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A Model of Hospitality Employee Engagement

Hee Jung Kang

University of Nevada, Las Vegas

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A MODEL OF HOSPITALITY EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

By

Hee Jung Kang

Bachelor of Science in Hotel Administration
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
2004

Master of Science in Hotel Management
Sejong University
2010

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the

Doctor of Philosophy - Hospitality Administration

William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration
The Graduate College

University of Nevada, Las Vegas
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Hee Jung Kang

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William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration

James A. Busser, Ph.D., Committee Chair

Robert H. Woods, Ph.D., Committee Member

Mehmet Erdem, Ph.D., Committee Member

Eunsook Hong, Ph.D., Graduate College Representative

Kathryn Hausbeck Korgan, Ph.D., Interim Dean of the Graduate College

May 2014

ABSTRACT

A MODEL OF HOSPITALITY EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

By

Hee Jung Kang

Dr. James Busser, Dissertation Committee Chair
Professor & Associate Dean for Academic Affairs
William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

This study focuses on employee's state-like psychological resources by investigating individual and organizational antecedents to employee engagement and valued human resource outcomes. The purpose of this study was to develop and test a theoretical model that explains the interrelationships among six constructs and to explore the mediating effects of employee engagement. Structural Equation Modeling using AMOS (18.0) statistical software was used to test the full structural model (measurement and structural model) of the hypothesized relationships among the variables with a sample of hospitality employees. The findings supported all hypothesized relationships except the direct relationship between employee engagement and turnover intention. Results also revealed a significant mediating role of employee engagement. This study represents one of the first to develop and test a comprehensive model of employee engagement based on positive organizational behavior. It also provides insights regarding the importance of selecting employees with high psychological capital, and creating and maintaining an optimal organizational service climate.

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Table of Contents

ABSTRACT.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
CHAPTER 1 Introduction.....	1
Problem Statement.....	2
Purpose of the Study.....	4
Significance of the Study.....	4
Definition of Terms.....	5
Delimitations.....	7
CHAPTER 2 Literature Review.....	8
Positive Organizational Scholarship and Positive Organizational Behavior.....	8
Employee Engagement.....	11
The Concept of Employee Engagement.....	11
Employee Engagement and its Impact.....	15
Employee Engagement Research in Hospitality.....	17
Factors Influencing Employee Engagement.....	19
Psychological Capital.....	19
Psychological Capital Examined.....	22
Service Climate.....	23

Service Climate Research.....	24
Human Resource Outcomes.....	26
Job Satisfaction.....	26
Job Satisfaction Research in Hospitality.....	28
Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	28
Organizational Citizenship Behavior Research in Hospitality.....	32
Turnover and Turnover Intention.....	33
Turnover.....	33
Turnover Intention.....	35
Turnover Intention Examinations in Hospitality.....	36
Conceptual Framework.....	37
Social Exchange Theory.....	37
Proposed Model.....	38
Research Hypotheses.....	39
CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....	44
Research Design.....	44
Sampling.....	44
Survey Instrument.....	44
Survey Translations.....	49
Pilot Survey.....	49
Data Collection.....	49
Data Analysis.....	50
Data Screening and Assumption Testing.....	50

Item Parceling.....	51
Structural Equation Modeling.....	51
CHAPTER 4 RESULTS.....	53
Respondent Characteristics.....	53
Response Rate.....	53
Demographics of Respondents.....	53
Descriptive Statistics.....	55
Indicators of Constructs.....	55
Testing the Hypothesized Model.....	56
The Measurement Model.....	56
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Measurement Model.....	56
Construct Validity and Reliability.....	59
The Structural Equation Model.....	62
CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION.....	70
Review of the Study Results.....	70
Effects of Psychological Capital.....	70
Effects of Service Climate.....	72
Effects of Employee Engagement on Outcome Variables.....	73
Theoretical Contribution.....	76
Practical Implications.....	77
Limitations and Future Research.....	80
Appendix I.....	82
Survey Instrument.....	82

License for Psychological Capital Questionnaire.....	89
References.....	90
VITA.....	118

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1	The Evolution of Employee Engagement.....	14
TABLE 2	The Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement.....	17
TABLE 3	Variable Names Used in Early Studies.....	30
TABLE 4	The Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Recent Literature.....	31
TABLE 5	The Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	32
TABLE 6	Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.....	54
TABLE 7	Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities of Indicators.....	56
TABLE 8	Comparison of the Three Measurement Models CFA Results.....	57
TABLE 9	Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	58
TABLE 10	Correlations among the Six Factors.....	60
TABLE 11	Relationships among Psychological Capital, Service Climate, Employee Engagement, Employee Satisfaction, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, and Turnover Intention.....	66

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1	Conceptual model of employee engagement.....	39
FIGURE 2	Results of the initial structural equation model.....	63
FIGURE 3	Modified structural equation model with structural regression paths	68
FIGURE 4	Final structural equation model with structural regression paths.....	69

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Retaining talented employees is a critical management issue in the hospitality industry (Walsh & Taylor, 2007). Turnover rates in hospitality range from 60 to 300 percent (Lee & Way, 2010; Moncarz, Zhao, & Kay, 2009; Yang, Wan, & Fu, 2012) and the average cost associated with turnover is approximately 1.5 times that of the employee's salary (Yang et al., 2012). This high rate of turnover is a vexing problem for hospitality organizations not only because it impacts employee morale and productivity (Yang et al., 2012), but also because it causes indirect reductions of revenue and profitability (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000). Poor morale and productivity can reduce profitability even if the employee remains with the organization—only 50 percent of employees are engaged in their organization at a level necessary to complete their work (Bates, 2004; Saks, 2006).

One strategy to increase employees' productivity and reduce their intention to leave the organization is to increase their level of engagement (i.e., facilitate the employees' full capacity and potential) (Leiter & Bakker, 2010). Employees that are disengaged or less than fully engaged create a performance gap that costs U.S. businesses \$300 billion a year in lost productivity (Bates, 2004; Johnson, 2004; Kowalski, 2003; Saks, 2006). By identifying the factors that influence employee engagement, employers in the hospitality industry can better understand and address their employees' work-related psychological state, attitudes, and behaviors in order to reduce turnover intention or unnecessary turnover.

Employees have varying degrees of work engagement (Saks, 2006). More engaged employees strengthen the organization's competitive advantage and generate positive business results (Slatten & Mehmetoglu, 2011). Employee engagement has been found to positively impact employees' performance and behavioral outcomes, including in-role and extra-role performance, guest satisfaction, proactivity, adoptivity, creativity (Rothbard & Patil, 2011) and customer loyalty (Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005). Specifically, engaged employees are more likely to have positive perceptions of their work experience, translating to present positive attitudes such as job satisfaction and behaviors such as organizational citizenship (Saks, 2006). Further, employees' positive resources, such as psychological capital, help them to combat the dysfunctional effects of stress, turnover, and job search behaviors (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009).

Creating and maintaining a climate that encourages employees to engage more in their work and selecting the right employee to begin with is vital to the hospitality industry. The theoretical model for this study was framed under social exchange theory (Homans, 1958) and has the potential to make a contribution to the literature by examining and uncovering new relationships related to employee engagement. Additionally, the findings will be contributing positively to hospitality employees and organizations; and the education and training of current and future managers.

Problem Statement

Most organizational theories and empirical research have focused on the value and significance of negative phenomena such as problem solving, managing uncertainty, and overcoming resistance to change (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). A negative approach focuses on minimizing what is wrong with human and organizational

development, and does not address an understanding of human strengths and optimal functioning (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). However, people excel by maximizing their strengths, rather than repairing their weaknesses (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001).

Organizational theory and behavior scholars have recognized the unexploited potential of a science-based, positively oriented approach, resulting in the emergence of two major parallel, and complementary movements—positive organizational scholarship (POS), and positive organization behavior (POB).

Employee engagement is being aggressively challenged in contemporary organizations (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Most employees in all types of organizations around the world are less than fully engaged in their work according to consistent Gallup surveys (Avolio & Luthans, 2006). For example, 54 percent of US employees are not actively engaged in their work and even 17% of employees are actively disengaged (Wagner & Harter, 2006). That means employees are wasting roughly two hours a day beyond lunch and scheduled breaks (salary.com, 2008). It is difficult not only to retain talented employees with high levels of human capital, but also to encourage employees to become fully engaged with their work.

Organizations possess economic capital, the material assets of the organization; human capital, knowledge, experience, and expertise of employees; social capital, the network of relationships among employees; and psychological capital (Luthan & Youssef, 2004). Psychological capital, which is an individual's positive psychological state of development (Luthan et al., 2007), could be a critical predictor to understand the varying degrees of employee engagement at work, and to meet the challenges of employee engagement in today's organizations (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010).

Demonstrating a positive relationship between an employee's psychological states, including psychological capital, an employee's perception of service climate, levels of engagement and their behavioral outcomes of satisfaction, citizenship behavior, and turnover intention will contribute to the study of positive organizational behavior (POB).

Purpose of the Study

This study focuses on employee's state-like psychological resources by investigating individual and organizational antecedents to employee engagement and valued human resource outcomes. The purpose of this study is to develop and test a theoretical model that explains the interrelationships among six constructs: psychological capital, service climate, work engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, employee satisfaction, and turnover intention (Figure 1). Furthermore, this research explores the mediating effects of employee engagement. By examining the relationship among these critical factors, this research would present a new model of employee engagement, and also reveal the importance to employers of the factors that contribute to employee engagement and improve desired employee attitudes and behavior. In turn, hospitality employers may be better equipped to retain talented employees to deliver quality service which has been tied to increased business profitability.

Significance of the Study

This study makes several contributions to academia and industry practitioners. First, this study offers a new theoretical model of employee engagement in the hospitality context by examining its antecedents at both the individual and organizational level. It also describes how employees' levels of engagement impact employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in the workplace. Particularly, this study represents one of the first

to develop and test a comprehensive model of employee engagement based on positive organizational behavior (POB). An employee's positivity has potential influence on their attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. The results may demonstrate the importance of employee's levels of engagement in the workplace that contributes to enhanced satisfaction, encouraging extra-role behavior, and reducing turnover rate.

This study provides important practical implications for managers and industry. The findings from conceptual modeling and this empirical study of employee engagement may provide significant insights for managers who are challenged to retain employees and to foster organizational citizenship behaviors. It also could be critical in the competition for talent (Boswell, Ren & Hinrichs, 2008). Moreover, this study provides insights as to why it is important to select employees with high level of psychological capital and to create and maintain optimal service climates for employees. The study findings reveal that it is not only important, but also necessary, to focus on positivity in the workplace through selection, training, and development of employees as well as current and future managers.

Definition of Terms

Employee engagement refers to an employee's persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state including vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Vigor refers to an employee's energy level and their willingness to put effort into their work. Dedication is how much employees are involved in their work and absorption is the level of concentration in their work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). The terms work engagement and employee engagement are used interchangeably (Schaufeli & Bakker,

2010), but employee engagement will be used for this study since this is the term used more broadly.

Psychological capital is defined as “an individual’s positive psychological state of development and is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and to put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and, (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success” (Luthans et al., 2007, p.3).

Service climate refers to “employee perceptions of the practices, procedures, and behaviors that get rewarded, supported, and expected with regard to customer service and customer service quality” (Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998, p.151).

Employee satisfaction is a positive feeling about an individual's job, resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics (Hodson, 1991).

Organization citizenship behaviors are discretionary actions that contribute to organizational effectiveness, but are not part of an employee’s formal job description (Organ, 1988).

Turnover intention is an individual's subjective approximation regarding the likelihood of leaving an organization in the near future (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

Delimitations

This study has several limitations which should be acknowledged. First, this study collects data in only one time of period and employees' attitudes and behaviors could change over time. To validate the stability of their attitudes and behaviors, future researchers need to conduct a longitudinal study by extending the time frame and examining attitude and behavior in different situations. Second, same participants from our study rated the antecedent, mediating, and outcome variables in our study. The data from the same participants can be a possible limitation since it presents the possibility that these results can be attributed to common method variance (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Common-method bias can be reduced by employing several preventative strategies (such as collecting data from different sources and/or different times) (Lindell & Whitney 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, future research should recruit subjects from different sources or at different periods of time to re-examine the relationships presented in the current study. The third limitation concerns the generalizability of the findings. Participants were limited to hospitality employees working in five different locations within the same corporation in the USA. Therefore, future research should be conducted in more various contexts with different populations in order to explore these constructs in broader settings, ultimately enhancing the external validity of the study.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

This chapter provides a conceptual understanding of employee engagement, psychological capital, service climate, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intention. The literature review consists of five main sections: (1) introduces positive organizational scholarship and positive organizational behavior approaches; (2) thoroughly describes of the theory and research on employee engagement; (3) examines factors that influence employee engagement; (4) presents valued human resource outcomes including employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intention; and (5) describes a theoretical framework to understand how employees' level of engagement in the workplace influences their attitudes and behaviors at work.

Positive Organizational Scholarship and Positive Organizational Behavior

Positive organizational scholarship (POS) was introduced as a new focus of study 10 years ago. Positive organizational scholarship incorporates the notion of the positive (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). The term POS in the context of a business organization focuses on investigating positive processes, and guides the examination of positive phenomenon in organizations.

The term scholarship in Positive Organizational Scholarship (POS) is the pursuit of rigorous, systematic, and theory-based foundations for the study of positive phenomena. According to Cameron and Spreitzer (2011), positive organizational scholarship requires: (1) a careful definition of terms, (2) rationale for prescriptions and recommendations, (3) consistency of scientific procedures in drawing conclusions, (4) theoretical procedures in

drawing conclusions, (5) a theoretical rationale, and (6) grounding in previous scholarly work.

There are four approaches to POS. These are called domains. The first domain is to adopt a unique lens, or an alternative perspective. This domain requires a change in the way one ordinarily interprets organizational phenomena. For instance, when an organization is faced with a challenge, it can view that challenge typically, as a problem or dysfunctional system; or, it can interpret that challenge as an opportunity by viewing it through a POS lens. The second domain is to investigate extraordinarily positive outcomes, or positively deviant behaviors (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). Such research seeks an explanation for the processes behind and causes of positively deviant behaviors. The third domain is to present an affirmative bias that fosters resourcefulness. In other words, individuals and organizations become more resourceful when they are exposed to positivity (Dutton & Sonenshein, 2009). Because positivity increases resources for individuals, groups, and organizations, it also, consequentially, broadens their capabilities and strengthens their capacities (Fredrickson, 2009). The fourth domain is to examine virtuousness, or the best of the human condition, including the effects of virtuousness and eudemonism (Bright, Cameron & Caza, 2006). At the organizational level, virtuousness focuses on individuals' behaviors that help others flourish (Fowers & Tjeltveit, 2003).

A POS approach to research is important because positive conditions trigger the tendency in all living systems toward positive energy, and away from negative energy (Smith & Baker, 1960). Human systems are inherently inclined toward the positive (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2011), and understanding this tendency and its implications is vital in social and organizational science (Cameron, 2008). Studies have shown that

organizations in several industries that implemented and improved their positive practices over time also increased their performance in desired outcomes, such as profitability, productivity, quality, customer satisfaction, and employee retention (Cameron, Bright, & Caza, 2004; Gittell, Cameron, Lim, & Rivas, 2006).

Positive Organizational Behavior (POB) is “the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace” (Luthans, 2002, p. 59). POS and POB approaches complement each other—where POS is more likely to focus on the organization, POB concentrates on the individual (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). The set of POB criteria are theory and research based, measurable, state-like or developmental, and related to work performance outcomes. POB tries to recognize and emphasize the largely unrealized power of positivity that may be conducive to contemporary and future workplaces, with a specific emphasis on criteria addressing psychological capacities (Luthans et al., 2007).

POB is committed to a scientific approach to accumulating a sustainable, impactful body of knowledge, not only for leadership and human resource development, but for performance impact as well (Luthans et al., 2007). The biggest difference between positive psychology, POS and POB is that the POB approach utilizes a state-like criterion, unlike the positive psychology movement, which is dominated by dispositional, trait-like constructs. Positive traits tend to exhibit considerable stability over time (Peterson & Seligman, 2004), but are difficult to develop and modify in human resource management (Luthans et al., 2007). Another distinction between POS and POB is that POB is directly concerned with performance. By highlighting states rather than traits,

POB produces new opportunities and a broader scope for human resource development and performance management (Luthans et al., 2007b).

Psychological capital and employee engagement are viewed as a state-like phenomenon (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). This study focuses on the psychological state of employee engagement. Employee engagement is an indicator of positive work-related subjective well-being (Leiter & Bakker, 2010) to better understand how subjective well-being relates to job performance. Employee engagement refers to a persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state including vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Engagement is important to positive organizational scholarship in particular because it is a psychological process that helps to explain the quality of participation in role activities (Rothbard, 2001). Employees are more engaged in their job when they psychologically perceive meaningfulness of the work (Kahn, 1990). Thus, engagement may be a key component for employee and organizational success within the context of positive organizational scholarship (Rothbard & Patil, 2011).

Employee Engagement

The Concept of Employee Engagement

Employee engagement was first identified as an important workplace concern by consultants and business enterprises and later in academia (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). The Gallup organization was the first to coin the term, employee engagement, in the 1990s (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Most consultancy firms that deal with human resources have indicated that improving levels of employee engagement increases business profitability. However, definitions of employee engagement that were historically used by consultancy firms lacked consistency. The understanding of

employee engagement often overlapped with traditional workplace concepts such as job involvement, job satisfaction (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010), employee commitment, and citizenship behavior (Robinson, Perryman, & Hayday, 2004). As employee engagement is directly and indirectly related to organizational outcomes, scholars should consider this construct more carefully. Although the importance of employee engagement has been recognized, it has been defined in many different ways by both academic researchers and practitioners (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Table 1 illustrates the variety of employee engagement definitions that have been used by academic research groups in comparison to consultants and the popular literature.

Academic researchers have conceptualized, employee engagement in three different ways. First, Khan (1990) introduced the concepts of personal engagement and disengagement, which is derived from the integrated idea (Alderfer, 1972; Maslow, 1954) of being involved to a degree in both self-expression and self-employment at work. Khan (1990) defined personal engagement as, “the harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles: in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, emotionally and mentally during role performances” (p. 694) while to defined disengagement as the disconnection of oneself from work roles. Kahn (1990) suggested that the nature of personal engagement and disengagement was influenced by three psychological conditions: meaningfulness, safety, and availability. Psychological meaningfulness refers to the way people invest their physical, cognitive, or emotional energy in tasks and roles to create meaning in their life and work. Psychological safety represents whether people feel safe to be involved in situations without fear of possible negative outcomes. Psychological availability refers to how individuals are physically,

emotionally, or psychologically ready to engage at a particular moment, although experiencing a certain level of distraction.

Rothbard (2001) extended Kahn's (1990, 1992) concept of personal engagement to work engagement as a resource-based motivational construct. He defined work engagement as "One's psychological presence in or focus on a role" (p. 656) and presented two critical components: attention and absorption. Attention is a person's amount of time and cognitive availability to focus on a role and absorption is the degree of a person's intensity in a role (Rothbard, 2001). Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010) continued to build on the previous definitions to include three components: physical, emotional, and cognitive engagement. Rothbard and Patil (2011) further defined work engagement as "the degree to which employees are focused on and present in their role" (p.56). In other words, work engagement is an employee's psychological presence in a role. In addition, Rothbard and Patil (2011) suggested that engagement consists of two cognitive subcomponents, absorption and attention, and a physical component, energy.

Second, Maslach and Leiter (1997) argued that work engagement is the direct opposite of the three employee burnout dimensions: exhaustion, cynicism, and ineffectiveness, and characterized it by energy, involvement, and self-efficacy. In addition, Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001) further supported work engagement as the positive antithesis of employee burnout stating that work engagement was "a positive, work-related state of well-being or fulfillment" (p. 13). Later, Leiter and Bakker (2010) updated this definition of work engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work-related well-being that can be seen as the antipode of job burnout" (p.1).

Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonz lez-Roma , and Bakker (2002) and Schaufeli et al. (2002) brought forward the third definition of work engagement as, “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (p. 74). Vigor refers to the degree of energy and mental resilience at work. Dedication is the degree of involvement in work, and absorption is the degree of concentration and engrossment in work. Engaged employees are those who have a high level of energy and strong identification with their work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010).

Table 1

The Evolution of Employee Engagement

Description by Academics	Description by Research Groups
Kahn (1990) The harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances.	Bates (2004) An innate human desire to contribute something of value in the workplace.
Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter (2001) Job engagement: the opposite end of a continuum between engagement and burnout.	Robinson et al. (2004) A positive attitude held by the employee towards the organization and its values.
Rothbard (2001) One’s psychological presence in or focus on role activities.	Lockwood (2007) The extent to which employees commit to something or someone in their organization, how hard they work and how long they stay as a result of that commitment.
Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes (2002) The individual’s involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work.	Furness (2008) how employees relate to their workplace.
Schaufeli, Martinez, Pinto, Salanova, & Bakker (2002) A positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption.	Snell (2009) Go beyond the confines of their job description, conscious of how their roles drive the business towards its objectives.
Saks (2006) The degree to which an individual is attentive and absorbed in the performance of their roles.	Wiley (2010) The extent to which employees are motivated to contribute to organizational success, and are willing to apply discretionary effort to accomplishing tasks important to the achievement of organizational goals.
Koyuncu, Burke, & Fiksenbaum (2006) Engaged workers are energetic, are positively connected to their work and feel they are doing their jobs effectively. It is a persistent and broad affective cognitive state.	Devi (2009) The extent to which an employee puts discretionary effort into his or her work, beyond the required minimum to get the job done, in the form of extra time, brainpower or energy.
Macey & Schneider (2008) The notion that	Alarcon & Edwards (2010). A positive

Description by Academics	Description by Research Groups
employee engagement is a desirable condition, has an organizational purpose, and connotes involvement, commitment, passion, enthusiasm, focused effort, and energy, so it has both attitudinal and behavioral components.	affective relationship with one's work.
Leiter & Bakker (2010) Work engagement: a positive, fulfilling, affective-motivational state of work-related well-being that can be seen as the antipode of job burnout.	Nolan (2011) Treating your workforce as a workforce of one. Williams (2011) The bridge between passiveness and passion.
Rothbard & Patil (2011) The degrees to which employees are focused on and present in their role.	Cengia (2012) How people perceive the organization or job in which they work for.

Employee Engagement and its Impact

The nature of work engagement suggests that employees bring their full capacity and potential to their work (Leiter & Bakker, 2010). The antecedents of employee engagement currently identified include job characteristics, rewards and recognition, perceived organizational and supervisor support, and organizational justice (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Saks, 2006; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007). Other antecedents of employee engagement identified (see Table 2) are organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, core-self evaluations, efficacy, role identity, task/job meaningfulness in terms of person-specific attitudes and balanced resources/demands and psychological safety as of task-specific factors (Rothbard & Patil, 2011).

The employee's energy and concentration on their work fosters increased engagement resulting in enhanced responsibility. Thus, engagement has a great impact on employee's performance. According to Leiter and Bakker (2010), employees who have positive work engagement exhibit extra-role performance. That is, employees go above expectations and take more initiative in the workplace. In addition, engagement leads to

employees that perform better within their role and thus, further support organizational effectiveness (Kahn 1992; Rothbard & Patil, 2011; Saks, 2008). Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) proposed four reasons why engaged employees perform better than non-engaged employees. Based on their literature review engaged employees: (1) experience active, positive emotions including joy and enthusiasm, (2) experience better health thus, they can focus and dedicate all their energy to their work, (3) create their own job and personal resources. They ask for performance feedback or they ask colleagues for help if needed, and (4) transfer their engagement to others in their immediate environment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2009) and indirectly improve team performance.

A number of positive outcomes (see Table 2) have been related to employee engagement such as in-role and extra-role performance, proactivity, adoptivity, creativity (Rothbard & Patil, 2011), performance (Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005), career satisfaction (Koyuncu et al., 2006), burnout, and health-related problems for employees (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Koyuncu et al., 2006). Further, empirical findings have supported the relationship between engagement and organizational outcomes including guest satisfaction (Rothbard & Patil, 2011) and customer loyalty (Salanova et al., 2005).

Saks (2006) separated employee engagement into job engagement and organizational engagement based on social exchange theory (Homans, 1958). Job engagement is focused on engagement at one's job while organizational engagement is focused on engagement at one's organization. Job engagement and organizational engagement mediated the relationship between antecedents for employees (i.e., perceived organizational support, job characteristics, and procedural justice) and employee and organizational outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to

quit, and organizational citizenship behavior) (Saks, 2006). Based on Kahn's (1990) and Maslach et al.'s (2001) model, Saks (2006) identified significant antecedents of engagement. According to his study, perceived organizational support predicted job and organizational engagement, job characteristics predicted job engagement, and procedural justice predicted organizational engagement. Also, Chughatai and Buckley (2011) found that both trust in one's supervisor and employees trust propensity were positively related to work engagement.

Table 2

The Antecedents and Consequences of Employee Engagement

Antecedents of employee engagement	Consequences of employee engagement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job characteristics, perceived organizational and supervisor support, and organizational justice (Saks, 2006) • Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, core-self evaluations, efficacy, role identity, task/job meaningfulness in terms of person-specific attitudes and balanced resources/demands and psychological safety as of task-specific factors (Rothbard & Patil, 2011). • Perceptions of role benefit, job autonomy, and strategic attention (Slatten & Mehmetoglu, 2011) • Trust in one's supervisor and employees trust propensity (Chughatai & Buckley, 2011) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In-role and extra-role performance, proactivity, adoptivity, creativity (Rothbard & Patil, 2011) • Performance (Salanova et al., 2005) • Career satisfaction (Koyuncu et al., 2006) • Burnout, and health-related problems (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Koyuncu et al., 2006) • Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to quit, and organizational citizenship behavior (Saks, 2006) • Career commitment and adaptability (Barnes & Collier, 2013)

Employee Engagement Research in Hospitality

There have been a few scholarly studies which measured the role of employee engagement in hospitality. Salanova et al. (2005) tested the mediating role of service

climate between organizational resources and employee engagement in addition to the mediating role of work engagement between organizational resources (training, autonomy, and technology) and service climate with a sample of 114 hospitality service operations including hotel front desk and restaurants. The results indicated that organizational resources and work engagement predicted service climate and service climate mediated the relationship between organizational resources and work engagement.

Karatepe and Olugbade (2009) investigated the impact of job (supervisor support) and personal resources (trait competitiveness and self-efficacy) on work engagement among full-time frontline hotel employees. The finding showed that trait competitiveness predicted three dimensions of work engagement better than self-efficacy. Slatten and Mehmetoglu (2011) examined the factors influencing hospitality frontline employee engagement. The results revealed that job autonomy, strategic attention, and role benefit were significantly influenced by employee engagement while employee engagement was closely related to innovative behavior. Karatepe, Karadas, Azar, and Naderiadib (2013) tested the mediating role of work engagement between polychronicity and performance outcomes among full-time frontline hotel employees. Hall (1959) coined the term polychronic to describe the ability to attend to multiple events simultaneously. Bluedorn, Kalliath, Strube, and Martin (1999, p. 207) refers polychronicity as to “the extent to which people in a culture: (1) prefer to be engaged in two or more tasks or events simultaneously; and (2) believe their preference is the best way to do things”. Work engagement fully mediated the relationship between polychronicity and performance outcomes.

Park and Gursoy (2012) measured the generational effects of work engagement among U.S. hotel employees. Their study revealed that the level of work engagement significantly differed based on the generational membership of the employees. Generational differences also moderated the effects of work engagement on turnover intention. Barnes and Collier (2013) examined the relationship among service climate, job satisfaction, affective commitment, work engagement, career commitment and adaptability among frontline employees across high and low customer contact service contexts. According to the study findings, service climate, job satisfaction, and affective commitment had a positive relationship with work engagement. Employee's work engagement also impacted career commitment and adaptability.

Factors Influencing Employee Engagement

Psychological Capital

Positive organizational behavior (POB) research has given particular attention to psychological capital (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2009; Luthans, Avolio, Avey, et al., 2007). Cameron and Spreitzer (2011) believe that human systems possess an inherent inclination toward positivity and understanding this tendency and its implications is an important need in social and organizational science (Cameron, 2008). POB is defined as "the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace" (Luthans, 2002, p.59).

Psychological capital, known as PsyCap, is a relatively new approach based on the positive criterion of POB (Luthans et al., 2007). PsyCap recognizes the unrealized power of human's positivity in contemporary workplaces, emphasizing psychological capacities.

Psychological capital is defined as “an individual’s positive psychological state of development and is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and, (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success” (Luthans et al., 2007, p.3).

PsyCap efficacy is the term that reflected the theoretical and research bases of self-efficacy (e.g., Bandura, 1997) and the more applied orientation associated with confidence (e.g., Kanter, 2004; Luthans et al., 2007). It is defined as “one’s conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p. 66). People with high self-efficacy are differentiated by five characteristics: (1) they set high goals for themselves and self-select into difficult tasks, (2) they welcome and thrive on challenge, (3) they are highly self-motivated, (4) they invest the necessary effort to accomplish their goals, and (5) when faced with obstacles, they persevere (Luthans et al., 2007, p. 38). High-efficacy individuals perform effectively with little external input for extended periods of time. Additionally, they create their own discrepancies by continuously challenging themselves with higher self-set goals and by seeking and voluntarily opting for difficult tasks (Luthans et al., 2007).

PsyCap hope is defined as “a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (1) agency (goal-directed energy) and (2) pathways (planning to meet goals)” (Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991, p. 287). In other

word, hope is a cognitive state in which an individual is capable of setting realistic but challenging goals and expectations and then reaching out for those aims through self-directed determination, energy, and perception of internalized control (Luthans et al., 2007). Research has revealed a positive relationship between hope and workplace performance including employee hope and organizational profitability (Adam et al., 2003) and organizational leaders' level of hope and the profitability of their units and the satisfaction and retention of their employees (Peterson & Luthans, 2003). In addition, Youssef (2004) also found that manager's level of hope influenced employees' performance, job satisfaction, work happiness, and organizational commitment.

PsyCap optimism is “an explanatory style that attributes positive events to personal, permanent, and pervasive causes and interprets negative events in terms of external, temporary, and situation-specific factors” (Luthans et al., 2007, p.90). Some scholars found the negative results of unrealistic optimism such as the negative implications of repeated negative life events on physical health and psychological well-being (Peterson & Chang, 2002), and experiencing learned helplessness (Seligman, 1998). Schneider (2001) advocated the necessity of realistic optimism. Realistic, PsyCap optimism has considerable intuitive appeal and is often associated with many positive and desirable outcomes. Optimists are more likely to embrace the changes, see the opportunities that the future holds, and focus on capitalizing on those opportunities (Luthans et al., 2007). Seligman (1998) demonstrated that employee's optimism impact on their performance among the huge Metropolitan Life Insurance sales staffs. Also, PsyCap optimism has been shown to increase motivation for long-term success (Peterson, 2000), and career resiliency (Waterman, Waterman, & Collard, 1994). Career resiliency employees realize

that they are responsible for their own careers and make their skills marketable and useful for their current and future employers.

Resiliency is first coined by Garmezy (1973) and defined later as “a class of phenomena characterized by patterns of positive adaptation in the context of significant adversity or risk” (Masten & Reed, 2002, p. 75). The definition of resiliency in PsyCap was broadened to include not only the ability to bounce back from adversity but also very positive challenging events and the will to go beyond the normal, to go beyond the equilibrium point (Avolio & Luthans, 2006; Luthans et al., 2007). A positive relationship has been found between resiliency and workplace outcomes such as better employee performance (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, et al., 2007; Luthans et al., 2005; Youssef, 2004) and job satisfaction (Luthans et al., 2005; Youssef, 2004), and work happiness, and organizational commitment (Youssef, 2004).

The main difference between psychological capital and other positive core constructs (i.e. self-evaluation) in the organizational literature is that psychological capital is conceptualized as state-like and open to development unlike trait-like constructs (Walumbwa, Peterson, Avolio, & Hartnell, 2010). Luthans et al. (2007) proposed that PsyCap offers a comprehensive conceptual framework for understanding human assets. Further, psychological capital is fundamental to portraying human potential in today’s workplace by integrating human and social capital.

Psychological Capital Examined

PsyCap has an exponential opportunity to grow and be sustainable over time (Luthans et al., 2007). However, limited studies have examined the importance of PsyCap in predicting employees attitudinal, behavioral, and performance outcomes in workplaces.

Luthans et al. (2007) showed a positive relationship between PsyCap and work performance and satisfaction. The mediating role of PsyCap between a supportive climate and employee work performance has also been revealed (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008). In addition, Avey, Luthans, & Youssef (2009) found that PsyCap had a positive relationship with organizational citizenship behaviors and negative relationship with organizational cynicism, turnover intention, and counterproductive workplace behaviors. The impact of leaders' PsyCap on followers' performance has been investigated among a sample of police leaders. The results indicated that leaders' psychological capital positively influenced followers' performance with this relationship mediated by followers' psychological capital (Walumbwa et al., 2010). Empirical research is still needed to demonstrate the potential added value of psychological capital in predicting work attitudes and behaviors (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2009).

Service Climate

Service climate refers to the perceptions by employees of the practices, procedures, and behaviors that get supported and rewarded in the workplace (Schneider, 1990). The perceptions are developed on a day-to-day basis (Schneider, Gunnarson, & Niles-Jolly, 1994). In early organizational climate research, surveys sought general employee viewpoints and referred to almost everything that would happen to and around employees. Schneider (1975) suggested that researchers should measure an organization's climate for a specific context rather than measuring generic organizational climate. Service climate or a climate for service refers to the extent employees perceive that they will be rewarded for delivering quality service. It is defined as "the shared employee perceptions of the policies, practices, procedures and the behaviors that get

rewarded, supported, and expected with regards to customer service and customer service quality” (Schneider & White, 2004, p. 100). To build a climate for service, training programs are required that provide employees with the necessary skills to perform their work (Schneider & Bowen, 1993; Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998).

Service climate also is the degree to which the organization focuses on service quality (Schneider & White, 2004). In the first research on the service climate, Schneider (1973) argued that service climate applies not only to employees, but also to customers.

Schneider and Bowen (1993) proposed that a climate for service is based on a climate for employee well-being. In other words, employees need to recognize that their own needs have been met in the organization before they meet the needs of customers. This causal relationship between employees and customers was tested by Schneider et al. (1998). The results revealed that organizations which pay the close attention to their guests’ expectations and needs were most likely to create conditions that generated a climate for service. In return, the climate for service resulted in employee behaviors in positive customer perceptions of service quality.

Service Climate Research

Service climate has been examined to predict employees’ attitudes and behaviors in the workplace. Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer, Saltz, and Niles-Jolly (2005) revealed the relationship between service climate and organizational behavior. Employees who perceived a positive service climate had the tendency to offer positive service to their customers at the organizational level of analysis (Liao & Chuang, 2007; Schneider et al., 1998). Johnson (1996) also found the relationship between employee perceptions of service climate on customer satisfaction. However, Yoon, Beatty, and Suh (2001) argued

that there is no direct relationship between the employee's perception of service climate and the guest's perception of service quality at the individual employee level of analysis. The results revealed that there are indirect effects of service climate on employee's job satisfaction via employee's work effort and customer evaluation of service quality via employee's job satisfaction and work effort. Walumbwa, Hartnell, and Oke (2010) introduced service climate as a mediator between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior among a sample of 815 employees and 123 immediate supervisors. The findings showed that the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior were partially mediated by commitment to the supervisor, self-efficacy, procedural justice, and service climate. Specially, positive procedural justice and positive service climate augmented the influence of commitment to the supervisor and organizational citizenship behavior.

There is limited research on service climate in hospitality. Hospitality research has been focused on the impact of service climate with most examining the relationship between service climate and customer satisfaction rather than a predictor of employee's attitudes and behaviors. Baker and Fesenmaier (1997) found that the subscales (teamwork, employee-job fit, technology-job fit, role conflict, role ambiguity, and horizontal communication) of employee service climate significantly impacted employee's perceptions of visitors' service quality expectation among samples in theme park. Chathoth, Mak, Jauhari, and Manaktola (2007) examined the impact of employees' perception of organizational trust on service climate and employee satisfaction. The results supported the positive relationship of trust on service climate as well as the positive relationship of service climate on employee satisfaction in hotel firms. Kralj and

Solnet (2010) found a high positive correlation between service climate and customer satisfaction in their case study of an Australian casino hotel. He, Li, and Lai (2010) found that customer orientation (one dimensions of service climate) had a direct and positive relationship with customer satisfaction while managerial support and work facilitation (two dimensions of service climate) showed indirect positive effects on customer satisfaction through the mediating effect of employee commitment.

Human Resource Outcomes

Job Satisfaction

Employee satisfaction has experienced a substantial amount of progress both theoretically along with its practical application since the 1930s. Several large companies conducted employee satisfaction studies as early as the mid-1950s (Allen & Wilburn, 2002). Employee satisfaction has been a critical area of research among industrial and organizational psychologists, and generated a remarkable number of articles in academic journals along with trade publications.

Job satisfaction is defined as an overall attitude, which is “the sum of the evaluations of the discriminable elements of which the job is composed” (Locke, 1969, p. 330). Locke (1969) posited that it is important to acknowledge that all individuals may not seek the same number of values in their jobs. Later, Locke (1976) referred to job satisfaction as “a positive or pleasurable emotional state resulting from one’s own appraisal of the job or of one’s own work experience” (p. 1300). Job satisfaction represents people’s perceptions about their job and different aspects of their jobs. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) and dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs (Spector, 1997). Past researchers focused on need fulfillment; whether or not the job meets employee’s

physical and psychological needs. Later, researchers tended to generally assess job satisfaction as an attitudinal variable (Spector, 1997) toward a job or specific dimensions of a job (e.g. Hodson, 1991; McNeese-Smith, 1996; Motowildo, 1996).

Herzberg's two-factor (motivation-hygiene) theory (Herzberg, Mausner, Snyderman, 1959) has been largely used to describe the concept of job satisfaction. The theory posits that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not the opposites of each other (Herzberg et al., 1959). In his research, Herzberg realized that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction; rather these are two different measures, one ranging from satisfaction to no satisfaction and the other from dissatisfaction to no dissatisfaction. The theory named the first set of factors hygiene and the second as motivators. Workplace hygiene factors, when not met, lead to job dissatisfaction. When they are met, they do not lead to job satisfaction, but rather, to a lack of dissatisfaction. Therefore, meeting hygiene factors does not increase motivation it merely placates workers. Hygiene factors include quality of supervision, pay, company policies, physical working conditions, relations with others, and job security. Motivation factors are intrinsically rewarding factors in the work environment such as promotion and personal growth opportunities, recognition, responsibility, and achievement. Meeting these factors will increase motivation by creating a satisfying work environment.

High levels of job satisfaction have been found to be positively related to increases in job performance and job commitment while low levels of job satisfaction have been linked to negative outcomes such as decrements in performance and motivation (Locke & Latham, 1990). Studies have found a relationship between employee satisfaction and employee turnover (Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Mobley,

Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978) and between employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction in service-oriented contexts (Rucci, Kirn, & Quinn, 1998; Ryan, Schmit, & Johnson, 1996).

Job Satisfaction Research in Hospitality

Research in hospitality has examined job satisfaction as a consequence of the job environment (Madera, Dawson, & Neal, 2013) such as pay and job security (Hancer & George, 2003), perceived supervisor support, and career opportunity (Rayton, 2006), polychronicity within a given time period (Jang & George, 2012), and emotional labor (Lee & Ok, 2012). Moreover, Madera et al. (2013) examined the impact of hotel manager's perceived diversity climate on job satisfaction. The results showed that hotel managers who perceived a positive diversity climate reported more job satisfaction along with less role ambiguity and role conflict. Wolf and Kim (2013) found that several components of emotional intelligence including interpersonal, general mood, and stress management, influenced some dimensions of job satisfaction such as the nature of work, communication, contingent rewards, and coworkers, among hotel managers. Kim and Brymer (2011) investigated the effects of executive's ethical leadership, specifically on a hotel middle manager's job satisfaction and affective commitment. The findings revealed that extrinsic, intrinsic, and general job satisfaction had a significant relationship with normative and affective commitment among hotel managers in Turkey.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The study of organization citizenship behavior (OCB) emerged over 37 years ago with Dennis Organ. Organ (1977) expanded generally accepted meanings of job performance to behaviors including positive effects on the psychological, social, and

organizational context of work (Spitzmuller, Dyne, & Llies, 2008). Based on Organ's (1977) conceptual foundation, the first empirical study of OCB was launched and measured the relationship between job satisfaction and a citizenship dimension of role performance (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Organizational citizenship behavior is defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate, promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p.4). Later, the definition evolved to the "contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that support task performance" (Organ, 1997, p.91) and "discretionary contributions that go beyond the strict description and that do not lay claim to contractual recompense from the formal reward system" (Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006, p.34).

Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) presented the first measure of citizenship behavior including sub-dimensions of helping or altruism (interpersonal OCB) and compliance (impersonal OCB). Altruism behaviors involve no external rewards while compliance behaviors involve an expectation of a reward or avoidance of punishment. Organ (1988) described OCB as consisting of five sub-dimensions: altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, and conscientiousness. Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested two alternative categories: OCBO behaviors, giving the benefit to the organization in general; and OCBI behaviors, providing immediate benefit to individuals and indirect benefit to the organization. In other word, OCBI focuses on individual citizenship behavior while OCBO specifies impersonal aspects of citizenship behavior at the organization (Spitzmuller et al., 2008). Moreover, Spitzmuller et al. (2008) noted that when research differentiates OCB into these two categories, OCB demonstrates different relationships

with its antecedents and consequences. In their extended literature review, Spitzmuller et al. (2008), reported that the vast amount of OCB studies had adopted the two categories approach (see Table 3). Given this conceptualization of OCB, researchers have placed a great deal of attention on the antecedents and consequences of organizational citizenship behavior (see Table 4) and its related constructs (Spitzmuller et al., 2008). The consequences of organizational citizenship behavior have not been studied as much as antecedents of citizenship since most empirical studies focus on OCB as a valuable outcome. However, a few studies consider OCB as the predictor of other outcomes (see Table 5).

Table 3

Variable Names Used in Early Studies

Variables reflect OCB targeted at individuals: OCBI	Variables reflect OCB targeted at organization: OCBO
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helping behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) • Task-focused interpersonal citizenship behavior, person-focused interpersonal citizenship behavior (Setton & Mossholder, 2002) • Altruism (Organ, 1988) • Interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) • Helping co-workers (George & Brief, 1992) • Social participation (Van dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loyal boosterism (Moorman & Blakely, 1995) • Loyalty, obedience, participation (Van Dyne et al., 1994) • Job dedication (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) • Conscientiousness, civic virtue (Organ, 1988) • Personal industry and individual initiative (Moorman & Blakely, 1995)

Note. Adapted from Spitzmuller, M., Dyne, L. V., & Llies, R. (2008). Organizational

citizenship behavior: A review and extension of its nomological network. In J.

Barling & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of organizational behavior:*

Vol. 1. Micro approaches (pp. 106-124). London, England: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Table 4

The Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Recent Literature

The antecedents of OCB	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job satisfaction (Illies et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000) • Organizational commitment (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000) • Justice and fairness perceptions (Colquitt et al., 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000) • State positive effect (Illies et al., 2006) • Impression management (Bowler & Brass, 2006) • Task characteristics (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997) • Leader supportiveness, transformational leadership, contingent rewards, LMX (Podsakoff et al., 2000) • Social relationship with peers (Bowler & Brass, 2006)
The antecedents of OCBO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conscientiousness (Organ & Ryan, 1995) • Negative affectivity (Podsakoff et al., 2000) • Organizational commitment and procedural justice (Colquitt et al., 2001)
The antecedents of OCBI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agreeableness (Illies, Scott, & Judge, 2006) • Positive affectivity (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000) • Interpersonal justice (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001) • Task routinization (Podsakoff et al., 2000) • High quality leader-member exchange (LMX) (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007) • Interpersonal relationship quality (Anderson & Williams, 1996) • Intensity of friendship (Bowler & Brass, 2006) • Team member exchange (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007) • Group cohesiveness & Coporative group norms (Ng & Van Dyne, 2005) • Relationships among co-workers (TMX) (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007)

Table 5

The Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The consequences of OCB	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee's productivity, Coordination (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997) • Unit sales (Podsakoff et al., 1997) • Operating efficiency and customer service quality (Walz & Niehoff, 1996)
The consequences of OCBI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Store sales (George & Bettenhausen, 1990) • Performance (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997) • Sales performance, operating efficiency, customer satisfaction, quantity/quality of performance (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997, Walz & Niehoff, 1996)

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Research in Hospitality

Limited study of organizational citizenship behavior has been undertaken in hospitality. According to an extensive literature review by Ravichandran, Gilmore, and Strohbehn (2007), there have been less than 10 articles published in the hospitality industry (i.e., restaurants, travel, and resorts) since 1999. Moreover, these articles are focused on outcome variables such as financial performance (Koys, 2001), customer perceptions of service quality (Yoon & Suh, 2003), and customer satisfaction (Walz & Niehoff, 1999). Although OCB research in the hotel industry is very scarce, there is clear evidence of its necessity based on the consequences of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Ravichandran et al. (2007) suggested that future research focus on the impact of OCB on turnover intention based on industry trends such as increasing job demands and high turnover.

Turnover and Turnover Intention

Retaining the most valuable organizational asset, human capital, is critical and also the most challenge task facing supervisors, employers, and HR professionals (Byrne, 1999). To retain talented employees, it is theoretically and practically important to understand the processes and determinants of employees that voluntarily leave an organization (Boswell, Ren & Hinrichs, 2008). Turnover intention is defined as an individual's awareness of the likelihood of leaving an organization in the near future (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982) and it is the best predictor of actual turnover behavior (Joo & Park, 2010; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Turnover

Research on employee turnover began with the work by March and Simon (1958). They proposed that employees would stay in the organizations when the organizations sufficiently motivate them to remain. In addition, employee's decision to leave the organization or turnover was based on two primary factors: the desirability of movement, and the perceived ease of that movement. Early empirical research focused on the role of work attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment to predict turnover. Porter and Steers (1973) suggested that meeting employees' expectations was at the core of their decision making to turnover since the discrepancy between expectation and reality causes employees' dissatisfaction. Locke (1976) found that the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover was moderate or had no direct impact (Mobley, 1977). Later, an expanded model revealed that turnover intention and turnover was determined by job satisfaction, expected utility of the present work role, and the expected utility of alternative work roles, which were influenced by a number of individual,

organizational, and environmental factors (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino 1979). Several meta-analyses demonstrated that job satisfaction has a moderate and negative impact on turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

The existence of alternative opportunities and general unemployment levels (Boswell et al., 2008), and organizational commitment (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Mowday et al., 1982) also influence turnover in addition to job satisfaction. Mowday et al. (1982) found that organizational commitment was the strongest attitudinal determinant of turnover. However, Tett and Meyer (1993) found that job satisfaction more strongly predicted turnover intention than organizational commitment. Furthermore, personal characteristics, such as age, tenure, education, sex, and marital status, were related to turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995) along with work-related variables (i.e., overall job satisfaction, satisfaction with job facets, organizational commitment, compensation level, job performance, tenure) in the early stages of turnover research (Boswell et al., 2008).

Lee and Mitchell (1994) introduced the "unfolding model" of voluntary turnover, which differs from the traditional model, and consists of four decision paths to voluntary employee turnover in employee turnover research. The four decision paths are: (1) shock to the system and a memory probe resulting in a match (a script-driven decision); (2) shock to the system, no match, and no specific job alternative (a push decision); (3) shock to the system, no match and presence of specific job alternatives (a pull decision); and (4) no shock to the system (affect initiated).

On the first path, an employee experiences an incident or workplace circumstance that shocks the system, prompting the employee to implement a predetermined plan to

leave. The second path also involves a shock, but is the employee has no preset, alternative employment situation in place. The circumstance, incident or event simply shocks the individual, causing him or her to leave unexpectedly without an advance search for alternative employment. The third path includes a shock, which stimulates levels of job dissatisfaction, and prompts the employee to search for an alternative employment option. A specific event or situation prompts the turnover, but in this case, the employee makes efforts to protect his or her employment status before departure. The fourth and final path represents the more common turnover scenario, in which the employee experiences progressive job dissatisfaction, and eventually decides to leave, with or without seeking and identifying substitute employment. An important component of and contributor to the unfolding model is the notion of shock-tempted turnover. This concept of a single occasion or incident causing an employee's exit rather than the traditional, gradual progression of employee withdrawal ultimately resulting in the employee's resignation, has inspired a series of empirical studies focusing on the different processes involved in an employee's decision to leave—or, alternatively, to stay with—a company (e.g., Donnelly & Quirin, 2006; Morrell, Loan-Clarke, & Wilkinson, 2004).

Interestingly, empirical research suggests that such ‘shocks’ cause more employee voluntary turnover than accumulated job dissatisfaction (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Inderrieden, 2005).

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is an individuals’ subjective approximation regarding the likelihood of leaving an organization in the near future (Mowday et al., 1982). Turnover intention has also been described as a conscious and deliberate willingness to leave the

organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Employees' cognition of turnover (i.e., intention) mediates the attitudinal linkage with turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000) and it is the best predictor of actual turnover behavior (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Joo & Park, 2010; Mobley et al., 1978; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Turnover Intention Examinations in Hospitality

Turnover intention has been a vexing problem in the hospitality industry for a long period of time (Tracey & Hinkin, 2006). Employee turnover impacts the consistency of quality guest services and reduces revenue and profits as a result. The American Hotel & Lodging Association sponsored a study that examined various demographic factors in relation to turnover (AH&LA, 2004). However, overall there are few turnover studies in the hospitality industry (e. g. Cho, Woods, Jang, & Erdem, 2006; Milman & Ricci, 2004; Zivnuska, Kiewitz, Hochwarter, Perrewé, & Zellers, 2002).

Tracey and Hinkin (2008) examined the costs of employee turnover by identifying five major cost categories: pre-departure, recruitment, selection, orientation and training, and lost productivity. Their study showed that the cost of turnover was highest for complex jobs in large upscale hotels while the costs varied significantly across property types and locations. Cho, Johanson, and Guchait (2009) compared the determinants of intent to leave and intent to stay among hospitality employees. The results suggested that perceived organizational support and organizational commitment decreased turnover intention. Mohsin, Lengler, and Kumar (2013) explored the antecedents of turnover intention in the case of luxury hotel staff. Employee's enthusiasm for the profession and employees' organizational loyalty had a negative relationship with turnover intention.

Conceptual Framework

In order to better understand employees' attitudes and behaviors, social exchange theory is reviewed as a broad conceptual framework to examine the impact of positivity in the workplace.

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory contends that a series of interactions between parties—which interactions are usually interdependent on the counterpart's action (Blau, 1964)—creates obligations between those parties (Emerson, 1976). A social exchange relationship occurs when employers take care of their employees, who, in turn, reciprocate with effective work behavior and positive attitudes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Social exchange relationships develop between the involved parties through a sequence of shared, although not necessarily concurrent, exchanges that generate a pattern of reciprocal responsibility on the part of each party (Blau, 1964). Previous research compellingly asserts that an employee is involved in at least two social exchange relationships at work: one with his or her direct supervisor, and one with the organization (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) underlies the theoretical framework of this study and underscores the critical role of employee engagement in job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intention for various levels of hotel employees. Under social exchange theory, a strong theoretical rationale can be made to explain why individuals have varying degrees of employee engagement (Saks, 2006), which differentiates their outcomes at the workplace. Engagement involves a two-way relationship between the employer and employee (Robinson et al., 2004). Social

exchange theory has provided a basis for understanding the roles of employees, managers, and organizations. These roles in social exchange relationships contribute to the level of commitment to the organization, and the obligation of organizations to the well-being of employees (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988).

It is important that employees bring positive resources (psychological capital) with them at the individual level. But also, creating and maintaining a service climate encourages employees to be more engaged in their work at the organizational level based on a pattern of reciprocal responsibility by each party. When employees recognize that they are being rewarded and supported by their organization, they feel more obliged to meet expectations for work performance, which in turn increases employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and finally decreases turnover intention. Thus, employees are likely to exchange their engagement and performance for resources and benefits provided by their managers and organizations.

Proposed Model

Given social exchange theory, the proposed conceptual model of employee engagement (see Figure 1) posits that employee's psychological capital and perceived service climate influence their level of engagement at work. Further employee's level of engagement at work influences their satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intention.

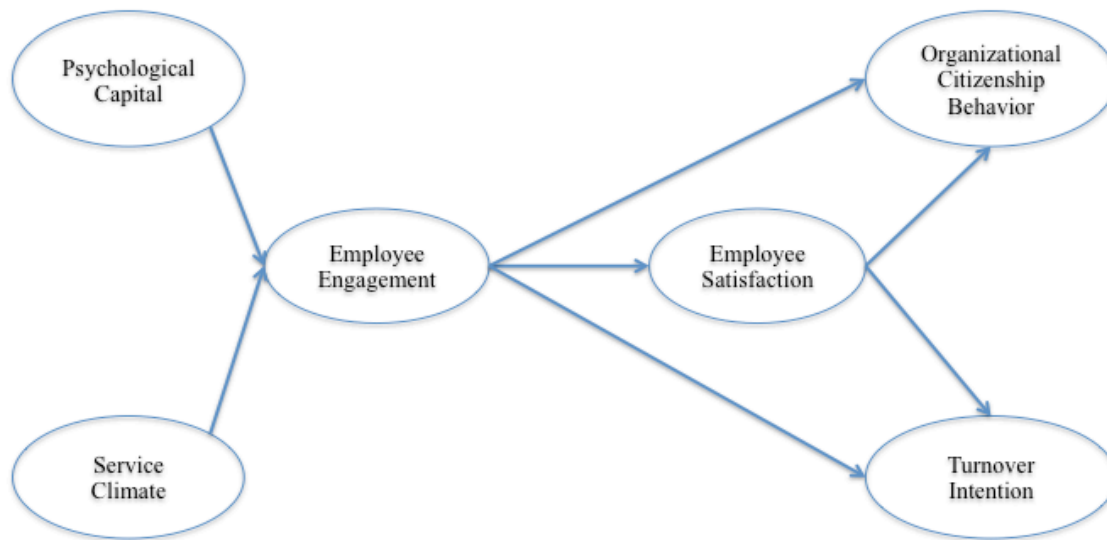


Figure 1. Conceptual model of employee engagement.

Research Hypotheses

Research has supported the link between psychological capital and employee engagement (e. g., Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Avey, Wernsing, and Luthans (2008) found that increased levels of psychological capital were associated with decreased levels of cynicism. In addition, Luthans et al. (2007) found a relationship between overall psychological capital and absorption, one of the indicators of employee engagement. Based on Hobfoll’s (2001) Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, Sweetman, Luthans, Avey, and Luthans (2011) argued that “the synergetic potential of efficacy, hope, optimism, and resiliency making up psychological capital would seem to be a powerful predictor of the interrelated components of vigor, dedication, and absorption associated with work engagement” (p. 63). Based on the literature review, the following hypothesis is offered:

H1: Psychological capital is positively related to employee engagement.

The climate for service rests on a foundation of fundamental support regarding the resources, training, and managerial practices that are necessary for employees to perform

their job effectively (Schneider et al., 1998). In addition, the antecedents of employee engagement identified to date include rewards and recognition as well as perceived organizational and supervisor support (Hackman, 1980; Hakanen et al., 2006; Saks, 2006; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007), which are elements of service climate. Thus, the hypothesis stemming from this research is:

H2: Service climate is positively related to employee engagement.

Employee engagement is a fulfilling, positive work-related experience and state of mind (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003). According to Kahn (1990), employees are more engaged in their job when they psychologically perceive meaningfulness of the work. Employee engagement refers to a persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state including vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Vigor refers to employee's energy level and their willingness to put effort into their work. Dedication is how much an employee is involved in their work and absorption is being fully concentrated in their work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). These positive experiences and emotions are posited to result in positive work outcomes (Saks, 2006) such as employee satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior.

Organization citizenship behaviors are discretionary actions that contribute to organizational effectiveness but are not part of employees' formal job description (Organ, 1988). Engaged employees have more dedication to their organization than disengaged employees, thus they are willing to help others and go beyond the normal expectations of their job. Highly engaged employees have a passion, energy, and feel a deep connection to the organization, thus increasing work performance and satisfaction in return.

Employee satisfaction is a positive feeling about individuals' job resulting from an

evaluation of its characteristics (Hodson, 1991). The relationship between employee satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior has been largely studied and supported by various studies (e.g. Bateman & Organ, 1983; Murphy, Athanasou, & King, 2002; Organ & Konosky, 1989)

Engaged employees are more involved in their organization and have less intention to voluntarily leave their organization (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Turnover intention is the subjective estimation by an individual regarding the probability of leaving their organization in the near future (Mowday et al., 1982). Not only are employees with high engagement less likely to search for a new job, but also satisfied employees have a lower turnover intention (Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Mobley et al., 1978; Singh & Loncar, 2010). Moreover, employee satisfaction is a stronger predictor for turnover than other attitudinal factors such as organizational commitment (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Several empirical findings support the relationship between engagement and outcomes, such as organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction and turnover intention (Saks, 2006). Based on the foregoing research, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3: Employee engagement is positively related to employee organizational citizenship behavior.

H4: Employee engagement is positively related to employee satisfaction.

H5: Employee engagement is negatively related to employee turnover intention.

H6: Employee satisfaction is positively related to organizational citizenship behavior.

H7: Employee satisfaction is negatively related to employee turnover intention.

Moreover, research has found a positive link between psychological capital and extra-role organizational citizenship behaviors (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2009), employee performance, and satisfaction (Luthans et al., 2007) and a negative relationship with turnover intention (Avey, Luthans, Jensen, 2009; Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2009), and job search behavior (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2009b). Norman, Avey, Nimnicht and Pigeon (2010) found that employees with high PsyCap were more engaged in organizational citizenship behavior and less likely to exhibit deviant behavior. Employees with high PsyCap are likely to have lower turnover intentions since they are likely to have higher levels of optimism regarding their future and confidence in their ability to succeed in their current job (Seligman, 1998) rather than being a quitter. In addition employees high levels of resilience make them are more likely to adapt the situation in a positive way (Avey, Luthans, Jensen, 2009). In addition to its relationship to work attitude, job satisfaction, and behavioral intentions, turnover intention, PsyCap has relation with extra role behavior, organizational citizenship behavior. Avey, Luthans, & Youssef (2009) argued that the nature of OCBs, both individual-oriented OCB and organizational-oriented OCB, is mostly applicable to a broader, holistic, integrated outcome from positivity.

Service Climate is “an integral source of information to employees by elucidating what behavior is desirable, expected, and rewarded” (Schneider et al., 2005, Walumbwa et al., 2010, P. 943). Employees in a positive service climate are more likely to create overall job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors (Paulin, Ferguson, & Bergeron, 2006). Moreover, given the literature review, it is proposed that employee engagement and employee satisfaction partially mediate the relationship between the

antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. From the evidences of previous studies, the following hypotheses were developed:

H8: Employee engagement mediates the relationship between antecedent and outcome variables.

H9: Employee Satisfaction mediates the relationship between employee engagement and the outcome variables of organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter involves the research design, data collection, and data analysis that will be used to examine the relationships among psychological capital, service climate, employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intention. The research design and methodology comprise four main parts: (1) research design including sampling and survey instruments, (2) pilot study procedures, (3) data collection procedures including data screening and, (4) structural equation modeling.

Research Design

This study examines a theoretical model that explains the interrelationships among six constructs: psychological capital, service climate, work engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, employee satisfaction, and turnover intention.

Sampling

The sample for this study was drawn from a large hotel corporation at five different locations in Southwestern U.S. area. All employees were eligible to participate in the study. A desired sample size of 320 employees was recommended to test the theoretical model.

Survey Instrument

The questionnaire is comprised of seven parts (see Appendix 1): psychological capital, service climate, employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, turnover intention, and demographic questions. Demographic questions such as age, gender, ethnicity, employment status, employee tenure, and title of

position were included in the beginning of the questionnaire. The study measures are adapted from validated scales used in prior research.

Psychological capital was examined by the PsyCap questionnaire (PCQ), which was developed by Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio (2007). The scale consists of 24 items with four subscales: efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism. Each subscales is consisted by six items. All items will be scored on a six-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = agree, 6 = strongly agree). The reliability of the overall PsyCap measure was consistently demonstrated with internal consistency reliability (alpha) as between .75 to .95 (e.g., Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009; Rego, Sousa, Marques, & Cunha, 2012; Walumbwa, Peterson, Avolio, Hartnell, 2010). Some of items used reverse scoring to conduct reliability and validity analyses of the PCQ.

Luthans et al. (2007) developed the 24-item PsyCap Questionnaire (PCQ), which is the composite of four sub dimensions: self-efficacy (Parker, 1998), optimism (Schneider & Carver, 1985), hope (Snyder et al., 1996), and resilience (Wagnild & Young, 1993). The research demonstrated that PsyCap as a composite construct is more strongly related to predicted outcomes than each of the four individual sub dimensions (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). The result can be explained that the combined motivational effects of PsyCap were broader and more impactful than each individual measure (Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Furthermore, research reveals that PsyCap has internal validity as the composite construct in addition to its relationship with valued outcome variables such as performance and satisfaction (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, et al., 2007).

The service climate scale was adapted from He, Li, and Lai (2010). Three subscales measured service climate: customer orientation (six items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .77$), managerial support (four items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .75$), and work facilitation (four items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .72$). A seven-point Likert-type response scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) was used.

The service climate construct has experienced a number of approaches to its measurement. However, there is not a consensus regarding the most appropriate service climate measure (Schneider & White, 2004). Originally service climate was represented by seven dimensions: managerial functions, effort rewarded, retaining customers, personnel support, central processing support, marketing support, and equipment/supply support (Schneider, Parkington, & Buxton, 1980). Schneider and Bowen (1985) advanced research on service climate and proposed four dimensions that included branch management (bank context), customer attention/ retention, system support, and logistic support. Later research by Schneider, White, and Paul (1998) revealed a three-factor model of service climate: customer orientation, managerial practices, and customer feedback. Based on studying organizations from multiple industries, Lytle, Hom, and Mokwa (1998) suggested 10 dimensions of service climate: servant leadership, service vision, customer treatment, employee empowerment, service training, service rewards, service failure prevention, service failure recovery, service technology. Schneider et al. (1998) also developed a six-item scale to measure global service climate to assess overall perceptions of climate and also individual facets.

He et al. (2010) argued that service climate should be considered an individual level variable rather than an organizational level variable since it measured psychological

meaningfulness to individuals. In this regard, He et al. (2010) proposed that service climate consisted of three components: customer orientation (six items; Day, 1994), managerial support (four items; Foley & Hang, 2005), and work facilitation (four items; Shainesh & Sharma, 2003). This study adapted the He et al. (2010) scale since this study seeks to understand individual's perception.

Employee engagement was assessed with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) short version consisting of three subscales: vigor (three items), dedication (three items), and absorption (three items) (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonz lez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). All items will be scored on a seven-point frequency rating scale ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (always). Cronbach's alpha for the vigor, dedication, and absorption scales in a previous study was: .72, .84, and .77 respectively.

Based on Kahn's (1990, 1992) notion of work engagement, May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) developed 13 items consisting of three dimensions: cognitive, emotional, and physical engagement. Rothbard (2001) also developed a work engagement scale based on Kahn's (1990, 1992) two-dimensional approach: attention and absorption. Later, Rothbard and Patil (2011) further developed the work engagement scale to include the three-dimensional components of: attention, absorption, and energy. Rich, LePine, & Crawford (2010) also developed a scale based on Kahn (1990, 1992) and Rothbard (2001) with three dimensions; physical, emotional, and cognitive engagement. Saks (2006) developed two six-item scales to measure job engagement and organizational engagement separately.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) and Schaufeli et al., (2002) developed the Utrecht Work Engagement Scales (UWES) which measure three dimensions: vigor, dedication, and

absorption. There are three different versions of UWES: the original version contains 17 items; a short version of nine items (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006) as well as a student version with the same number of items (Schaufeli, Maartinez, Marques Pinto, Salanova, Bakker, 2002). For a student version compared with the employee version, some items have been rephrased, for instance, 'When I'm doing my work as a student, I feel bursting with energy' instead of 'At my work, I feel bursting with energy'. For this study, a short version of UWES was adopted because it is the most widely used measure with good reliability (alpha ranged from .89 to .97) tested in 24 different studies.

The scale of employee's job satisfaction was adapted from Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly (1992). The scale includes six questions to measure overall job satisfaction, which represents the level of satisfaction with their work, supervision, co-workers, pay, promotion opportunities, and the job in general. All items were scored on a five-point Likert-type scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. Coefficient alpha in previous studies ranged from .73 to .78.

The scale to assess the level of employee's organizational citizenship behavior was adapted from Lee and Allen (2002). Eight items measures behaviors directed to the organization (OCBO) and eight items directed to individuals (OCBI). The participants responded to all items by using seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = never; 7 = always). Coefficient alpha from a previous study was .88 (OCBO) and .83 (OCBI).

Turnover intention was measured by DeConinck and Stilwell (2004) (alpha = .90). The scale measures employee's intent to leave their current employer by four items, which will be scored on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

In addition, demographic information including age, gender, ethnicity, department, employment status (part-time or full-time) and position, and employee tenure were collected to serve as control variables for further analysis.

Survey translations

The survey was prepared in two languages: English and Spanish. After the survey was developed, language experts translated it into Spanish since one of the industry's characteristics is a large population of Spanish speakers. It was translated back to English again for validation.

Pilot Survey

Prior to data collection, a pilot survey was conducted to refine the research instrument. The pilot survey was administered to employees who are currently working in a hotel company. Reliability and validity of the measures were examined.

Data Collection

After the pilot test, a convenience sample was obtained from four properties of a major casino hotel in the Southwestern, US. Data collection took place over a two week period during March. To test the theoretical model (Figure 1), an intercept survey approach was used at each property along with an online survey. For the intercept survey, a research table was setup near the entrance to the employee dining room to increase access to employees. Employees were approached with a request to participate in the study and a UNLV coffee mug was offered as an incentive. In addition, flyers that included the survey link were also distributed to employees in the dining room. A traditional paper and pencil survey was used with employees who did not have an access to computer at work. The on-line version of the survey was developed and available

through Qualtrics for employees who had access to computers. Both approaches were prepared in two different languages: English and Spanish.

This study involves employees' perception toward their management and organization, it is important to inform participants that their management has no involvement in this study. To avoid response bias, the researcher provided a cover page, written assurance of anonymity, to respondents prior to employees agreeing to participate in the survey. In addition, incentives, of a \$20 gift card for 20 employees were awarded through a random drawing. This incentive to participate in the study was used to increase the response rate along with periodic reminder e-mails. Remainder e-mails were sent out to employees via human resources department twice during the survey period.

Data Analysis

Data Screening and Assumption Testing

Data screening and preparation involved the following procedures: (1) screening missing data; (2) checking outliers; and (3) testing the normality. When screening for missing data, the pattern of missing data is important because if a non-random pattern is identified, it may affect the generalizability of results. Detecting errors and correcting them, or deleting subjects when errors in their scores are not correctable is recommended (Pedazur, 1997). To identify any errors of observed variables in the data file, SPSS 21 was used. Skewness and kurtosis on each variable were examined for univariate outliers. If any case(s) of outliers were found from the sample, distance and influence analysis were conducted to determine individual case(s) as outliers at the multivariate level.

Item Parceling

A parcel is a simple sum of several items measuring the same construct (Kishton & Widman, 1994). The entire set of item parcels reflect a single primary factor dimension or latent construct (Hall, Snell, & Foust, 1999). West, Finch, and Curran (1995) have recommended the use of item parcels as indicators of the latent constructs in SEM analysis to address problems with large sample size requirement, unreliability, and nonnormal or coarsely measured item-level data. According to Hall, et al. (1999), the composite-level indicators tend to be more reliable and normally distributed. Also, when a larger number of indicators per latent construct was used, the model will typically have more parameters. Determining sample size is based on the ratio of estimated parameters to respondents. Some research suggested that there are accompanying decreases in the value of a number of commonly used fit indices as the number of indicators per factor increases (Anderson & Gerbing, 1984; Williams & Holahan, 1994). Thus, increasing the number of indicators directly affects the sample size requirements for the study.

Structural Equation Modeling

Structure Equation Modeling (SEM) in AMOS (18.0) statistical software was used to assess the research hypotheses. SEM is a feasible statistical tool for exploring multivariate relationships among all the variables (i.e., measurement and latent variables) and for measuring path coefficients for both direct and indirect effects of structural hypotheses (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). SEM includes exogenous and endogenous variables (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). This study includes two exogenous variables (i.e., psychological capital and service climate) and four endogenous variables

(i.e., employee engagement, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intention).

As recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a two-step approach was employed to analyze the data. That is, a measurement model was first examined with all variables to assess the relationships between latent variables and measurement items, which serve as their indicators, and then the hypothesized model (the full SEM model) was tested. To test the model fit, several fit indexes were used including the Chi-square statistic (χ^2), comparative fit index (CFI), Non-normed fit index (NNFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of this research study. First, a description of the respondent characteristics is provided. Second, the descriptive statistics, including means, reliabilities, and correlations of the indicators for each factor are presented. Lastly, it contains the results of the measurement and structural equation modeling including both direct and indirect effects of constructs.

Respondent Characteristics

Response Rate

A total of 506 people agreed to participate in the study with 423 of those completing the survey; a rate of 83.6%. However, some cases were deleted if the survey was completed in less than 5 minutes. Due to length of this survey, it is not possible to read all questionnaires and answer them within that short timeframe. The final sample for data analysis was 362.

Demographics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of the respondents are shown in table 6. The average age of respondents was 42 years old and ranged from 20 to 69 years old. The majority of respondents were White (52.2%), followed by Hispanic/Latino (21.8%). Forty-seven percent of the respondents indicated that they worked the front of house (e.g. table games, slots, front desk) while 34.3% worked at the back of house (kitchen, stewarding). Ninety-seven percent of the sample was derived from the four different hotels used for the intercept survey. Hotels A and B represented the majority of participants (52%) with Hotels C and D totaling 41%. The participants were predominately full-time employees

(87.6%) while 4.7% worked part-time and 7.8% were on-call. Among the participants, 36.5% were employed with their current company more than 10 years and the majority of the participants were line-level employees (58.8%) with the remaining 36.5% at the manager or supervisor level.

Table 6

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic	Characteristics	N	Percent (%)
Gender	Female	195	53.9
	Male	164	45.3
	Prefer not to disclose	3	.8
Age	20 years old or less	1	.3
	21-30 years old	79	22.4
	31-40 years old	78	20.1
	41-50 years old	84	24.6
	51-60 years old	80	22.1
	61 years old or older	34	9.4
	Prefer not to disclose	4	1.1
Ethnicity	White	189	52.2
	Asian	37	8.8
	Hispanic / Latino(a)	79	21.8
	Black or African American	26	7.2
	American Indian	6	1.7
	Hawaiian National / Pacific Islander	10	2.8
	Other	10	2.8
	Prefer not to disclose	4	1.1
Working Area	Back of House	124	34.3
	Front of House	170	47
	Corporate	68	18.8
Properties	Hotel A	92	25.4
	Hotel B	97	26.8
	Hotel C	65	18
	Hotel D	83	23
	The Corporate Office	25	6.9
Employment Status	Full-time	317	87.6
	Part-time	17	4.7
	On-call	28	7.8
Tenure	Less than a year	56	15.5
	1-3 years	76	21
	4-6 years	35	9.7
	7-9 years	62	17.1
	More than 10 years	132	36.5
Position	Employee	213	58.8
	Manager/supervisor	132	36.5
	Director and above	17	4.7

Descriptive Statistics

Indicators of Constructs

This study involves six latent constructs: psychological capital (self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience), service climate (customer orientation, managerial support, and work facilitation), work engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption), organizational citizenship behavior (OCBI and OCBO), employee satisfaction, and turnover intention.

Table 7 presents the means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the indicators corresponding to each construct. Reliability represents the internal consistency estimates using Cronbach's α value. Items with a Cronbach's α values less than .65 were deleted as shown Table 7. Also, some items were deleted if they did not contribute to the constructs' reliability, although their values were greater than .65. For example, the reliability of the 6-item hope measure was .79. However, the reliability analysis indicated that Cronbach's alpha would be improved to .84 by deleting item 1. As a result, item 1 was deleted. The final results of reliability for each construct are shown in table 7.

Table 7

Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities of Indicators

	Initial Items	Deleted items	Final items	α	Mean	S.D.
Psychological Capital (PsyCap)	24	5	19	.85	4.97	.76
Self- Efficacy	6	0	6	.90	4.96	.80
Optimism	6	1	5	.89	5.02	.72
Hope	6	1	5	.84	5.06	.71
Resiliency	6	3	3	.78	4.84	.79
Service Climate (SC)	14	2	12	.92	5.63	1.32
Customer Orientation	6	0	6	.93	5.70	1.16
Managerial Support	4	0	4	.92	5.74	1.34

	Initial Items	Deleted items	Final items	α	Mean	S.D.
Work Facilitation	4	2	2	.90	5.45	1.46
Employee Engagement (EE)	9	3	6	.91	5.7	1.16
Vigor	3	1	2	.93	5.49	1.20
Dedication	3	1	2	.93	5.51	1.29
Absorption	3	1	2	.87	6.09	.99
Employee Satisfaction (ES)	6	0	6	.82	4.37	1.05
Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)	16	1	15	.90	5.62	1.00
OCB-Individual	8	1	7	.88	5.68	.95
OCB-Organization	8	0	8	.93	5.56	1.05
Turnover Intention (TI)	4	0	4	.94	2.24	1.22

Note. α = Cronbach's α ; S. D. = Standard Deviation.

Testing the Hypothesized Model

The Measurement Model

The measurement model specified six factors: psychological capital, service climate, employee engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, employee satisfaction, and turnover intention. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using AMOS (18.0) Statistical Software was used to test the hypotheses of this study. Prior to testing structural equation modeling, the measurement model was assessed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). The technique of CFA analyzes a priori measurement models in which both the number of factors and their correspondence with the indicators are explicitly specified (Kline, 2011).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Measurement Model

Confirmatory factor analysis was used for the measurement model. The initial measurement model (Table 8) provided a poor fit to the data as $\chi^2(1814) = 5455.139$, $p < .001$, GFI = .622, AGFI = .593, SRMR = .063, NNFI = .782, CFI = .791, RMSEA = .075

(CI 90%: .072~.077), although all factor loadings were at least larger than .5. Thus, the measurement model was modified by item random parceling methods, in which the grouping of items was formed using random procedure. There a variety of reasons for researchers to consider using item parcels, random or planned aggregation strategies, such as keeping the ratio of manifest indicators to latent constructs manageable, reducing the number of free parameters in the model, and increasing the chances of an adequate model fit (Hall, Snell, & Foust, 1999). Random aggregation strategies are recommended since it creates item parcels using a random procedure. That is, the random procedure means that the choice makes no difference or the choice is made without a rational basis. The modified measurement model (Table 8) showed a good fit to the data: $\chi^2(104) = 269.825$, $P < .001$, GFI = .917, AGFI = .878, SRMR = .041, NNFI = .947, CFI = .960, RMSEA = .066 (CI: .057~.076). Table 9 shows the results of the CFA, including standardized and unstandardized item loading estimates, construct reliability (CCR), and average variance extracted (AVE).

Table 8

Comparison of the Three Measurement Models CFA Results

	Single Factor Model	Initial Model	Item parceling measurement model
Chi-square (df)	10863.196 (1829)	5455.139 (1814)	269.825 (104)
GFI	.361	.622	.917
AGFI	.318	.593	.878
RMSEA	.117	.075	.066
CFI	.482	.791	.960
NNFI	.464	.782	.947

Note. $p = .000$

Table 9

Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	β	b (S. E.)	C. R.	CCR	AVE
PsyCap					
Self-Efficacy	.76				
Optimism	.86	1.032 (.065)	15.955***	.894	.680
Hope	.66	.774 (.063)	12.251***		
Resilience	.67	.872 (.071)	12.361***		
Service Climate					
Customer Orientation	.86				
Managerial Support	.91	1.227 (.057)	21.627***	.828	.616
Work Facilitation	.81	1.186 (.064)	18.593***		
Employee Engagement					
Vigor	.86			.869	.691
Dedication	.94	1.174 (.051)	23.204***		
Absorption	.77	.741 (.042)	17.501***		
Organizational Citizenship Behavior					
OCB Individual	.81			.835	.718
OCB Organizational	.88	1.203 (.072)	16.697***		
Employee Satisfaction					
PJS1	.90			.813	.595
PJS2	.78	.923 (.053)	17.397***		
PJS3	.69	.936 (.063)	14.843***		
Turnover Intention					
PTI1	.91			.912	.839
PTI2	.97	1.126 (.063)	17.773***		

Note. *** $p < .001$, β = estimates of standardized regression weights; b = unstandardized

estimates, S.E. = standardized error; C.R. = critical ratio (t-value); CCR = composite

construct reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; PJS1, PJS2 and PJS3 = parceled

items of job satisfaction; PTI1 and PTI2 = parceled items of turnover intention.

Construct Validity and Reliability

Construct validity ensures that the measurements represent the corresponding constructs and provide confidence in the findings of the study. Construct validity should be assessed by convergent and discriminant validity. Construct validity was determined by the strength of factor loadings, significance of *t*-values, and estimates of the average variance extracted (AVE) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All constructs showed satisfactory scale reliability indicated by the composite reliability of each construct, which was above the .7 threshold recommended by Hair et al. (1998). The standardized factor loadings of the measurement model were all statistically significant and higher than .5, which demonstrated the validity of the constructs (Table 9). Convergent validity was also established since the latent variables were explained by its observed variables. All the indicators loaded on the proposed constructs significantly, and the average variance extracted (AVE) (Table 9 & 10) was above the recommended cutoff of .5 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The AVE measures the amount of variance that is accounted for by the construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). CCR measures the degree to which items were free from random error and yielded consistent results (Raykov, 1997, 1998). Table 9 presents the composite reliabilities in the measurement model that ranged from .81 to .91 and above the recommended cutoff of .70 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). This confirms that the measures are internally consistent. The AVE values ranged from .595 to .839 and the composite construct reliability (CCR) ranged from .813 to .912. Thus, convergent validity was met.

Strong discriminant validity was demonstrated by the squared value of correlation coefficients between pairs of constructs, found to be less than the AVE for each construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As shown in table 10, all of the AVE was higher than the squared correlation coefficients, so this measurement model had sufficient discriminant validity. All correlation coefficients were also significant. Thus, nomological validity was also met. These three validity checks provided preliminary evidence that this modified measurement model has construct validity.

Table 10

Correlations among the Six Factors

	PCQ	SC	EE	OCB	ES	TI
Psychological Capital (PCQ)	.68	.27	.47	.63	.42	.11
Service Climate (SC)	.52	.62	.33	.26	.41	.06
Employee Engagement (EE)	.68	.52	.69	.49	.49	.16
Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)	.79	.52	.70	.72	.38	.08
Employee Satisfaction (ES)	.65	.62	.70	.62	.60	.25
Turnover Intention (TI)	-.33	-.23	-.40	-.28	-.50	.84
Mean	4.97	5.63	5.69	5.62	4.38	2.24
SD	0.76	1.32	1.16	1.00	1.02	1.23

Note. All correlation coefficients were significant ($p < .001$), a. AVE values are

along the diagonal, b. Correlation coefficients between constructs are under

triangle, c. Squared correlation coefficients between constructs are upper triangle.

This study involves cross-sectional data, which is vulnerable to common method variance. Common method variance is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). This has been a potential problem in behavioral research because it is one of the critical sources of measurement error, which threatens the validity of the conclusions

about the relationships between measures. It is driven by a random and a systematic component (Bagozzi & Yi, 1991; Nunnally, 1978; Spector, 1987). While both a random and a systematic are problematic, systematic measurement error has been treated more critically since it may provide a substitute justification for the observed relationships between the measures of constructs.

There are two primary techniques to control for common method biases; the design of the research procedures and statistical controls (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To reduce method biases, several procedures were used in this study. One procedure was to ensure that all respondents' answers were anonymous. As a result, respondents are less likely to modify their responses to be more socially desirable. Another way to reduce method biases was to improve scale items by eliminating ambiguous or unfamiliar terms, avoiding vague concepts, providing examples, and keeping questions simple. In addition, different scale endpoints were used to reduce method biases. Finally, a number of statistical tests were performed (see Table 8) to detect potential common method bias. The single factor procedure, which is based on confirmatory factor analysis, is a strong test of common method bias. A single factor model is examined in which all items loaded on one factor in order to address the problem of variance. When method variance is highly accountable for covariation among the constructs, the result of the CFA should indicate that a single factor model fits the data. However, the result of the single factor model did not represent the data well (see Table 8). Thus, the single factor model was not significant. Goodness-of-fit statistics for the initial model and the modified model were also included for a comparison.

In summary, the results of various analyses offer empirical evidence in support of construct validity and reliability. Convergent and discriminant validity were met and construct reliability was acceptable. These results indicate that the proposed measurement model is acceptable for further analysis.

The Structural Equation Model

The hypothesized framework was tested using structural equation modeling (SEM). The indices of the goodness of fit between the hypothesized model and the data were examined to determine if the model explained the data. To test the model fit, several fit indexes were used. Hair et al. (2010) suggested guidelines for using fit indices in different situations. The guidelines are based on simulation research that considers different sample sizes, model complexity, and degree of error in the model specification to examine how accurately various fit indices perform. According to the guideline, a comparative fit index (CFI) value of .92 or higher and a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value of .07 or less, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) value of .08 or less indicate good model fit. The initial structural equation model tested the interrelationships among all variables: psychological capital (PsyCap), service climate (SC), employee engagement (EE), employee satisfaction (JS), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and turnover intention (TI). As shown in Figure 2, all paths in the model were significant except the path between employee engagement and turnover intention. Fit statistics of the initial model showed a marginal fit to the data, $\chi^2(109) = 331.360, p < .001, \chi^2/df = 3.049, GFI = .902, AGFI = .862, SRMR = .057, NNFI = .932, CFI = .946, RMSEA = .075$ (90% CI: .066 ~ .084).

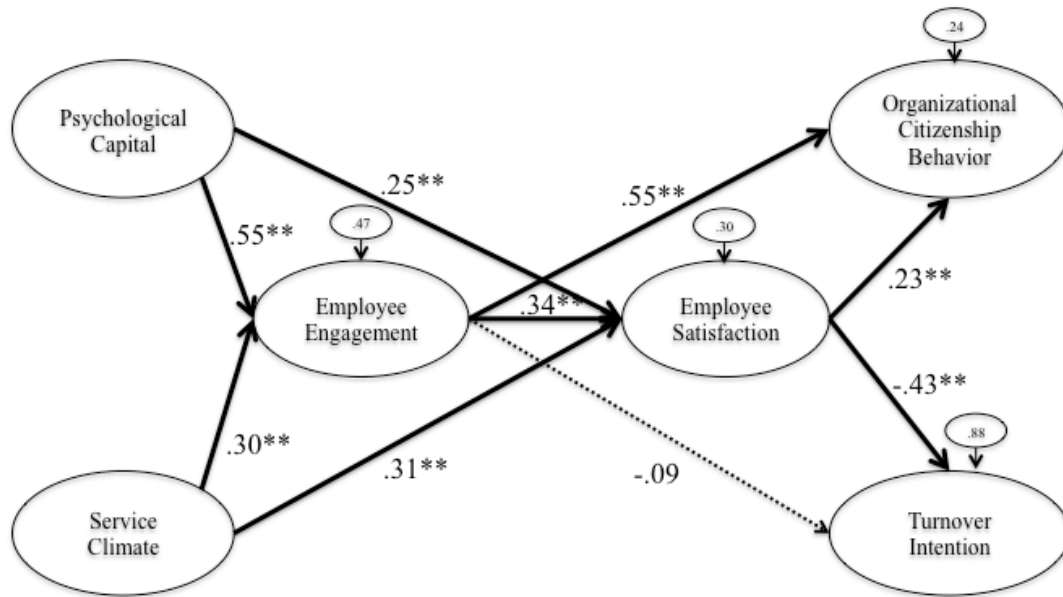


Figure 2. Results of the initial structural equation model.

Note Bold lines indicated significant paths and dotted line indicated a non-significant path.

****** $p < .01$.

The results of the SEM revealed that psychological capital and service climate explained 55% of the variance in hotel employee's work engagement. Further, employee's psychological capital, service climate, and work engagement explained 60% of the total variance in employee satisfaction. Fifty two percent of the variance in organizational citizenship behavior was predicted by PsyCap, service climate, employee engagement and employee satisfaction. On the other hand, 25% of the variance in turnover intention was predicted by employee satisfaction while controlling for the effects of psychological capital, service climate, and employee engagement.

The path estimates showed that psychological capital had a significant positive direct effect on employee engagement ($\beta = .55$, $t = 8.80$, $p < .001$); supporting Hypothesis 1; employee satisfaction ($\beta = .25$, $t = 3.70$, $p < .001$). Employees' perception about service

climate had a significant positive direct effect on employee engagement ($\beta = .30, t = 5.55, p < .001$), *supporting Hypothesis 2*; and employee satisfaction ($\beta = .31, t = 5.60, p < .001$).

Employee engagement had a significant positive direct effect on organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = .55, t = 7.24, p < .001$), *supporting Hypothesis 3*; and employee satisfaction ($\beta = .34, t = 4.89, p < .001$), *supporting Hypothesis 4*. However, employee engagement had no significant direct effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.10, t = -1.22, p = .223$), *not supporting Hypothesis 5*.

Employee satisfaction had a significant negative direct effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.43, t = -5.16, p < .001$), *supporting Hypothesis 7*; while employee satisfaction had significant positive direct effect on organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = .23, t = 3.33, p < .001$), *supporting Hypothesis 6*.

Table 11 presents the direct and indirect effects of the relationships among psychological capital, service climate, employee engagement, employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intention. Two thousand bootstrap samples were generated and bias was corrected in 90% of confidence intervals.

Psychological capital had a significant positive indirect effect on satisfaction ($\beta = .19, p < .01$) via employee engagement, organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = .40, p < .01$) through employee engagement and employee satisfaction while it had a significant negative indirect effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.24, p < .01$) via employee engagement and employee satisfaction.

Service climate had a significant positive indirect effect on employee satisfaction ($\beta = .10, p < .01$) via employee engagement, organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = .26, p$

< .01) through employee engagement and employee satisfaction while it had a significant negative indirect effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.20, p < .01$) via employee engagement and employee satisfaction. Thus, employee engagement mediated the relationship between antecedent and outcome variables ($ps < .01$); *supporting Hypothesis 8*.

Employee engagement had a significant negative indirect effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.15, p < .01$) and organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = .08, p < .01$) through employee satisfaction; *supporting Hypothesis 9*. Therefore, all hypotheses proposed in the theoretical model were supported by the results except the hypothesis 5.

Table 11

Relationships among Psychological Capital, Service Climate, Employee Engagement, Employee Satisfaction, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, and Turnover Intention

Independent Variables	Employee Satisfaction			Organizational Citizenship Behavior			Turnover Intention		
	Total effects	Direct effects	Indirect effects	Total effects	Direct effects	Indirect effects	Total effects	Direct effects	Indirect effects
PsyCap	.44**	.25**	.19**	.40**	N/A	.40**	-.24**	N/A	-.24**
Service Climate	.41**	.31**	.10**	.26**	N/A	.26**	-.20**	N/A	-.20**
Employee Engagement	.34**	.34**	N/A	.63**	.55**	.08**	-.24**	-.10	-.15**

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

To improve the model fit, modification indices were used. The results suggested that the model fit would improve by adding the path between psychological capital and organizational citizenship behavior in the model. The model was modified (Figure 3) based on the statistical suggestion and a theoretical rationale from the literature. The results of the modified SEM model are presented in Figure 3. The results of the maximum likelihood estimation showed a good model fit to the data: $\chi^2(108) = 275.803$, $p < .0001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.55$, GFI = .914, AGFI = .879, SRMR = .043, NNFI = .949, CFI = .959, RMSEA = .066 (90% CI: .056 ~ .075). The modified model improved when compared with the initial model with a CFI difference larger than .01. The modified model along with the estimates of standardized regression coefficients is presented in Figure 3. Overall, the structural regression coefficients were statistically significant except the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intention and the relationship between employee satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior.

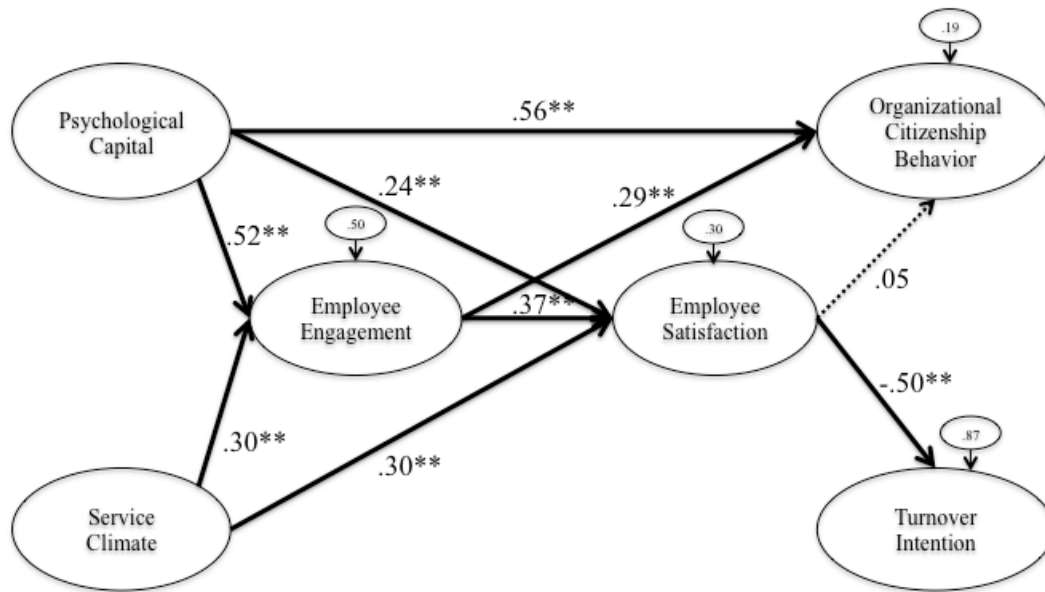


Figure 3. Modified structural equation model with structural regression paths.

Note Bold lines indicated significant paths and dotted line indicated a non-significant path.

$**p < .01$.

The final model without the non-significant path revealed a more parsimonious representation of the relationships between constructs and is shown in Figure 4. The results of the maximum likelihood estimation of the final model showed a good model fit to the data: $\chi^2(110) = 277.850, p < .0001, \chi^2/df = 2.53, GFI = .914, AGFI = .880, SRMR = .043, NNFI = .949, CFI = .959, RMSEA = .065$ (90% CI: $.056 \sim .075$).

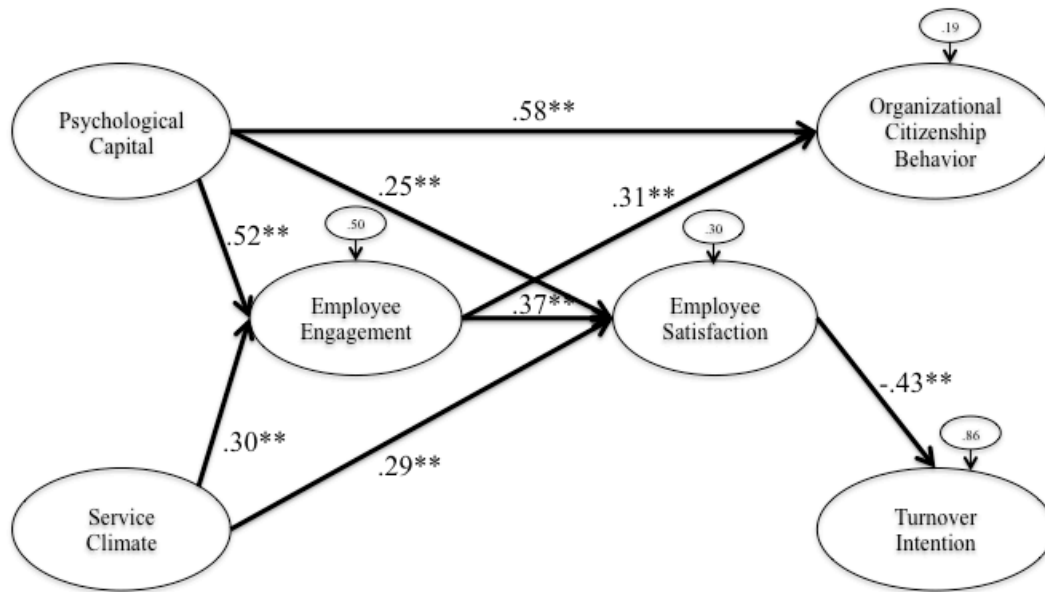


Figure 4. Final structural equation model with structural regression paths.

Note ** $p < .01$.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter summarizes and discusses the findings of the study and draws conclusions based on the results. The discussion and conclusion consists of three main sections: (1) revisiting the results and summarizing the findings of the study, (2) presenting the theoretical and practical implications, and (2) addressing the limitations of this study and recommendations for future research.

Review of the Study Results

This study investigated the relationship among psychological capital, service climate, employee engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, employee satisfaction, and turnover intention based on positive organizational behavior (POB). Particularly, this study focuses on the direct and indirect impacts of employee engagement on the human resource outcome variables of organizational citizenship behavior, employee satisfaction, and turnover intention, by applying social exchange theory. The hypothesized model fit the data well, supporting the importance of employees' psychological states to be highly engaged in their work and organization thus more satisfied, willing to help others, and more likely remain in their organization.

Effects of Psychological Capital

The results of this study showed that psychological capital (PsyCap) had significant impacts on employees' state, attitude, and behavior in their organization. Psychological capital was assessed based on the factors of employees' self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience. The measurement model showed that all factor loadings of the indicators on psychological capital was statistically significant, ranging from .66 to .86. Thus, all

four indicators were meaningful factors to explain psychological capital. Among the four indicators, optimism had the highest factor loadings (.86) followed by self-efficacy (.76) on psychological capital (composite reliability = .89). On the other hand, hope (.66) and resilience (.67) showed relatively low factor loadings on psychological capital. Still, the reliability of the overall PsyCap measure was consistently above conventional standards.

The final model revealed that participants' psychological capital had a significant positive direct effect on employee engagement ($\beta = .55$), employee satisfaction ($\beta = .25$), and organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = .56$). The findings supported previous research of significant relationships among variables (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2006; Luthans, Youssef, Avolio, 2007; Sweetman & Luthans, 2010). Particularly, participants' psychological capital had a significant direct effect on employee engagement, which in turn significantly influenced organizational citizenship behavior. In other words, employees' psychological capital was an important direct antecedent of employee engagement and direct and indirect antecedent of organizational citizenship behavior. The important understanding of the power of employees' psychological capital is crucial to increase employees' citizenship behavior, which has been verified as a predictor of turnover intention (e.g. Coyne & Ong, 2007; Paré, & Tremblay, 2007; Tsai & Wu, 2010) in various disciplines.

Psychological capital had an indirect effect on employee satisfaction ($\beta = .19$) through the mediator of employee engagement and on organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = .40$) through the mediating effects of employee engagement and satisfaction. That means employees with a higher level of psychological capital were engaged more in their work, experienced higher satisfaction with their job, and showed stronger citizenship

behavior at the individual (OCBI) and organizational (OCBO) level. Lastly, the indirect effect of psychological capital on turnover intention was supported (Table 11). From the results, psychological capital had a slightly higher indirect effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.24$) than the other model antecedents, service climate ($\beta = -.20$) and employee engagement ($\beta = -.15$). The result not only supported previous findings of a negative relationship between PsyCap and turnover intention (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009; Avey, Luthans, & Youssef 2009), but it also revealed that employees with a high degree of PsyCap had a lower turnover intention through their degree of engagement and degree of satisfaction at work.

Effects of Service Climate

Limited research on service climate has been conducted in hospitality. This study examined the impact of service climate as one of the antecedents of employee engagement and the human resource outcomes. Service climate showed significant impacts on employees' state, attitude, and behavior in their organization. Service climate was measured based on the factors of their company's level of customer orientation, managerial support, and the level of work facilitation. The measurement model indicated that all factor loadings of the indicators on service climate were statistically significant, ranging from .81 to .91. The composite construct reliability of service climate was .83.

The full model indicated that participants' perception regarding their organizations' service climate had a significant positive direct effect on employee engagement ($\beta = .30$) and employee satisfaction ($\beta = .31$). This implies that employees with a higher level of service climate at their organization were more engaged in their work. This suggests that employees are willing to bring their full potential at work when they perceive that the

company provides adequate support from supervisors and managers, along with necessary resources and tools. In addition, employees' perceived quality of service climate fosters higher satisfaction with their work, quality of supervision, pay, and growth opportunities. The positive relationship between service climate and employee satisfaction in hotel firms is consistent with previous studies (Chathoth, Mak, Jauhari, & Manaktola, 2007). There were new findings in this study as service climate presented a significant positive indirect effect on job satisfaction ($\beta = .10$) via employee engagement, organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = .26$), and a negative indirect effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.20$) via employee engagement and satisfaction. The relationship between employee engagement and turnover intention and employee satisfaction and turnover intention has been actively demonstrated. However, from the findings of the current study service climate influenced both employee engagement and employee satisfaction, to reduce employee turnover intention. It is a unique finding of this study that service climate was an important component to understand the turnover phenomenon in the hospitality workplace.

Effects of Employee Engagement on Outcome Variables

Psychological capital and service climate explained 55% of the variance in hotel employee's work engagement. Between two variables, psychological capital had larger influence on employee engagement. The impact of employee engagement is central to this study since employee engagement links the framework of this study through direct and indirect paths. Employee engagement was assessed based on the factors of the employees' degree of vigor, dedication, and absorption. The measurement model showed that all factor loadings of the indicators of employee engagement was statistically

significant, ranging from .77 to .94. The composite construct reliability of employee engagement was highly significant as .87.

The results of the initial model showed that employee engagement was influenced by psychological capital ($\beta = .55$) and service climate ($\beta = .30$) while employee engagement had significant direct impacts on employee satisfaction ($\beta = .34$), organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = .55$), and indirect impacts on turnover intention ($\beta = -.15$) via employee job satisfaction. That means that the level of employees' engagement was influenced by employees' degree of psychological capital, which supported the findings of Sweetman, Luthans, Avey, & Luthans (2011), and their perception of service climate. Further, employees with a high degree of engagement showed greater satisfaction, stronger citizenship behavior, and lower turnover intention. Employee engagement is based on employees' degree of energy, involvement, and concentration in their work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). The energy that highly engaged employees exhibit results in positive work outcomes (Saks, 2006), such as greater satisfaction, stronger citizenship behavior, and lower turnover intention. Highly engaged employees have more dedication to their organization. Thus, they are more likely to help other employees and go above and beyond their job requirements resulting in high citizenship behavior. The negative relationship between employee engagement and turnover intention also supported previous research (Saks, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

This study involved three human resource outcomes: organizational citizenship behavior, employee satisfaction, and turnover intention. Among the three outcome variables, employee satisfaction mediated the relationship between employee engagement

and the other two variables; organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention. PsyCap, service climate, and employee engagement explained 60 % of total variance in employee satisfaction, which had a direct effect on turnover intention. Further, employee engagement had an indirect negative effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.15$) through employee satisfaction. From Table 11, employee engagement had no significant negative effect on turnover intention while employee engagement had an indirect effect on turnover intention. Thus, this result revealed that employee satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intention. This also indicated that employee satisfaction had a stronger impact on turnover intention than employee engagement.

An unexpected finding was that employee engagement had no indirect effect on organizational citizenship behavior via employee satisfaction. The impact of employee satisfaction on employee citizenship behavior was significant ($\beta = .23$), which is consistent with previous research (e.g. Bateman & Organ, 1983; Murphy, Athanasou, & King, 2002; Organ & Konosky, 1989), in the initial model (Figure 2) where the structural model did not include the path between psychological capital and organizational citizenship behavior in the model. However, the relationship became insignificant when the structural model included the path between psychological capital and organizational citizenship behavior in the final structural equation model. This may be due to the weak effect of employee satisfaction on citizenship behavior or the strong impact of psychological capital on employee citizenship behavior. Among the three constructs (PsyCap, employee engagement, and employee satisfaction), which had a direct impact

on organizational citizenship behavior, PsyCap showed the strongest relationship ($\beta = .58$) on organizational citizenship behavior.

Theoretical Contribution

This study has several theoretical contributions. Social exchange theory (SET) was used as the framework to conceptualize the theoretical model. SET predicted the relationships between the antecedent and outcome constructs in the theoretical model, which was statistically supported. Further, this study offers a new theoretical model of employee engagement in the hospitality context by examining its antecedents at both the individual and organizational level, as well as how employees' levels of engagement impacts employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in the workplace.

Second, this study represents one of the first to develop and test a comprehensive model of employee engagement based on positive organizational behavior (POB). Employees' positivity has influence potential on their attitude and behavioral outcomes. Employees' level of psychological capital (self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience) showed its powerful impact on the level of employee engagement. Also, the results demonstrated the importance of employees' level of engagement in the workplace that contributed to enhanced satisfaction, encouraging extra role behavior, and reducing turnover rate.

Third, to the best of researchers' knowledge, this study is one of the first to demonstrate the impact of psychological capital on organizational citizenship behavior. Importantly, this study has revealed a unique finding; the indirect effect (i.e., mediated by employee engagement) of psychological capital on organizational citizenship behavior. Researchers have tested the relationship between psychological capital and organizational

citizenship behavior, but studies focused on either a direct relationship (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2009) or the relationship, which was strengthened by moderators (Beal, Stravros, & Cole, 2013; Norman, Avey, Nimnicht and Pigeon, 2010).

Fourth, the literature on service climate focuses its impact on customers such as the quality of service delivery (Liao & Chung, 2007; Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998) and customer satisfaction (Johnson, 1996). This study revealed that service climate had a strong direct effect on employee engagement and employee satisfaction in addition to indirect effects on organizational citizenship behavior, employee satisfaction, and turnover intention. Yoon et al. (2001) tested the indirect effects of service climate on employee satisfaction via employee's work effort. However, the current study revealed that the mediating effect of employee engagement was significant in understanding the relationship between service climate and employee satisfaction.

This study further validated the significant role of employee engagement plays in employees' performance (Saks, 2006, Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Employees' state-like constructs were mediated by employee engagement leading to attitude and behavior outcomes. Specifically, employee engagement was a critical mediator between the antecedents (i.e., psychological capital, service climate) and outcomes (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior, employee satisfaction, turnover intention).

Practical Implications

There are several important practical implications for hospitality managers and the hospitality industry resulting from this study. The findings from conceptual modeling and empirical study of employee engagement provide significant insights for managers who

are challenged to retain employees, and foster organizational citizenship behaviors as well as being critical in the competition for talent (Boswell, Ren, & Hinrichs, 2008).

The study findings revealed that it is not only important, but also necessary to focus on positivity in the workplace through selection, training, and development of employees along with the education and training of current and future managers. A positive resource such as psychological capital, which is state-like and dynamic, can be developed through and human resource practices. In the selection process, hospitality human resource managers should consider their criteria for the recruitment and hiring of employees who possess high psychological capital; specifically high self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience. These selection criteria are especially meaningful for managerial positions since a leader's level of psychological capital plays a critical role in developing followers' psychological capital (Walumbwa, Peterson, Avolio, & Hartnell, 2010). Employees who embody psychological capital feel confident contributing to the company's strategy and the goals in their work area. They see things from a positive viewpoint and possess abilities to solve problems and move forward when confronted with challenging situations. Thus, they are likely to engage more in their work.

For employees who are currently working, it is critical to provide training and development efforts, which enhance the positive resources of employees' psychological capital. Increasing employees' psychological capital may cultivate their citizenship behavior and improve the level of satisfaction, in turn, reduce voluntary turnover. Organization can boost employees' psychological capital with short training interventions (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, & Peterson, 2010). A training program of 1-3 hours was found to enhance employees' level of efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience by participating

in Human Resource Development Human Resource Development (HRD) technique such as goal setting and learning processes and exercises (Luthans, 2012; Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008). Again, employees with high psychological capital are not only engaged more at work, but also more willing to go beyond their job description. In today's Competitive environment, and especially in the dynamic customer service delivery of the hospitality industry, every effort should be undertaken to elevate the important aspects of employees' positive resources.

This study provides insights as to why it is important to select employees with high psychological capital, and create and maintain an optimal service climate for employees. Employees with high psychological capital and a supportive climate for service were more engaged at work suggesting an exchange relationship. This exchange or reciprocal relationship highlights the importance of employee and organization contributions to engagement. In addition, Walumba et al. (2010) suggested that when service climate perceptions are high, psychological capital has an even a stronger impact on performance. Thus, organizations should be aware of how to better foster their service climate to increase employees' perceptions of their environment and engagement. Specifically, organizations should focus on a customer orientation, employees' resources and rewards to create and maintain a supportive environment.

Employee engagement fully mediated the relationship between antecedents (psychological capital and service climate) and employees' turnover intention thus highlighting the powerful effect of employee engagement. While the financial impact of employee turnover is well known, turnover not only increases the cost of employee staffing, it also influences employees' productivity. In addition, high turnover intention

will cause an organization to lose employees with a high degree of knowledge, skill and ability, having a negative impact on organizational culture and employee morale. In summary, the major recommendation of this study for hospitality practitioners is to adopt specific strategies in order to enhance employees' psychological capital and service climate to engage their employees so that they can potentially increase the organizations' ability to retain talented employees. From the findings of this study, hospitality organizations will have insights that inspire a closer examination of the approaches to amplify employee engagement and the role that it plays in important human resource outcomes.

Limitations and Future Research

This study involves several limitations. The same participants in the study rated the antecedent, mediating, and outcome variables at one point in time. Although approaches to reduce possible common method variance were implemented in developing the survey instrument, processing data collection, and additional statistical checks, the data from the same participant could still be a limitation. Because it presents the possibility that these results can be attributed to common method variance (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Common-method bias can be abridged by implementing several preemptive strategies (such as collecting data from different sources) (Lindell & Whitney 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Therefore, future research should recruit subjects from different sources. For instance, future research could collect data about the perceptions of service climate from two different sources such as employees and supervisors. In addition, this study collects data at a single point in time and does not capture employees' attitudes and behaviors that would likely change over a longer time frame. To validate the

stability of employee attitudes and behaviors, future researchers should conduct a longitudinal study by extending the time frame and examining state status in different situations to further validate the relationships.

A limitation also concerns the generalizability of the findings. Participants were limited to hospitality employees working in five different locations within the same corporation in the USA. Thus, the findings may not generalize to other hospitality contexts. Therefore, future research should be conducted in a number of different hospitality corporations in order to explore these constructs; ultimately enhancing the external validity and generalizability of the study.

There's still a need for additional research. Future research might focus on identifying potential intervening variables, which may help uncover the discrete level linkages between psychological capital and employee engagement and also between employee engagement and job performance. Multi-level analysis would allow for a deeper understanding of the relationship among constructs in the model. In this study, we focused on how individual and organizational resources impact employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. In future studies, incorporating other potential positivity variables such as employee's positive emotions and employee subjective well-being into the research model would shed further light on the understanding of the effects on employee engagement. Further, researchers have been focused on employee engagement at the individual level, however, a great deal of work is carried out by teams. So, research should also consider examining the factors that contribute to team engagement.

Appendix 1

Survey Instrument

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Introduction: The purpose of this study is to develop and test a theoretical model that explains the interrelationships among six constructs: psychological capital, service climate, work engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, employee satisfaction, and turnover intention.

Procedures: You will first be asked one screening question. Then, the survey will start with some demographic questions and your perceptions about your occupation and involvement in your organization. The survey should take about 10-15 minutes to complete.

Risks/Discomforts: There are minimal risks for involvement in this study. However, participants may feel emotionally uneasy when asked some demographic questions and when asked to remember your perceptions about your occupation and involvement in your organization. Although we do not expect any harm to come upon any participants due to electronic malfunction of the computer, it is possible, though extremely rare and uncommon.

Benefits: There may not be any benefits to you as a participant in this study. However, we hope to learn about the role of employee engagement in the golf industry and your input will help make this study a success.

Confidentiality: All data obtained from participants will be kept confidential and will only be reported in an aggregate format (by reporting only combined results and never reporting individual ones). All questionnaires will be concealed, and no one other than the principal and the co investigator listed below will have access to them. The data collected will be stored in the HIPAA-compliant secure database, until the primary investigator has deleted it.

Compensation: At the conclusion of the survey you may elect to participate in a random draw of twenty survey participants who will each receive a \$20 gift card. Otherwise there is no direct compensation from the researchers.

Participation: Participation in this research study is completely voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at anytime or refuse to participate entirely without any jeopardy to you. If you desire to withdraw, please simply close your internet browser and no further action is required. If you want to continue, you can click on the arrow at the bottom right side of the page.

Questions about the Research: If you have questions regarding this study, you may contact principal investigator James Busser, at 702-895-0942, james.busser@unlv.edu or co investigator Annette Kang, at 702-895-5438, kangh2@unlv.nevada.edu.

Questions about your Rights as Research Participants: If you have questions you do not feel comfortable asking the researcher, you may contact Office of Research Integrity at University of Nevada, Las Vegas at toll free number 877 895 2794 or irb@unlv.edu.

Participant Consent:

By checking below you agree to have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. You also agree you are at least 18 years of age.

- ☐ I have read this informed consent and I AGREE to participate.
- ☐ I have read this informed consent and I do NOT AGREE to participate.

Section 1: Please read all questions carefully and answer as best as you can.

1. What is your current age? _____
2. What is your gender?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
 - c. Prefer not to disclose
3. What is your primary ethnicity?
 - a. White
 - b. Hispanic / Latino(a)
 - c. Black or African American
 - d. American Indian
 - e. Asian
 - f. Hawaiian National / Pacific Islander
 - g. Other _____
 - h. Prefer not to disclose
4. Which area of this organization do you mainly work for?
 - a. Back of House (Kitchen, Stewarding, etc.)
 - b. Front of House (Table Games, Slots, Total Rewards, etc.)
 - c. Corporate
5. Which of the following properties do you work for at Caesars?
 - a. Caesars Palace
 - b. Paris Las Vegas
 - c. Rio
 - d. The corporate office
6. What is your current employment status at this company?
 - a. Full-time
 - b. Part-time
 - c. On-call
7. How many years have you worked for this company?
 - a. Less than a year
 - b. 1-3 years
 - c. 4-6 years
 - d. 7-9 years
 - e. 10+ years
8. Which category below best represents your position?
 - a. Employee
 - b. Manager/Supervisor
 - c. Director and above

Section 2: Service Climate

Please mark how much you agree with the following statements regarding service climate at work.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Undecided	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My hotel has clear ideas about customers and their needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. High quality service is emphasized as the best way to keep customers coming back to my hotel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My hotel defines its products/services from customers' perspectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My hotel does a good job of keeping customers informed of changes that affect them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. We are informed about external customer evaluations of the quality of service delivered by my business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My hotel always responds to the customers' feedback and suggestions quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My direct manager/supervisor supports me when I come up with new ideas on how to improve customer service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My direct manager/supervisor encourages me to deliver high quality service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My manager/supervisor is responsive to my requests for help or guidance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. My manager is very committed to improving the quality of our area's work and service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. I receive adequate support from co-workers to help me do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. If I perform my job well, I receive appropriate recognition and rewards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I have the manuals and resource materials I need to provide services.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I have access to the tools, resources, and policies information when I need them to do my work in my work area.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3: Employee Engagement

Please mark how much you agree with the following statements.

	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1. I feel energized at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. When I get up in the morning, I feel motivated to go to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I am excited/enthusiastic about my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My job motivated/inspires me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am proud of the work that I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I feel happy when I am working hard.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am really focused when I am working hard.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I get carried away when I am working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 4: Job Satisfaction

Please mark how much you agree with the following statements.

	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Niether Satisfied or Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
1. How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform?	1	2	3	4	5
2. How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you-your organizational superior?	1	2	3	4	5
3. How satisfied are you with your relations with others in the organization with whom you work-your co-workers or peers?	1	2	3	4	5
4. How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job?	1	2	3	4	5
5. How satisfied are you with the opportunities that exist in this organization for advancement or promotion?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your current job situation?	1	2	3	4	5

Section 5: Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Please mark how often you do the following statements.

	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1. I help others who have been absent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I go out of my way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I give up time to help others who have work or non-work related problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I assist others with their	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

duties.							
8. I share personal property with others to help their work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I am willing to attend events that are not required but that help the organizational image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I keep up with developments in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I defend the organization when other employees criticize it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I feel pride when representing the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I express loyalty toward the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I take action to protect the organization from potential problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I care about the image of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 6: Turnover Intention

Please mark how much you agree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree to Some Extent	Uncertain	Agree to Some Extent	Strongly Agree
1. Within the next six months, I intend to search for another job.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Within the next year, I intend to leave this profession.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Within the next six months, I would rate the likelihood of leaving my present job as high.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Within the next year, I rate the likelihood of searching for a job in a different profession as high.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 7: Example of Psychological Capital Items

Please mark how much you agree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. If I found myself in a jam at	1	2	3	4	5	6

work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.						
13. When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it or moving on. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6

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Psychological Capital Questionnaire

***English: Self-Rater Form, Other Rater Form,
Scoring Scale***

Spanish: Self-Rater Form, Other Rater Form

By Fred Luthans, Bruce J. Avolio & James B. Avey

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info@mindgarden.com
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VITA

Graduate College
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Hee Jung Kang

Degrees:

Bachelor of Science, Hospitality Administration, 2004
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Master of Science, Hotel Management, 2010
Sejong University, Seoul, South Korea

Publications:

Erdem, M., & Kang, H. A. (2013). Employee engagement: HR executives on keeping employees connected. *Journal of Hospitality Financial & Technology Professionals*, 28(2), 34.

Kang, H. A., Gatling, A., & Kim, J. S. (2015). The Impact of Supervisory Support on Organizational Commitment, Career Satisfaction and Turnover Intention for Hospitality Frontline Employees. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*.

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Chairperson, James A. Busser, Ph.D.
Committee Member, Robert H. Woods, Ph.D.
Committee Member, Mehmet Erdem, Ph.D.
Graduate Faculty Representative, Eunsook Hong, Ph.D.