attention. The hospitality industry of Cameroon makes up part of the service sector, among others are telecommunications, trade, and banking. There has been a remarkable growth in overall hotel infrastructure, even though there lie disparities between the hotel infrastructure and the rate of hotel occupancy (Harilal et al, 2019). Also, the hospitality industry and tourism are facing dire challenges because of the diversified nature of the people (bilingualism and over 260 ethnic groups and ethnic languages).

Hotel development is still on the rise and most hotels are in Douala (25% of hotel supply) and Yaoundé (the country's capital city with 17% hotel supply) (hotelnewsnow.com). International branded hotels remain limited and represented by two Accor Hotel assets (over 300 rooms) under Ibis with one single branded 5-star Hilton hotel in Yaoundé. Besides, other significant towns like Kribi and Limbe represent secondary hotel markets and leisure destinations.

The hotel market is yet to undergo any significant change since 2014. At that time average occupancy was at 64%. Hotel growths are ongoing more in Douala and Yaoundé because of the insecurity in the Northern regions and the spread of the "Boko Haram" (Islamic movement) from northern Nigeria. These affect hotel supply in Cameroon while hotel demand comes from national and African tourists. As with the case of most sub-Saharan countries, demand comes more from business customers.

Cameroon was to host the African nation's cup in 2019 but it was canceled, it would have boosted hotel demand. Coupled with the separatist uproar going on in the Anglophone regions, hotel businesses are being affected everywhere in the country

(Richard et al., 2018). Meanwhile, during the era of tourism growth between 2006 and 2017 according to (UNWTO Tourism Highlights, 2019), job opportunities and employment rates increased (Ojong, 2011). Tourism and particularly the hospitality industry are at the frontline of growth and improvement in the country.

4.1.1 Employability in Cameroon Context

The problem of underemployment is persisted; 'underemployment' is a state of people in the labor force being employed at jobs inadequate on their training or economic needs (Merriam Webster, 2020: Ojong, 2011) different from the term 'unemployment'. Also, the country registered a literacy rate of about 72% (UNICEF Statistics, 2014), which means that over half the population are literates and have at least attended secondary education. Though a fair amount of the people in the labor force have jobs, they have jobs below their training and economic needs. Hence, increase underemployment.

Therefore, the underemployment situation affects working conditions negatively (Neneh, 2014). The problem is that majority of the population are literates, with employable abilities, facing underemployment and job insecurity. Therefore, being employable and doing under fit jobs, with a certain level of job uncertainty, is a critical issue in the workplace and needs more attention.

In line with a project applied in a southern African country, Mozambique: here our main aim is to improve the local people's employability by rising the quality and changes in both public and private training in all sectors to respond to the developing and demanding request of the labor market of the tourism sector (Castiglioni et al., 2017).

Given that, in this dynamic business setting, in particular for the tourism and hospitality industry, the key challenge is the need to offer high-quality service to clients, attracting and retaining trained and qualified workers for front-line service employment. (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012).

Accordingly, hospitality managers need to provide their employees with sufficient support and a sense of security so that they will be assured about their current working position and will be encouraged to increase their performance at the workplace. (Arasli et al., 2019). With this realization, Job insecurity has been a top topic of interest among researchers (Chiu & Peng, 2008; Tian et al., 2014; Vander Elst et al., 2014), because it usually has costly consequences for the organizations. (NaderiadibAlpler & Arasli, 2020). Job insecurity, defined as an organizational stressor, may influence counter-productive behaviors (Tian et al, 2014) like service sabotage actions, which could be impertinent to an organization's reputation (Jacobs, 2019).

Some scholars (De Witte, 1999; Tian et al, 2014) have investigated and formed several negative organizational outcomes like counterproductive behaviors of employees which are the result of job insecurity in the organizations. Meanwhile, the outstanding number of studies on job insecurity has been focused more on the Western context (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002) than the African region. Literature from Africa is still very limited (Vander Elst et al., 2013), especially regarding Sub-Saharan Africa. While investigating the outcomes of job insecurity, scholars have tested several buffers as moderators between job insecurity and several different job outcomes (Kang et al., 2012; Tian et al., 2014). For instance, De Cuyper et al. (2009) found out that employability could impede a stronger influence as a moderator for job insecurity and

its negative outcomes. Derived from the human capital theory, employability has the potency to buffer the effect of job insecurity.

This study initiated; therefore, employability as a potential moderator for job insecurity and its outcome. Among the outcomes of job insecurity, service sabotage has not been given real considerations. (Tian et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2012; Berntson et al., 2010; De Witte, 2010; Hellgren et al., 2010; Kinnunen et al., Harris and Ogbana, 2011; 2010; De Cuyper et al., 2009; Silla et al., 2009; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006).

This study thus investigated service sabotage as a potential effect of perceived job insecurity. The topic of service sabotage is predominantly significant in the hospitality industry because the perceived quality of the service is extremely affected by how the service provider acts and speaks with the customer. Service sabotage also damages the organizations' progression and success as it negatively impacts customers' perceptions of service quality, willingness to return, and word of mouth behaviour to others (Lee & Ok, 2014). However, employability can act as a moderator and may have an alleviation effect on the relationship.

Theoretically, this study makes three salient contributions. First of all, it produced a compelling contribution to the literature on Sub-Saharan Africa. Studies on Sub-Saharan Africa, especially with regards to human resource management (Shen et al., 2009) are very limited. Also, it makes a remarkable contribution to employability studies, which handled employability before as a positive inherent resource that buffers negative behavioural outcomes (Silla, et al., 2008).

This piece of work portrays employability as a negative influence, capable of alleviating deviant workplace behaviours like service sabotage (De Cuyper et al., 2009). The frustration-aggression theory is the third outstanding contribution, underlying the above relationship. The frustration-aggression theory was used to explain the work attitudes toward revenge (Dollard et al., 1939) like service sabotage behaviour. This paper explores the effect of job insecurity on service sabotage amidst perceived employability.

Therefore, the main purpose of this paper is to investigate the moderating function of employability between job insecurity and service sabotage of frontline employees. The first aim is to test that job insecurity perception would lead to service sabotage behaviors. Second, this paper aims to affirm the relationship between job insecurity and employability (De Cuyper et al., 2009; Näswall&Sverke, 2010; Silla et al., 2009). Also, another aim is to switch the effect of employability on the service sabotage behavior of frontline employees.

Finally, it is necessary to investigate and respond to the inquiry why frontline employees willing to engage in service sabotage and what would a company do to minimize the impact of service sabotage, in a Sub-Saharan country setting, Cameroon. By understanding frontline employees' motivations to engage in service sabotage, researchers and practitioners can develop guidance organizations may use to avoid or cut service sabotage.

4.2 Hypothesis Development

4.2.1 Job Insecurity and Service Sabotage

Service sabotage is a harmful and undesirable behavior and happens by employees who deliberately destroy or cause damage in the organization; such as slowing down the speed of service, making trouble, showing and transferring their frustration or aggression to customers (Yesiltas & Tuna, 2018; Lee & Ok, 2014). This behavior impedes the relationship between an organization and its customers (Tuna et al., 2016; Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). Yet, just a few papers investigated the sabotage behaviors of customer-interface employees in the hotel industry.

Irrespective of the minuscule researches addressing service sabotage, Harris and Ogbonna (2002, 2006, 2009 & 2012) did some empirical contributions. Contrary to archaic service sabotage literature on manufacturing, these authors regarded the service sabotage behaviors of employees directed towards customers, not just on fellow employees. They made a firm emphasis on the antecedents and consequences of service sabotage, based on extensive surveys that yielded practical implications, opening further doors for future studies.

The service sabotage of employees directed towards customers is very important because employee attitudes influence customer satisfaction (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000) especially the customer-interface or frontline employees (Diaz et al., 2017; Payne & Webber, 2006). Frontline employees are expected to behave according to a set of defined manners to customers (Diaz et al., 2017; Lee & Ok, 2014).

In other words, they are expected to suppress negative feelings and show positive ones to customers (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003) this adds to the complexity of the jobs of

frontline employees to a point where their jobs seemed cumbersome. Yet, they must act along to ensure the success of their organization, all in the bid to retain customers. For these causes, hospitality literature is in dire need of extensive studies on service sabotage. As seen in other papers, the pseudo display of feelings may tantamount to deviant behaviours.

Notwithstanding the number of papers addressing employee's manner of coping with stress (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004) service sabotage has not been given much consideration. Hence, the employee seeks to overcome such organizational stress such as job insecurity by displaying unwanted behaviors. (Bouzari & Karatepe, 2018).

Job Insecurity is perceived as perceiving a difference between the desired employment situation of the individual and his or her actual situation. Job insecurity can have negative consequences on the outcome of the organizations (Lee & Ok, 2014). Job insecurity is not very pleasant to individuals because it is an expectation of an unintentional change in employment. In this situation, the employee is likely to feel annoyed about this change and displaying this anger by addressing psychological effects, as discussed in the literature (Rousseau, 1995).

Therefore, we believe that Job insecurity is a primary and persistent organizational stressor. According to Richter et al. (2013), identifying outcomes of job insecurity is pretty essential because the management would be able to prevent negative consequences or at least apply certain measures to impede the negative outburst. Employees who have perceived job insecurity feel that their psychological needs (Vander Elst et al., 2012) are going to be frustrated. Meaning that, what they relied on to maintain their growth, health and integrity will abruptly end. As some scholars

discussed it (Elst et al., 2012) lack of needs frustration would yield poor work-related outcomes and well-being.

The particular concept of job insecurity produces insecurity about the future, meaning that the employees who are working in an organization at the moment do not know if they will be retained in their jobs or if they will be facing downsizing (Karatepe & Vatankhah, 2014). Also, according to many researchers, Job insecurity is related to a low level of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and undesirable behaviours and the relationship between job insecurity and unfavourable outcomes is common among permanent staff (Bouzari & Karatepe, 2018; Chambel & Fontinha, 2009; De Cuyper et al, 2009). Considering critical and unfavourable outcomes related to job insecurity, we have stressed the relationship between job insecurity and service sabotage in this particular article. Therefore, we hypothesized that;

- **H1:** Job insecurity is positively related to the service sabotage behaviours of frontline employees.

4.2.2 Job Insecurity and Employability

The concept of employability was first used at the beginning of the twentieth century. Based on the dichotomy between “employable” people (capable and willing and/or needing to work) versus “unemployable” individuals (unable to work and who needed help). An economic conception of employability was then developed”. (Guilbert et al., 2016 P.71).

According to (Bozionelos et al., 2016; DE Cuyper et al., 2010; Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Berntson et al., 2006) employability is the employee's perception of his or her capacity to achieve a new job. It is also about improving individuals' ability to find and

take advantage of job and career possibilities within or outside the current workplace setting.

Besides, employability is associated with perceptions of job insecurity, which is a major key component in organizational psychology and the labor market. Currently, according to the literature perceived employability helps workers to deal with job insecurity (Forrier & Sels, 2003; Sverke et al., 2002). In a way that employability stimulates the sense of being in influence of one's working life (Fugate et al., 2004), which reduces the destructive impact of job insecurity, in return.

This point of view rises visions from researches done by (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) on the Job Demands-Resources Model). Job demands talk about the features of the job that employees perceive them oppressive; such as job insecurity and Job resources bring together aspects that stimulate individual cognitive development characteristics that can trigger employability to higher levels.

Job resources are “considered functional in achieving work goals, but also in reducing the health-impairing impact of job demands” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). One of the potential antecedents of job insecurity in many pieces of research has always been Employability (Berntson et al., 2007; Forrier & Sels, 2003; Sverke et al., 2002). High-employable workers were compared to low-employable workers in one research were much less prone to undergo job insecurity.

According to Schaufeli (1992), Less-educated workers are expected to encounter job insecurity more than educated workers. Therefore, we believe that the educational level can be representative of employability (Elman & O'Rand, 2002; Forrier & Sels,

2003). Similarly, Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1993) suggests the same predictions as such; those high-employable workers with a "strong labor market position", expect an earlier return on their investments; for instance, an increase in their salary level. Employee judgments may be evaluated for non-financial reasons, such as the reduction in job insecurity (Brown et al., 2003; Marler et al., 2002).

It concludes that employees are committed to the idea of long-term secure employment as investing in human capital. They argued that highly employable laborers are prone to undergo less job insecurity. While, studies have argued that employability may reduce the likely adverse consequences of job insecurity (Naderiadib Alpler & Arasli, 2020). Therefore, it is hypothesized that;

- **H2:** Job insecurity is negatively associated with employability.

4.2.3 The Moderating Role of Employability

As Frustration-Aggression hypotheses purported by John Dollard since 1939 (Dollard et al., 1939) and were further improved by Leonard Berkowitz in 1969 (Berkowitz, 1989), frustration illustratively does not always occur in a thwarted possibility of goal achievement but also threatens accessibility to reinforcement (Johan, 2007; Van Der Dennen, 2005). Also, Merriam Webster (2016) described aggression as hostile, destructive, and deviant behaviour (expressing anger). Dollard et al (1939), alleged that frustration begets aggression and if the cause of the frustration is not checked, the frustration would be extended unto a scapegoat.

In other words, individuals who feel frustrated either because they can't get a salary raise, promotion or, fear of losing their job, where they are unable to channel their aggression on their supervisor, manager or, organization, take out their aggression on third parties (family or customers). Perhaps, an established situation of perceived job

insecurity would lead to frustration and directed aggression or anger through revengeful actions like service sabotage.

However, employees who resort to adverse workplace behaviours, as a result of job insecurity appraisal might be redeemed. The human capital theory set forth claims that employees with a high level of perceived employability hold a strong position in the labour market (Cuyper, N. et al., 2008). This may indicate that they may be less likely to be influenced by job insecurity.

This acclamation, ties with the argument put forward in this study, indicating that high levelled employability perceived frontline employees; inhibit sufficient human capital to withstand uncertainty in the work environment. In sum, high-leveled employability would mitigate service sabotage behaviors. This study asserts thus, that employability has the potential to break the negative effect of job insecurity. This opinion was supported by most scholars like; Silla, Gracia, Peiro', and De Witte (2008).

This study hypothesized that;

- **H3:** Employability is negatively affiliated with the service sabotage behaviours of frontline employees.
- **H4:** Employability buffers the association between job insecurity and service sabotage behaviours of frontline employees; such that when employability is high, the positive affiliation of job insecurity to service sabotage behaviours of frontline employee reduces and, when employability is low, the positive affiliation of job insecurity to service sabotage behaviours of frontline employee increases. The proposed framework demonstrating the hypothesized relationships can be seen in Figure 3.

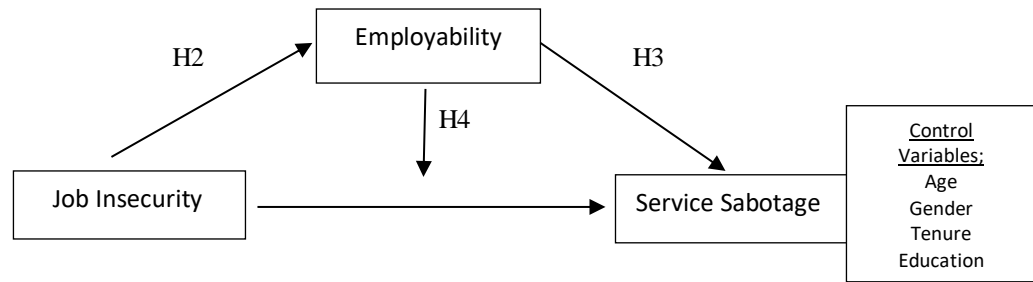


Figure 3: Hypothesized model

4.3 Method

4.3.1 Sample and Procedure

Applying the judgmental sampling technique, the sample for the pilot study consisted of several full-time hotel employees who worked in the frontline departments (for instance; the receptionist, concierge, food service people and, room service workers) of the three and four-star hotels, located in Douala and Yaoundé (Arasli et al., 2014).

Tourism in Cameroon is related to the distinctiveness as well as the uniqueness of its natural conditions like in any other developing sub-Saharan African countries (Ankomah & Crompton, 1990). The capital city of the country is Yaoundé and the economic capital city of the country is Douala. The official languages in Cameroon are English and French. Moreover, although the government has good targets to have tourism and hospitality as a revenue-generating industry, the tourism and hospitality industry is still in its initial stages. And most of the service industries of Cameroon are lacking local skilled managerial and non-managerial human resources (Atiatie, personal communication, June 17, 2009).

At the time of our study, there was only one 5-star hotel in Yaoundé, two 4 star hotels in Douala, and thirteen three-star hotels in Yaoundé and Douala towns (MINTOUR,

2017). Lately, the Cameroon government has started to give special care to tourism issues in the country for achieving better economic growth soon (Wanie, 2014).

One of the objectives of the government through the Ministry of Tourism (MINTOUR) is to closely supervise the development and growth of hotels. Therefore, as a sample, the present study observed. According to the result of the pilot study conducted with 15 employees, the questionnaire was found appropriate for data collection. About 450 self-administered questionnaires were distributed by the researchers to the frontline employees after permission was obtained from the hotel's management. Also, an accompanying letter clearly stating the purpose of the survey and the assurance of anonymity of the respondent's profile was attached in front of the copies of every questionnaire. The respondents were also informed that after filling the survey they can place it in a box available at the reception desk.

Out of 450 copies distributed, we received 413 questionnaires, within a two-week time-lapse, for the respondents to fill the questionnaires. In this period the researchers visited the hotels two times and kindly reminded employees to fill up the questionnaires. This gave a remarkable response rate of 85%. Thirty-two questionnaires were rejected, as a result of missing data, therefore 381 questionnaires were usable for further analyses.

4.3.2 Respondent's Profile

Concerning demographic details of respondents, the gender of 72 percent of the total 381 respondents were men whereas the rest 28 percent were women. Most of them were grownups between the age of 25 and 45, and just about 6 percent of them were among elderly contributors. Moreover, 47 percent of the participants were holding

high school diplomas, and 25 percent of university education, the rest had either a primary school or a secondary school certificate.

Looking at the tenure of the employees 25 percent have worked in the same organization between 2 to 4 years and the other 35 percent have been there between 5 to 7 years. Besides, almost 28 percent of the 381 respondents have been working in the same organization for 11 years and beyond, 12 percent of them are working for one year or less than a year. According to the above profile, 188 employees were from 3-star hotels and 193 employees were workers in 4-star hotels in Cameroon. The research team could not get permission to research the 5-star hotel in Yaoundé.

4.4 Measurement

A 20 item survey instrument was used to measure the three abovementioned dimensions (Job Insecurity, Employability, Service Sabotage) together with control variables (age, gender, tenure, and education). Four items measuring employability came from DeCuyper et al., (2008) study. Job insecurity was measured by seven items from Hellgren and Sverke (2003).

And finally, the Service sabotage dimension was tested by using nine items from Harris and Ogbonna (2006). All of the items were modified into the five-point Likert-scale format (where 1= “strongly disagree”, 2= “disagree”, 3= “neutral/not sure”, 4= “agree” and 5= “strongly agree”). As suggested by (McGorry, 2000), the survey questionnaire was written in English then translated into French, and later again back to English to gain precision (Wang, Tsai, & Tsai, 2014). Back to back-translation was to ease data collection in Cameroon, whereby French and English were both official languages of the nation.

4.4.1 Data Analysis

All study constructs were bound to a series of EFA and CFA for clearing issues of convergent and discriminant validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). To test the study variables, a hierarchical regression analysis was used. In step 1, demographic variables were entered, and then in steps 2 and 3 job insecurity and employability both were added to predict service sabotage behavior. As suggested by several researchers, the study uses Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach for testing moderation effects as a guide (Harrington and Kendall, 2006). Therefore, all predicting variables were centred and multiplied (i.e. employability*job insecurity) in step 4.

4.4.2 Measurement Model

The measurement model was tested in terms of convergent and discriminant validity and composite reliability using confirmatory factor analysis. To test the study variables, a hierarchical regression analysis was applied and supported the research hypotheses.

The study also used Harman's single factor test, the aim was to see if a single factor accounts for more than half (50%) of the variance, which might be problematic according to Podsakoff et al., (2003), as it is an indicative presence of common method variance. Since no single component of the constructs accounted for half of the variance, the issue of common method bias was eliminated. Also, the variables with really high correlations should be exempted because they also indicate the presence of common method bias (Bagozzi et al., 1991). In the present study, further evidence of highly correlated variables was absent (See Table 2).

For model fit, the basic test for reliability, discriminant, and convergent validity was conducted. Following the pieces of advice of Fornell and Larcker (1981) for reliability,

the items have been tested for internal consistency where the composite measures in the analysis were above the expected cut-off level of .70. The questionnaire items were compressed under their respective constructs to obtain the composite scores for each construct. According to the measurements, the correlation coefficients of all the constructs did not surpass the cut-off point of .90. This would have implied that any coefficient above .90 meant that distinct variables had failed to represent distinct constructs (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

4.5 Results

4.5.1 Measurement Results and Descriptive Statistics

The principal component with varimax rotation was operated to test if the constructs exhibit distinct nature in such a way that the construct's loading is more than .50 cut off value or loaded to the expected construct. According to the EFA, results revealed that one item (q1) "I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to" and (q3) "I feel uneasy about losing my job soon" from job insecurity (JI) loaded on more than one construct. Also, q1 of the same construct standard loading estimates was less than the cut-off value.

Therefore, both items (q4 and q5) of job insecurity were dropped and removed from the following analysis. The final results of the EFA provided a three-factor solution with Eigenvalues greater than 1.0 accounting for 62% of the variance. Factor loadings ranged from .491 to .900 which depicted that all items except the two questions abovementioned, loaded clearly on their underlying constructs.

It has been conducted a series of CFAs using Amos to investigate the goodness-of-fit of the proposed model, chi-square, goodness-of-fit indices (GFI), Normed Fit Index

(NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and χ^2 estimate test (CMIN/DF) were used to evaluate the model. ($\chi^2=311.9$, $df=123$, $p=.000$), (GFI = .90, 1 = maximum fit), (NFI = .86, 1 = maximum fit), (CFI = .91, 1 = maximum fit), (RMSEA = .068, values < .08 indicating good fit), (CMIN/DF = 2.5, values >1 and < 3 are accepted).

Hence, the three-item model fit is reasonable and acceptable as suggested by (Wheaton et al., 1977; Bentler and Bonett, 1980; Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1984; Tanaka and Huba, 1985; Bollen, 1989a; Bollen, 1989b). All observed indicators loaded significantly on their latent variables. That is all t values were greater than 2.0. Model fit statistics, as well as the significant factor loadings, provided evidence for convergent validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The reliability of the construct items was measured by Cronbach's alphas that were above the cut-off point of .70 (Hair et al., 1998) and composite reliability (CR) ranged from .73 to .97, average variance extract (AVE) was above the cut-off level of .50 (Hair et al., 1998). The result also suggested evidence of discriminant validity. As illustrated in table 6.

Table 6: Factor loadings and rotated component matrix

	Components	1	2	3	AVE	CR	Alpha
Ss1	People here take revenge on rude customers.	.793					
Ss2	People here hurry customers when they want to.	.819					
Ss3	It is common practice in this industry to “get back” at customers.	.808					
Ss4	People here ignore company service rules to make things easier for themselves.	.794					
Ss5	Sometimes, people here “get at customers” to make the rest of us laugh.	.740					
Ss6	People here never show off in front of customers. (R)	.776					
Ss7	Sometimes, when customers aren’t looking, people here deliberately mess things up.	.789					
Ss8	At this outlet, customers are never deliberately mistreated. (R)	.734					
Ss9	People here slow down service when they want to.	.745			.575	.829	.72
Ji2	There is a risk that I will have to leave my present job		.627				
Ji4	My future career opportunities in [the organization] are favorable (R)		.600				
Ji5	I feel that [the organization] can provide me with stimulating job content in the near future (R)		.597				
Ji6	I believe that [the organization] will need my competence also in the future (R)		.575				
Ji7	My pay development in this organization is promising (R)		.572		.567	.821	.81
Emp1	I am optimistic that I would find another job if I looked for one.			.900			
Emp2	I am confident that I could quickly get a similar job.			.856			
Emp3	I will easily find another job if I lose this job.			.807			
Emp4	I could easily switch to another employer if I wanted to			.815		.910	.90
					.717		

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

.a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 7: Pearson correlations

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Service Sabotage (Ss)	Job Insecurity (Ji)	Employability (Emp)	Age	Gender	Tenure	Education
Service Sabotage (Ss)	3.11	0.66	1						
Job Insecurity (Ji)	3.46	0.63	0.21**	1					
Employability (Emp)	2.79	1.19	0.34**	-0.14*	1				
Age	1.96	0.77	0.05	-0.02	-0.19**	1			
Gender	1.27	0.44	0.013	0.014	0.28**	-	1		
Tenure	1.87	0.65	0.012	0.92	0.88	0.02	0.65	1	
Education	2.36	0.58	0.78	0.46	0.20**	0.72	0.59	0.36	1
0.43									

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed Pearson Correlation).

As seen in Table 7, gender permeates a significant and positive impact on employability .28** ($p < 0.01$ level). Employability also correlated against age, negatively with -.19** at 0.01 level. This means that as age goes up, the lower the employability felt or vice versa. Also concerning the male employees perceive themselves as more employable than females. Besides the educational background also showed a positive and significant relation with employability, indicating how important and influential it is when selecting people to fit in their positions. Entirely employability and service sabotage .34** display the highest correlation value which is significant at the 0.01 level. On the other hand, concerning job insecurity and service sabotage, a direct positive correlation at .21** ($p < 0.01$ level) is notable as it was hypothesized (H1). Moreover, there is a significant and negative correlation between job insecurity and employability at -0.14 is (ns).

Though, a stronger and positive significant relationship existed between employability and service sabotage, .34** ($p < 0.01$ level) which is contrary to the assumption given in H3.

Table 8: Hierarchical multiple regression results: Employability as a moderation in the relationship between job insecurity and service sabotage

	Service Sabotage			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
	β			
<i>Variables</i>				
<i>Control Variables</i>				
Age	.057	.063	.131	.129
Gender	.135	.168*	.068	.067
Tenure	.068	.122	.28	.94
Education	0.77	.96	.111	.63
<i>Independent Variable</i>				
Job Insecurity		.237**	.239**	.238**
Employability			.357**	.360**
<i>Moderator</i>				
Employability x Job Insecurity				.16*
<i>F</i> -statistic	1.926	4.861*	10.221**	8.143**
R^2 at each step	.021	.076	.189	.189
ΔR^2		.055	.113	.000

Notes: Age, gender, tenure, and education are measured as control variables.

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Correlations that are not represented with an asterisk are insignificant. *F*-Statistics, R^2 and ΔR^2 represented at four steps (steps 1, 2, 3, and 4). Service sabotage is the dependent variable and constant. Employability and job insecurity are independent variables.

As it is displayed in Table 8, the analysis of the multiple regressions with service sabotage being the dependent variable and job insecurity and employability being the independent variables depicted the following results. For the direct effects results, age and gender denoted no significant influence in step one, but in step two with the inclusion of job insecurity to the equation, there happened a positive and significant effect by gender ($\beta = 0.168$, $p < 0.05$) on service sabotage. This means that male employees have a mere tendency to exert service sabotage behavior.

Furthermore, the results showed that job insecurity denoted a significant and positive effect on service sabotage in step two ($\beta=0.237$, $p<0.01$) and in step three, just after employability was added into the equation ($\beta=0.239$, $p<0.01$).

It could be interpreted that job insecurity perception would trigger service sabotage behaviors of frontline employees in Cameroon, supporting the first hypothesis. Based on the aggression-frustration theory, frustration causes aggression, especially when the frustration is caused by failure to achieve an objective or goal. One could posit that perceived job insecurity would cause service sabotage behaviors. Whereby, the customer or co-workers might just be a scapegoat. That is, as time goes on FLE's may direct their thoughts and efforts negatively, due to having an insecure and irresponsible environment and may start to perceive themselves as undervalued and may try to take a kind of revenge from their institution, by exerting service sabotage behaviors.

On the other hand, employability indicated a positive and significant relationship with service sabotage ($\beta=0.357$, $p<0.01$). This result is very rarely seen in the literature and may not conform to the presumed hypothesis (H3), but it affirms the statement that there could be a “dark side” to employability (De Cuyper et al., 2009).

So far, the analysis revealed that employability moderated the effect of job insecurity on service sabotage behaviors of customer contact employees working in the three and four-star hotels in Cameroon. The moderating influence was indicative ($\beta=0.16$). Yet, the moderated result did not fall in line with the suggested hypothesis H4; it was presumed that employability would buffer the influence of job insecurity on service sabotage, such that when employability is higher, the effect of job insecurity would

get lower on service sabotage and similarly if employability is lower, the effect of job insecurity would increase on service sabotage.

However, employability significantly and positively relates to service sabotage when entered into the equation ($\beta=0.357, p<0.01$) and it increased ($\beta=0.360, p<0.01$) even as with the moderation at step four. Noteworthy, the value of job insecurity did not lessen with the influence of employability as it was hypothesized, rather it remained almost the same ($\beta=0.238, p<0.01$).

4.5.2 Moderating Effect of Job Insecurity

Employability is introduced as a moderator variable in this research. It is assumed to positively affect the link between job insecurity and service sabotage. Simple slope analysis for understanding the moderation effect was also used via regression analysis. We were expecting employability buffer the influence of job insecurity on service sabotage, such that when employability is higher, the effect of job insecurity would get lower on service sabotage and similarly if employability is lower, the effect of job insecurity would increase on service sabotage.

However, interestingly it seemed that as employability increased, job insecurity's effect on service sabotage remained high. Meaning that frontline employees with a high level of employability are prone to service sabotage, as they perceived job insecurity, displayed in figure 4. Interestingly, this finding can be likened to that of De Cuyper et al. (2009) who tested the moderating effect of employability between job insecurity and workplace bullying, the outcome was similar to this finding, supporting that under a high level of employability the bond between job insecurity and workplace bullying is stronger.

Though unlikely, it seemed that as employability increased, job insecurity's effect on service sabotage remained high. Meaning that frontline employees with a high level of employability are prone to service sabotage, as they perceived job insecurity.

Interestingly, this finding can be likened to that of De Cuyper et al. (2009) who tested the moderating effect of employability between job insecurity and workplace bullying, the outcome was similar to this finding, supporting that under a high level of employability the bond between job insecurity and workplace bullying is stronger.

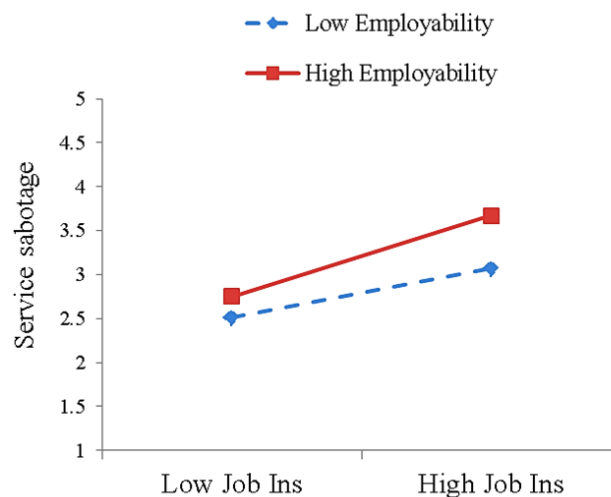


Figure 4: Simple slope results

4.6 Discussion and Conclusion

4.6.1 Summary of the Findings

Integrating frustration-aggression theory, and human capital theory, this study proposes and tests a conceptual model to investigate how job insecurity results in service sabotage with the moderating effect of employability. Data obtained from full-time Frontline employees of 3 and 4-star hotels in Cameroon was used to assess this relationship. The following result supports our conceptual model and goes thus:

As concern job insecurity and service sabotage, we expected a positive relationship between them. Job insecurity (organizational stressors) and service sabotage (a negative organizational outcome). Based on the aggression-frustration theory, suggests that frustration causes aggression, especially when the frustration is caused by failure to meet an objective or goal. One could posit that perceived job insecurity would cause service sabotage behaviors, especially in countries like Cameroon where the job opportunities are not enough, even for the available jobs the job security level is low as well as, for employable workers.

Therefore the risk of service sabotage behaviors by employees is higher. Our results were supported and are also in line with earlier findings in the field of job insecurity (Silla, 2009; Berntson & Sverke, 2010; De Cuyper et al, .2009; Kang et al, .2012; Tian et al, .2014; Southey & Southey, 2016). Therefore, our hypothesis H1 was supported.

Concerning perceived employability, we hypothesized that it would be negatively associated with job insecurity, H2, and employees' sabotage behavior H3. Since employability is one of the strongest aspects of the human resource dimension, it was expected to decline the frontline employees' perception of job insecurity, and reduce the negative organizational outcomes (service sabotage) as supported by previous studies; (De Cuyper, 2008; De Cuyper et al., 2009; Kang et al., 2012; Jawaid Kalyal et al., 2010; Silla, 2009). Highly employable workers feel more secure since they can choose the most secure jobs out of many possible options as confirmed by (Human Capital Theory).

It was predicted for job insecurity and employability relations become negative and significant. While the correlation between employability and service sabotage was positive and significant, this result was in line with H2 and contradicting the hypothesized claim H3. The fact remained that perceived employability has the potency to trigger service sabotage as mentioned; but in some cases, we may witness exceptions and find it having a buffering than a triggering effect (De Cuyper et al., 2009).

Furthermore, under a high level of employability, the association between job insecurity and service sabotage is remarkably stronger. Again, it supports the statement by De Cuyper et al. (2009), who believed that employees can sometimes experience the "dark side" of employability. To test this through our hypothesized relationships, we believed that the interface between two variables of job insecurity and perceived employability will contribute to explaining employees' service sabotage behaviors. Hence, it will act as a buffer to reduce the positive relationship between job insecurity and service sabotage.

Nevertheless, according to the results, we found that hypothesis H4 cannot be supported. In contrast, the relationship between our study dimensions was stronger after we include the interaction between job insecurity and employability. Thus, the association between job insecurity and service sabotage was stronger when the employability level was high rather than when it was low .which is the most noteworthy contribution of this research. This contrary result is in line with the one from (De Cuyper et al., 2009) who proved that employability might not always act as a buffer in reducing negative organizational outcomes, but it can sometimes assist it to grow.

Regarding what we identified from perceived employability in the literature, this result appears differently. According to the common belief, perceived employability is a personal resource to help workers to manage job insecurity, successfully (Forrier & Sels, 2003; Silla et al., 2009). Yet, in some settings, it could be like a tool to stimulate negative outcomes, as given by De Cuyper et al. (2009), about the effect of employability on workplace bullying. In this example, employability is active but at the same time, an ineffective coping tool.

In summary, our results suggest that there might be a different sort of unproductive employability and it may not be a good moderator for our hypothesized relationship and not a useful tool for employees who are under stress and at risk of job insecurity.

4.6.2 Theoretical Contribution

This study has discussed and related two distinct research areas. The first area is related to job insecurity and has concerned the opinion that job insecurity is extremely spreadable inside an organization and it might also extend across the industry, or even sometimes inside a district or a country (Tian et al., 2014). In the case of Cameroon, there seemed to be a high level of job insecurity, especially in the tourism and hospitality industry. While investigating the literature, examples like; counterproductive work behavior, discretionary extra-role and impression management behaviors, workplace bullying, and psychological distress regarding negative impacts of job insecurity on the organization are available (Tian et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2012; De Cuyper et al., 2009; Silla et al., 2009).

The abovementioned examples are against the interests of an organization and can harm organizational climate including human resources and external customers. In our

research, we have tested service sabotage as a negative outcome for job insecurity which is not too far from these examples and is one of the most serious ones.

Moreover, Job insecurity also disturbs employees who feel that their jobs are at risk. Employees who experience job insecurity voluntarily or involuntarily feel that the establishment does care only about its resources and benefits responsible for their pain, the employee may direct his/her mental and physical effort to take revenge (Kinnunen et al., 2000). This result improves job insecurity as one of the most important antecedents to employee service sabotage behavior in the organization.

As mentioned before, employability is evaluated as a personal resource, mostly dealing with different demands, for instance, job insecurity and work-life-related variations. Therefore, Our second contribution to the literature was to find out that if perceived employability can be tested as the moderator of the relationship between job insecurity and service sabotage. It has also been discussed by (De Cuyper et al., 2009) that "highly employable workers may perceive a situation that leads to job insecurity as less threatening than less employable workers".

This is in line with the theory of human capital (Becker, 1993), in which employability as a resource is expected to reduce the job insecurity of employees or even the fear of not having a job chance. though employability influenced the effect of job insecurity on service sabotage, yet the correlation between job insecurity and employability came out as non-significant.

Therefore, according to our results and the above statement, it is suggested that there may be a different sort of employability that can be active but at the same time

ineffective (De Cuyper et al, .2009). There is much valuable information in the literature and past researches related to these kinds of coping tools (Baillien et al.2009). However, the number of studies that have taken this specific issue of employability into account is rare. We hereby declare our study's main contribution regarding this particular type of employability "Dark Side of employability" in the domain of job insecurity and service sabotage literature.

4.6.3 Practical Implication

The outcome of the present research set forth implications for organizational practitioners. Coupled with outstanding literature (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002, 2006, 2009 & 2012; Tung et al., 2013) it was found that hospitality employees used various techniques to lash against the organization when they feel threatened by insecurity at their job sides. They resort to sabotage their organization by displaying deviant behaviors like service sabotage. For such outrageous behavior is seen to be costly to the organization. (Karatepe & Ngeche,2012).

Hospitality practitioners could implore breaching techniques to check on service sabotage behaviors. It could be made in such a way that the employee who is guilty of such deviant actions, to be subjected to reparation consequences. Like an awareness reprimand during orientations or training sessions, on such actions. Or to stipulate in worse cases, fines (Harris & Daunt, 2011) on the perpetrator. It could be similar to the pre-action taken by public authorities against deviant and socially harmful behaviors like abuse and smoking.

Also, frontline employees attempt to down-play work stress as a result of perceived job insecurity, to obtain job control (Ogbonna & Wilkinson, 2003) by victimizing third parties like the guests. Demonstrated service sabotage includes trouble making and

retarding service processes just to get back at management. The bone of contention here is that practitioners are not aware of the reasons behind these actions as researchers have proven to a certain extent. Therefore, it is salient for hospitality practitioners to investigate the reason behind service sabotages from employees. They should attempt to know if the employees are faced with job insecurity stresses or other causes, especially if there have been increasing complaints of employee misdemeanor (Kao et al., 2014).

Furthermore, it has been known that employees would show negative job behaviors and obstructs performance in response to job insecurity (Reisel et al., 2007). So, for a diminished job insecurity perception, managers could aid frontline employees to develop a career route.

The training and development for an actual career and job support counseling (Kang, Gold & Kim, 2012) would give assurance for employment chances. This is in retrospect to the found positive relationship between job insecurity and service sabotage. Managers can also propose jobs with a maximum level of security to recruit and retain highly talented employees because these employees can easily look for alternative job opportunities in case of unacceptable working conditions.

However, unlike several studies (Berntson & Naswall, 2010; Kang, Gold & Kim, 2012; Silla et al., 2009) perceived employability failed to curb service misbehaviors. Yet the finding seemed like De Cuyper et al. (2009) who found out that bullying in the workplace increased under a high level of employability, contrary to their hypothesis. As seen in this research, the higher the employability, the higher the service sabotage amid the job insecurity. Therefore, the solution for managers in Cameroon would be

to critically restructure training programs to include ethics in its very core. Thereby, carefully posing a special style of leadership, like spiritual leadership may work a long way to curb the excesses of employability and the sought-for revenge or transfer aggression.

4.6.4 Limitations and Future Research

Verily, this study had several limitations that could not be overemphasized. The constraint placed by the study method greatly affected the analyses and findings obtained. Future researchers should apply a more viral method for data collection and analysis in such a way that it would capture and bring extensive results. Though the findings drew upon remarkable facts in employability only purported by a few studies before (De Cuyper et al., 2009), other works could implore longitudinal frames. This could give more insight into our understanding of the role of employability on service sabotage. Maybe, an additional insertion of more control variables demographics could bring better comprehension of this fact.

The use of self-report questionnaires is one of the main shortcomings of the method used. An important factor here is common method bias/variance that could change or even increase the correlations or could be the reason for dropping some items because of low loadings. Probably other studies can use different ways to decrease bias.

To give some examples, the number of responses can be increased and selected from all hotel workers, instead of only the frontline ones. This will avoid the possibility of selection bias. Besides, applying different data collection tools like interviews along with questionnaires is suggested since mixed methods can improve the validity of the study (Tashakkori et al., 2020).

Taking into consideration that Cameroon is a renowned country blessed with unlimited natural resources, yet there exists just a single five-star hotel in the country (which was not even included in the data collection), gave this research a particular limitation. Future researchers should maximize data collection by collecting data from the only 5-star hotel as well. Apart from those, the study could be blamed for geographical limitations. In the future, researchers should attempt to overcome geographical boundaries and do a comparative study between two regions like Cameroon and Nigeria. This would indeed give room for powerful results and actual practical implications for the nations, the industry, and the managers.

The model in this study impeded a shortcoming to the findings and implications to a certain extent. Maybe if this study had implemented employability as a latent variable with all its characteristics (adaptability, social and human capital, and career identity) (McArdle et al., 2007) separately, the outcome would have yielded differently.

In this case, the next studies should attempt to test employability with all its three dimensions and observe the change for more practical implications. Or other researchers can consider the mediating effect of employability instead of the moderation effect, this will help them to identify a new perspective of its impact. Moreover, positioning other subjective variables instead of employability (for instance; emotional intelligence) to the model is also suggested. Thus, alternative model design and survey methods should be considered in future studies.

Furthermore, the condition for collecting data in sub-Saharan Africa placed this research in a tight spot (Kimbu, 2011). First of all, the fact that the country Cameroon is bilingual made it difficult for the researchers to be able to decide which of the

employees Francophone are and which of them are Anglophones. Distributing self-report questionnaires was a difficult process because it was costly and time-consuming. This leaves a very important challenge for future scholars, willing to research sub-Saharan and Cameroon. But, the challenge is worth under-taken because it would yield a better result in the future if by-passed.

4.6.5 Concluding Remarks

This study has contributed to exploring the relationship between job insecurity as perceived by frontline employees and service sabotage, moderated by employability in the special context of Cameroon. Indeed, it has affirmed the negative consequences of job insecurity propounded by plural studies. Also, the immense effort to enrich the employability literature by this work cannot be underestimated.

Conclusively, job insecurity causes personal stress that influences negative individual reactions that are inflated by personal resources like employability (which appeared differently on the association between job insecurity and service sabotage). A possible explanation of why employability did not buffer but enhanced the effect of job insecurity on service sabotage is that employees, especially frontline employees are highly affected by job security (Silla et al., 2009). Issues were due to their percentage of misusing of their resources by the management, it could be said that in the face of job insecurity, other resources fade.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

In this thesis, perceived employability has been investigated via two distinct studies in the hospitality industry. The first empirical study aims to design and test a research model that investigates the effect of job insecurity as a moderator of the relationships between perceived employability and employee well-being (work engagement).

However, the second empirical study aims to design and test a research model that investigates employability as a moderator of the relationships between job insecurity (JI) and service sabotage (SS). Therefore, the concept of employability has been tested in two different positions, first as an independent variable affecting the outcome of organizations positively and second, as a moderator to buffer the negative effect of job insecurity on negative organizational outcome. Accordingly, different findings and results of each study together with theoretical and managerial implications has been discussed and provided separately.

To conclude, employability is a personal resource that has been mostly dealing with different demands, such as job insecurity and work- and life-related variations. According to the literature, perceived employability helps employees deal with workplace uncertainty, which is known as job insecurity (Forrier, & Sels, 2003; Sverke et al. , 2002). in such a manner that employability increases the sense of being in charge of one's life, which, in turn, decreases the negative consequences of work instability

(Fugate et al. , 2004). Also, it is has been discussed by (De Cuyper et al. , 2009) that “highly employable workers may perceive a situation that leads to job insecurity as less threatening than less employable workers.” this clarifies that, as a resource, employability is expected to decrease employees’ job insecurity or the fear of not having employment chances, and it has been claimed to provide people with a sense of autonomy and to make them more likely to achieve participation at work (Cuyper et al. , 2008) . On the other hand, when acted as a moderator between a positive relationships, it was expected to control the service misbehaviours of frontline employees, yet it presented a very rare result according to the literature and affirms the statement that there could be a “dark side” to employability (De Cuyper et al., 2009).A possible explanation of why employability did not buffer but enhanced the effect of job insecurity on service sabotage is that employees, especially frontline employees are highly affected by job security (percentage of misusing of their resources by the management, it could be said that in the face of job insecurity, other resources fade. In summary, our results suggest that there might be a different sort of unproductive employability and it may not be a suitable moderator for our hypothesized relationship and not a useful tool for employees who are under stress and at risk of job insecurity.

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APPENDIX

Research Instruments

A Field Study in the Hotel Industry in Northern Cyprus

Dear respondent,

This study is aimed at researching the work experiences of employees (who have intensive one-to-one communication with guests) operating in five-star hotels in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Therefore, we kindly request that you self-administer this questionnaire.

The data obtained as the result of the research will be kept completely confidential. You will not be asked about your identity anyway. Thank you very much for taking the time and participating in the research.

If you have any questions about this research and/or questionnaire, do not hesitate to contact Mrs.Nazanin Naderiadib Alpler through her e-mail address:

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Thank you for your kind cooperation.

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Via Mersin 10, Turkey

Part I.

On a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 being the completely disagree and 1 being completely agree, (please circle the appropriate number for each item)

1. Completely disagree
2. Disagree
3. Neutral /Not sure
4. Agree
5. Completely agree

1. I am optimistic that I would find another job, if I looked for one.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am confident that I could quickly get a similar job	1	2	3	4	5
3. I will easily find another job if I lose this job.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I could easily switch to another employer, if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5

1. I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to	1	2	3	4	5
2. There is a risk that I will have to leave my present job	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel uneasy about losing my job in the near future	1	2	3	4	5
4. My future career opportunities in [the organization] are favorable (R)	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel that [the organization] can provide me with stimulating job content in the near future (R)	1	2	3	4	5
6. I believe that [the organization] will need my competence also in the future (R)	1	2	3	4	5
7. My pay development in this organization is promising (R)	1	2	3	4	5

A Field Study in the Hotel Industry in Northern Cyprus

Dear respondent,

This study is aimed at researching the work experiences of employees (who have intensive one-to-one communication with guests) operating in five-star hotels in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Therefore, we kindly request that you self-administer this questionnaire.

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Part I.

The following statements are statements about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you have ever felt this way about your work. If you have never felt this way, select 0. If you have felt this way, select number (1 to 6) that best describes how often you felt this way.

(0) Never

(1) Almost never (a few or less per year)

(2) Rarely (once a month or less)

(3) Sometimes (several times a month)

(4) Frequently (once a week)

(5) Very often (a few times a week)

(6) Anytime (Every day)

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. At my job I feel strong and vigorous	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I am enthusiastic about my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. My job inspires me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I am proud of the work that I do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I feel happy when I am working intensely.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I am immersed in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I get carried away when I am working.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part II.

Please, indicate your answers by placing a (✓) in the appropriate alternative.

1. Age

- ☐ 18-27
- ☐ 28-37
- ☐ 38-47
- ☐ 48-57
- ☐ 58-67
- ☐ 68 or above

2. Gender

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

3. Marital Status

- ☐ Single or Divorced
- ☐ Married

4. Education

- ☐ Primary school
- ☐ Secondary and high school
- ☐ Vocational school
- ☐ School/Faculty (Undergraduate)
- ☐ Graduate - PhD

5. Length of service

- ☐ less than 1 year
- ☐ 1-5 years
- ☐ 6-10 years
- ☐ 11-15 years
- ☐ 16-20 years
- ☐ 21 years and above

A Field Study in the Hotel Industry in Cameroon

Dear respondent,

This study is aimed at researching the work experiences of employees (who have intensive one-to-one communication with guests) working in three and four-star hotels in Cameroon. Therefore, we kindly request that you self-administer this questionnaire. The data obtained as the result of the research will be kept completely confidential. You will not be asked about your identity anyway. Thank you very much for taking the time and participating in the research.

If you have any questions about this research and/or questionnaire, do not hesitate to contact Mrs.Nazanin Naderiadib Alpler through her e-mail address:

nazanin.naderiadib@emu.edu.tr

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Research Team:

Nazanin Naderiadib Alpler

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Address:

Faculty of Tourism

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Gazimagusa. TRNC

Via Mersin 10, Turkey

I. Part

On a scale of 1 to 5, with 5 being the completely disagree and 1 being completely agree, (please circle the appropriate number for each item)

1. Completely disagree
2. Disagree
3. Neutral /Not sure
4. Agree
5. Completely agree

1. I am optimistic that I would find another job, if I looked for one.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am confident that I could quickly get a similar job	1	2	3	4	5
3. I will easily find another job if I lose this job.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I could easily switch to another employer, if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5

1. I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to	1	2	3	4	5
2. There is a risk that I will have to leave my present job	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel uneasy about losing my job in the near future	1	2	3	4	5
4. My future career opportunities in [the organization] are favorable (R)	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel that [the organization] can provide me with stimulating job content in the near future (R)	1	2	3	4	5
6. I believe that [the organization] will need my competence also in the future (R)	1	2	3	4	5
7. My pay development in this organization is promising (R)	1	2	3	4	5

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I. Part

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1. Completely disagree
2. Disagree
3. Neutral /Not sure
4. Agree
5. Completely agree

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy	0	1	2	3	4	5
2. At my job I feel strong and vigorous	0	1	2	3	4	5
3. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am enthusiastic about my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5
5. My job inspires me.	0	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am proud of the work that I do.	0	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel happy when I am working intensely.	0	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am immersed in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5
9. I get carried away when I am working.	0	1	2	3	4	5

Part II.

Please, indicate your answers by placing a (✓) in the appropriate alternative.

1. Age

- ☐ 18-27
- ☐ 28-37
- ☐ 38-47
- ☐ 48-57
- ☐ 58-67
- ☐ 68 or above

2. Gender

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

3. Marital Status

- ☐ Single or Divorced
- ☐ Married

4. Education

- ☐ Primary school
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