12-1-2015

Understanding Employee Work Attitudes: An Integration of Psychological Contract Theory and Organizational Support Theory

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UNDERSTANDING EMPLOYEE WORK ATTITUDES: AN INTEGRATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT THEORY AND ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT THEORY

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2011

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirement for the

Doctor of Philosophy - Hospitality Administration

William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration
The Graduate College

University of Nevada, Las Vegas
December 2015

UNLV | GRADUATE COLLEGE

Dissertation Approval

The Graduate College
The University of Nevada, Las Vegas

November 13, 2015

This dissertation prepared by

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entitled

Understanding Employee Work Attitudes: An Integration of Psychological Contract Theory and Organizational Support Theory

is approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy – Hospitality Administration
William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration

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ABSTRACT

UNDERSTANDING EMPLOYEE WORK ATTITUDES: AN INTEGRATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT THEORY AND ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT THEORY

By

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Employee motivation and retention are critical concerns for the hospitality industry. The purpose of this study was to understand employees' work attitudes and emotional affect through a social exchange perspective by integrating employee psychological contract theory and organizational support theory. Affective event theory provided the theoretical foundation for this study. Data was analyzed using exploratory factor analysis and path analysis. The results showed that employees' psychological contract fulfillment was a strong predictor of their perceived organizational support. In addition, psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support together explained employee affect at work as well as other work attitudes. Affect at work was a mediator for various relationships among psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support and employee work attitudes. This study contributes to both psychological contract theory and organizational support theory as well as affect research in the hospitality literature. More importantly, this study provides industry managers with implications for motivating and retaining employees.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are many individuals and organizations supported me in this study. Without this support, I would never have been able to complete the dissertation. So I would like to take this opportunity to express my sincere thankfulness to them.

First of all, I would like to thank my committee chair, Dr. James A. Busser. There are not enough words to express my gratitude for the immeasurable support, motivation and encouragement you provided during my long journey at UNLV. Your professionalism and thoughtfulness have been priceless to me. Without your belief in me, I would never have reached this goal. You are not only a teacher but also an invaluable mentor, a great friend and a trustworthy family member to me. Thank you again for all that you have done for me.

I would also like to thank my other committee members, Dr. Yeonsoo Kim, Dr. Stowe Shoemaker, and Dr. Robert Woods. Dr. Kim, thank you for guiding me through the early stage of my research interest on Talent Management. Your guidance offered the initiation of this study. Dr. Shoemaker, thank you for the great insights you offered as well as your assistance on analyzing the data. You have been a great role model for me throughout my journey from UH to UNLV. Dr. Woods, I would like to thank you for your wonderful thoughts and suggestions that were eye opening as well as elevating my writing. You have made this dissertation a better product. I will never forget you as a great mentor in my life.

I also want to thank the William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration at UNLV as well as the friends and colleagues here, for providing me an excellent learning environment. In addition, I would like to thank the William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration for providing the financial support on my data collection in this study. Without this support, this study would never happen.

Most importantly, I would like to express my enormous gratitude to all my family members for standing by me, especially my parents and my mother in-law. Without the support and motivation from my beloved parents, I would not be able to come to the United States to pursue and earning my doctoral degree. Thank you Mom and Dad! I love you! Also, without my wonderful mother in-law's selfless support in taking care of my young daughter, I would not have been able to complete this dissertation. Thank you to all of my lovely family! I love you!

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my parents, my husband and my beloved daughter, Wendy. Without the love from you all, this wok would never have been completed.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Take care of associates and they'll take care of your customers." (J. Willard Marriott, n.d.)

The hospitality industry has a poor reputation based on its work environment and its treatment to employees (Lucas, 1996). Various employee issues continue to impact hospitality employers' financial performance. Employee turnover was a significant concern for the hospitality industry several decades ago (Mobley, 1977) and it is still one of the biggest concerns today (Yang, Wan, & Fu, 2012). Additionally, selecting and retaining talented employees has emerged recently as another concerning issue. This has attracted media attention (PRNewswire, 2014). Despite these human resource issues, hospitality employers strive to maintain and establish positive employee-employer relations. A few of hospitality employers have recently been recognized in the category of 100 best companies to work for in various business magazines (Hinkin & Tracey, 2010). So the interesting questions are: what are the important hospitality employees work factors and how do those factors influence their daily work? This study will employ a social exchange perspective to examine employee-employer relations in the hospitality industry and the factors that influence employee work attitudes and behaviors in an attempt to answer that question.

The hospitality industry is very unique. Its products are not tangible goods but intangible services delivered at the moment of truth (Carlzon, 1987). These hospitality services are delivered onsite (e.g., restaurant, hotel, spa), through intensive employee-customer interactions. Therefore, hospitality employees are not only the representatives of the organization but also an

integral part of the service delivery process (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). Therefore, to some degree, the difficulty of quality control in the hospitality industry becomes the challenge of managing employees. Many studies in hospitality have demonstrated that employee attributes are essential to customers' satisfaction and the firm's financial performance (e.g. Chi & Gursoy, 2009; He, Li & Lai, 2011; Jung & Yoon, 2013; Zhao & Mattila, 2013).

On the other hand, employee attributes are majorly influenced by a firm's human resource management (HRM) polices, practices, culture, and climate (Barney & Wright, 1998; Coff, 1997; Lado & Wilson, 1994). Barney's (1991) resources based theory argued that any resource that is either valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable, or substitutable could contribute to a firm's competitive advantage. Along with this argument, employees have become one of the most important resources of a firm because of their skills, knowledge, abilities and personality (Wright, Dunford & Snell, 2001; Wright, McMahan & McWilliams, 1994).

Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan and Buyruk (2010) provided a basic model of the strategic role of human resources in hospitality organizations. In their model, employees' work-related attitudes and behaviors are viewed as a mediator between several antecedents (e.g. human capital stock, human resource management systems and practices, internal marketing, organizational culture) and outcomes (e.g. customer satisfaction, organizational financial performance). Therefore, employee work attitudes are critical because they are indicators of their actual performance. Thus, how to facilitate employee positive work attitudes become crucial.

A major framework for explaining the employee-employer relationship is social exchange theory (SET), which implies that individuals entering a relationship with an expectation that investing their resources will result in maximum benefits (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958). Emerson (1976) suggested that social exchange theory is a frame of reference upon which many micro and

macro theories are reliant. Two major theories rooted within social exchange theory are useful in explaining employee-employer relationships. Those two theories are organizational support theory (OST) and psychological contract theory (PCT). Both of these theories assume that employment is an exchange relationship, especially from an employee's perspective. While OST considers organizations' favorable practices from the perspective of employees' perceived organizational support (POS), which influences their work attitudes and behaviors; PCT is based on the deviance between employees' expectations of employers' obligations and their perceived inducements, which is the key determinant of employees' work attitudes and behaviors.

Problem Statement

Social exchange theory recognizes the importance of understanding employee motivations by noting the norm of reciprocity in the relationship. According to social exchange theory, in every exchange relationship, when one party of the relationship provides favorable treatment as a donor, he/she would expect the other party to return the favorable treatment by providing desirable resources (Gouldner, 1960). In an employee-employer relationship, the employer provides necessary economic (e.g. wages, benefits) and socio-emotional (e.g. social support, recognition) resources to employees with the expectations that employees provide favorable resources (e.g. work performance, loyalty) in return. Therefore, an employee would hold an expectation that his/her employer will pay him/her with adequate salary and other benefits. Both PCT and OST agree on this norm of reciprocity. However, similar to other micro theories rooted in social exchange theory, PCT and OST are generally used separately in explaining employee-employer relationships and employees' work related attitudes and behaviors. This situation could be because the core ideas of social exchange theory have not been adequately articulated and integrated resulting in currently incomplete social exchange models (Cropanzano & Mitchell,

2005). Aselage and Eisenberger (2003) suggested that an integration of PCT and OST could better explain employment relationships. In the hospitality literature, OST has been widely examined. In this work, perceived organizational support has been shown to be an antecedent of various employee work-related outcomes, including job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, emotional labor, commitment, and turnover intention. (Chew & Wong, 2008; Chiang & Hsieh, 2012; Hur, Won Moon, & Jun, 2013). However, PCT has not been studied as thoroughly as OST in hospitality--although studies in general business have demonstrated PCTs strong explanatory ability in employment relationships (Robinson, 1996; Lee & Taylor, 2014). In addition, since PCT has a natural link to daily human resources management practices, it provides more comprehensive and detailed managerial implications to hospitality employers.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to empirically integrate organizational support theory (OST) and psychological contract theory (PCT) in the hospitality context to provide a more comprehensive explanation of hospitality employees' work related attitudes. With a focus on positive organizational behavior, this study's intent is to explain the interrelationships among psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support, affect at work and various employee work related attitudes and behaviors (career satisfaction, engagement, thriving and turnover intention). Specifically, the mediating role of perceived organizational support and employee affect at work are examined to determine the underlying mechanism between daily human resource management practices and employee work outcomes.

Significance of the Study

As one of the first few studies to examine organizational support theory and psychological contract theory in a hospitality context, this study provides contributions to both academia and

industry. Theoretically, this study will empirically integrate two micro theories under the social exchange perspective. This integration adds an understanding to social exchange theory in explaining hospitality employee-employer relations and employee work outcomes by explicating the underlying mechanisms. Further, this study will expand scholarly understanding of the hospitality employees' psychological contract content and reactions to the deviance between expected and received employer inducements. Therefore, this study will demonstrate the importance of understanding employee psychological contracts and their impact. In addition, this study innovatively explores the role of employee affect at work under the social exchange framework. This study is one of the earliest to connect emotion research with psychological contract theory and organizational support theory. Lastly, the work outcomes that are examined in this research are emerging psychological variables in the hospitality literature (i.e., employee engagement, thriving). This study will expand scholarly knowledge of these variables.

From a practical standpoint the results of this study could better assist hospitality managers in encouraging employees favorable work attitudes by applying more efficient human resource management practices. The results of this study will allow industry professionals to better understand employee expectations and how their psychological states impact their attitudes and behaviors. By examining the content of the psychological contract, professionals will understand which segments of their human resource management are important to employees and their role in influencing emotions at work. Lastly, hospitality managers will be better equipped to foster employees' feelings of employer support and affect at work.

Definitions of Key Terms

Social Exchange Theory: A sociology reference frame that explains employment relationships (Emerson, 1976).

Reciprocity: A transactional pattern of interdependent exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Moreover, it is the basic norm that social exchange relies.

Psychological contract fulfillment: Psychological contract fulfillment captures the fulfilled and over accomplished promises of employers. Borrowing from the definition of psychological contract breach, fulfillment is the success of organizations or other parties to respond to an employee's contribution in ways the individual believes the company is obligated to do so (Rousseau, 1989).

Perceived organizational support: The global belief that employees develop to determine the organization's readiness to reward increased work effort and to meet their socio-emotional needs (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Thus, perceived organizational support is concerned with the extent to which the organization values employees' contributions and cares about their well-being.

Turnover intention: A conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Employee engagement: An employee's degree of physical, cognitive and emotional attachment to their work role (Kahn, 1990; 1992). It is also considered as the positive antithesis to employee burnout (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma & Bakker, 2002).

Career satisfaction: This describes an individual's subjective feelings of accomplishment and satisfaction with their career achievements (Judge, Cable, Boudreau & Bretz, 1995).

Thriving at work: An employee's psychological state regarding his/her growth at work, which includes a sense of vitality and a sense of learning (Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein & Grant, 2005).

Delimitations

As any other studies, this one has several limitations. First, this cross-sectional study collects data at only one point in time--which limits the ability to eliminate time as a confounding variable. Also because of the exclusion of time, the test of reciprocity is not achievable. Secondly, this study utilizes regression-based analysis to test the relationship between variables. As a result the causal relationship among variables cannot be examined. Thirdly, the data used in this study is only collected from employees, which overlooks the employer's perspective of the psychological contract.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides the conceptual foundation of the study. It contains five main sections. In the first section, major propositions in social exchange theory are viewed along with a review of the major exchange behavior rules (i.e., reciprocity, negotiation, resources) to provide the grounding and integration of psychological contract theory and organizational support theory. In the second and third sections, psychological contract theory and the organizational support theory are presented, including the major constructs of each theory (i.e., psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support). In the fourth section, relevant employee work outcomes, including career satisfaction, employee engagement, thriving at work and turnover intention are discussed. Finally, the importance of affective event theory in explaining the underling relationships of the study variables is presented. The chapter concludes with study hypotheses and a conceptual research model.

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory is considered the most noteworthy explanation of human relationships, including employee-employer relationships. It is a sociological theory that also draws from economics and psychology to understand social behaviors and structures (Cook & Rice, 2006). While Homans (1958) is considered the founder of the social exchange theory, the idea of viewing exchange as a basic social element can be traced back to the 1920s (Mauss, 1925). After the inception of social exchange theory, several other sociologists further contributed to its development including Blau (1964) and Emerson (1976). In the contemporary organizational science literature, social exchange theory has become a powerful conceptual

framework to explain employment relationships and workplace behaviors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Evolvement of Social Exchange Theory

The concept of exchange has a long history. It has been considered the foundation of human interaction (Mauss, 1925). Drawing from experimental behavior analysis, Homans (1958) introduced the idea that exchange is the elementary form of social behavior, in which the exchanging objects (*resources*) could be tangible material goods and also intangible ones, such as symbols of approval or prestige (Homans, 1958). In social exchange, at least two parties (*actors*) must be directly involved and a cost-reward analysis must be processed. "Persons that give much to others try to get much from them, and persons that get much from others are under pressure to give much to them" (Homans, 1958, p.606). Homans (1958) believed that the social exchange process follows five major propositions: success, stimulus, deprivation-satiation, value and angry-aggressive (Cook & Rice, 2006).

1. Success Proposition. Once people are successfully rewarded for an action, they tend to repeat the action.
2. Stimulus Proposition. A particular stimulus or a similar one that occurred in the past and occurs again will likely result in the same or similar action.
3. Deprivation-satiation Proposition. The value of a reward decreases, if the same reward has been received often in the recent past.
4. Value Proposition. More valuable the reward for one's, the more likely one is to perform the action.
5. Angry-aggressive Proposition. People become angry and aggressive when they do not receive what they anticipate as a return for their actions.

In addition to these five propositions, Emerson (1976) added rationality proposition based on Homans's (1974) observations.

6. Rationality Proposition. Among alternative actions, people will choose the one that will most likely bring the largest value.

Homans (1974) believed that social exchange theory was a more unified social science approach that applies to all individuals. While Homans analyzed human behavior from a sociological perspective, Blau (1964) took a more economic and utilitarian view of human behavior. Similar to Homans' observations, Blau (1964) articulated that exchange behavior is a fundamental form of human interaction, but all actors try to maximize their own gain in any exchange behavior, including non-material exchanges. According to Blau (1964, p. 91), "Social exchange … refers to voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others." Unlike Homans' reinforcement perspective, in which a future action is dependent on past stimulus, Blau's perspective is more forward looking, that is an actor's behavior depends on future rewards and the actor has an expectation of what should be returned in the future (Heath, 1976). According to Blau (1964), human exchange behaviors are interdependent and contingent on the counter actor's behavior, which implied a "two-sided, mutually contingent, and mutually rewarding process" (Emerson, 1976, p. 336). Thus interdependency and contingency underpin the feeling of indebtedness, mutual obligation and reciprocity between the two actors. Social exchange "involves the principle that one person does another a favor, and while there is a general expectation of some future return, its exact nature is definitely not stipulated in advance" (Blau, 1986, p. 93). In addition, unlike economic exchange, social exchange involves unspecified future obligations. Social exchange's basis is not transaction but micromotives, such as trust, loyalty and

commitment (Holmes, 1981). Blau believed that social exchange theory not only applied to individual relationships but also to group relationships (Cook & Rice, 2006).

Emerson's contribution to social exchange theory was the combination of Homans' and Blau's early work (Cook & Rice, 2006). He introduced the perspective that social exchange is not a theory but rather a reference framework, in which "many theories - some more micro and some more macro - can speak to one another, whether in argument or in mutual support" (Emerson, 1976, p. 336).

Reciprocity

No matter how theorists view social exchange theory, reciprocity is always agreed upon as the central norm of the theory. However, the norm of reciprocity is ambiguous (Gouldner, 1960). Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) summarized the meaning of reciprocity into three types: (a) reciprocity as a transactional pattern of interdependent exchange, (b) reciprocity as a folk belief, and (c) reciprocity as a moral norm. In this study, we consider reciprocity as a transactional pattern of interdependent exchange. The other two types of reciprocity are beyond the scope of this study.

In general, one party can be (a) independent, (b) dependent, or (c) interdependent to another party (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Goulnder, 1960). However, the relationship between the two actors in an exchange must be interdependent (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1974), in which the outcomes of the relationship depend on both actors' effort. For example, in order for employment to continue, the employer has to provide necessary inducement to its employee and the employee has to reward the employer with satisfactory work performance.

Molm (2003) argued that there are two major forms of exchange: reciprocal and negotiated. In a negotiated exchange, both actors explicitly discuss the terms of exchanges, such

as a written employment contract with the terms normally negotiated before finalizing. A reciprocal exchange does not involve a joint decision process on the terms of exchange. The actors in a reciprocal exchange perform separately without knowing when and to what extent their resources will be returned. The reciprocal exchange relationship forms gradually through "a series of sequentially contingent acts" (Molm, 2003, P. 3).

Social exchange theory significantly influenced researchers' understanding in organizational science. Its explanatory function has been applied to various areas, including organizational justice (Konovsky, 2000), psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995), perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986) and leadership (Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne, 1997). Psychological contract theory was derived from non-negotiable reciprocal exchanges, while organizational support theory addresses both types of exchange.

Psychological Contract Theory

Psychological contract theory is a behavioral theory that explains employment relationships. A contract is a set of promises that regulate one's future actions (Farnsworth, 1982). According to Rousseau (1995) four basic types of unwritten contracts exist among individuals and groups: psychological, normative, implied and social. Psychological contracts are the ones formed and existing at the individual level. The term psychological contract was first introduced by Argyris (1960) to describe an unspoken agreement between managers and employees. Rousseau redefined the definition of psychological contract as "individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between the individuals and their organization" (Rousseau, 1995, P.9), in which belief refers to employees' subjective interpretation of employers' implicit and explicit promises (Conway & Briner, 2009).

A psychological contract consists of social exchanges, "when we believe a person intends to keep a commitment he or she has made, we rely on it. Similarly, knowing someone relies on us pressures us to keep our commitments" (Rousseau, 1995, P. 23). In the workplace, beliefs of obligated reciprocity are the motivators of a psychological contracts, while mutual obligations, shaped by both employer's and employee's actions, are the essence of psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1989). A psychological contract emerges when employees perceive that their organizations have committed to some promises (Rousseau, 1989). Once employees feel obligated to pay back to their organizations by exhibiting certain contributions or employees feel the organizations need to reward them in some ways, a psychological contract is formed (Nicholson & Johns, 1985). Employees' perceived mutual obligations are distinct from their organizational commitment. Organizational commitment requires an employee to internalize an organization's culture while mutual obligation does not necessarily involve cultural internalization (Rousseau, 1989). Once a psychological contract forms, it regulates both employers' and employees' future behaviors.

Psychological contracts are subjective and reside only in the eyes of the beholder (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). As mentioned above, the foundations of the psychological contract are nonnegotiable exchanges in which organizations are not able to negotiate contract terms with their employees. Thus, the formation of the psychological contract is a subjective mental process. A psychological contract can be viewed as a schema, which starts as discrete beliefs and elaborates over time (Rousseau, 2001). A wide range of attributes, such as previous experiences, social cues, and personality traits, influence the process of forming a psychological contract (e.g. Rousseau, 2001; Raja, Johns, & Natalianis, 2004).

Since, the mental process of psychological contract formation does not involve a joint discussion of terms (e.g. promises, mutual obligations) between the two parties involved, the beliefs of mutual obligations are unilateral. Both parties believe they share a common understanding on the obligations – but this may not be the case. For example, in a management-training program, the employer promises its trainees that they all will get a promotion in a near future. For the employer, the timing of the promotion may depend on each trainee's performance; while for its trainees, they may believe the promotion should be delivered shortly after completing the program. Also, differences in interpreting a promise lead to differences in employees' understanding of the employer's obligations. For example, an employer indicates in its recruiting that training opportunities are available. So one of the recruits may expect the company to reimburse university tuition as his last employer, whereas another may expect training courses to be provided within the organization. Even after the initial establishment, psychological contracts are expected to change over the course of employment. A new recruit's perception about his or her employer is different from the perception two years later (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994).

Although classical theorists believe that psychological contracts apply to both employees and employers (Argyris, 1960; Schein, 1980), Rousseau (1989) argued that psychological contracts only exist in employees, because beliefs are held by people rather than organizations. Consistent with Rousseau's conceptualization, contemporary psychological contract research has focused on employees. The explanatory power of employees' psychological contract has been demonstrated in employees' work attitudes such as trust, motivation, loyalty, satisfaction as well as in-role and extra-role behaviors and in employees' reactions in organizational change (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Montes & Irving, 2008; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Shore & Terick, 1994;

Sparrow & Cooper, 1998; Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003). Two streams of research have appeared in the psychological contract literature: (a) psychological contracts content and (b) psychological contract breach/fulfillment.

Psychological Contract Content

Psychological contract content is defined as "expectations of what the employee feels she or he owes and is owed in turn by the organization" (Rousseau, 1990, P.393). Since psychological contracts are subjective, the notion of content is not what is actually exchanged, but what is believed as the implicit and explicit promises related to employment (Conway & Briner, 2009). Therefore, the content of psychological contracts can also be categorized into employer and employee obligations. Even though Rousseau (1989) argued that organizations are not able to hold psychological contracts, recent research claimed that mangers could enact and form psychological contracts with employees both as an agent of the organization and as an independent person (Lee & Taylor, 2014). Lee and Taylor (2014) found that managers could form psychological contracts with their selected subordinates at work based on their own interests.

Conway and Briner (2009) argued that two types of information should be in the contents of psychological contracts: (a) the list of items both employees and employers bring to the exchange (expected employer's and employee's obligations), and (b) the precise linkages between items that are brought by employees and employers (reciprocity). Even though the latter type of information is arguably more important, current literature heavily focuses on the obligations. Herriot, Manning and Kidd (1997) identified twelve categories of organizational obligations (i.e., training, fairness, needs, consult, discretion, humanity, recognition, environment, justice, pay, benefits and security) and seven categories of employee obligations

(i.e., hours, work, honesty, loyalty, property, self-presentation and flexibility) in the UK workforce. Mutuality was found to exist between employee's and employer's obligations, dependent upon the dyadic relationship between the employee and employer (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004).

Along with MacNeil's (1985) typology of contracts, Rousseau (1990) classified psychological contract content into two categories: transactional and relational. Transactional psychological contracts are the employment arrangements with a short-term or limited duration, primarily focused on economic exchange, specific and narrow duties and limited work involvement. An example of a transactional contract item is competitive pay. Relational psychological contracts are long-term or open-ended with loosely specified performance criteria. An example of a relational contract item is training and development opportunities. Transactional psychological contracts build up employment and relational psychological contracts sustain the relationship. Between these two types of contracts, employers focus more on relational, while employees pay more attention to transactional (Herriot, et al., 1997). Research has also found that employees' promises of working overtime, engaging in voluntary extra-role activities, and giving notice before resigning were associated with transactional exchange, while employees' promises of loyalty, committing to a minimum longevity at the organization, and willingness to accept a transfer request were associated with relational exchanges (Conway & Briner, 2009).

Psychological Contract Breach, Violation and Fulfillment

Part of Rousseau's (1989) conceptualization of psychological contracts relates to Adams' (1965) equity theory. While equity theory deals with expectations in a more general manner, psychological contracts might be viewed as a special case of equity theory (Rousseau, 1989).

Employees generate reciprocal expectations in their psychological contracts. They believe that employers should reward them in the way they favor. According to equity theory, unmet expectations cause progressive dissatisfaction, cognitive manipulation of perceived inequities, and behavioral adjustment (Adams, 1965). In the context of psychological contracts, unmet employee expectations are the basis of psychological contract breaches and violations. Psychological contract violation and breach were used interchangeably before Morrison and Robinson (1997) conceptually separated them. Rousseau's (1989) definition of psychological contract violation is the current accepted definition of psychological contract breach. Rousseau defined psychological contract violation (breach) as the "failure of organizations or other parties to respond to an employee's contribution in ways the individual believes they are obligated to do so" (Rousseau, 1989, p.128). Morrison and Robinson (1997) defined psychological contract violation as extreme affective reactions (such as feelings of anger and betrayal) that follow breach on certain occasions. Psychological contract breach occurs when employees cognitively realize a discrepancy between employers' obligations and provisions. Breach may occur without an actual break of the contract (e.g., breaking the actual employment contract clauses) (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). In Rousseau's (1989) early conceptualization of psychological contract she emphasized that:

> Failure to meet the terms of a psychological contract produces more than just unmet expectations. It signals a damage to the relationship between the organization and the individual. Underlying a psychological contract is trust, which develops from a belief that contributions will be reciprocated and that a relationship exists where actions of one party are bound to those of another. A damaged relationship is not easily restored. (Rousseau, 1989, P. 128)

Breach is the most empirically examined construct in psychological contract literature, because of its compelling ability to link psychological contract with outcomes. Morrison and Robinson (1997) further identified two types of breach: (a) breach from deliberately reneging, or (b) breach from incongruence. The former breach happens when organization's agents (e.g., managers) know they are breaking promises, while the latter is the situation that organization's understanding of the mutual promises differs from employees. There are two reasons for a reneged breach: inability and unwillingness. That is, either the organization is not able to fulfill a promise or is not willing to fulfill a promise. This distinction has assisted researchers in understanding the reasons for psychological contract breach and also suggests that employees could react differently to each type (Lester, Turnley, Bloodgood, & Belino, 2002). Psychological contract breach has been linked to a number of employee outcomes, including negative emotions and attitudes toward the organization, withdrawing intentions and behaviors, and abusive behaviors toward others (Conway & Briner, 2009).

Instead of focusing on broken promises, psychological contract fulfillment captures the positive aspects of achieved promises. Psychological contract fulfillment is the opposite of breach and related to positive organizational and individual outcomes. Even though many studies argue that the strength of the positive relationship is lower than the negative relationships between psychological contract breach and negative outcomes (De Jong, Clinton, Rigotti, & Bernhard-Oettel, 2015; Lambert, Edwards, & Cable, 2003; Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007), this study considers it as a critical construct in the psychological contract literature for the reasons that follow in the next paragraph.

First, psychological contract fulfillment is considered in the realm of positive organizational scholarship, which is an emerging area in the organizational behavior science

(Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). According to the positive-negative asymmetry effect (Taylor, 1991), humans tend to psychologically weigh negative events more than positive events. But organizational scholars argued that positive concepts tend to capture more accurate human reactions (Cameron, 2008). By evaluating the positive aspect of employees' psychological contracts, researchers could understand employees' psychological processes more accurately, which helps to better define the underlying mechanisms. Secondly, researchers recently suggested that psychological breach-fulfillment needs to be analyzed on a continuum; solely focusing on breach and overlooking fulfillment is incomprehensive (Conway, Guest, & Trenberth, 2011; Lambert et al., 2003). Moreover, previous research commonly measures psychological contract breach as a global construct (Morrison & Robinson, 2000), which ignored its multidimensional nature (Conway et al., 2011). Employees' favorableness of each contract element was ignored, which could influence their attitude toward the organization.

Organizational Support Theory

Organizational support theory is also derived from the perspective of social exchange to explain employee behavior. The norm of reciprocity regulates two parties within an exchange to reciprocate favors in terms of economic or socio-emotional resources (Gouldner, 1960). Therefore, employees trade their effort and loyalty to organizations for tangible benefits and social rewards provided by the organizations and vice versa (Blau, 1964; Gould, 1979; Levinson, 1965). While organizations value employees' dedication and commitment as indications of desirable work performance (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982) employees also value employers' overall support. Organizational support theory (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986, Shore & Shore, 1995) suggested

> "in order to determine the organization's readiness to reward increased work effort and to meet socio-emotional needs, employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p.698).

This evaluation is known as perceived organizational support. It is also regarded as the "assurance that aid will be available when it is needed to carry out one's job effectively and to deal with stressful situations" (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, P. 698). Levinson (1965) noted that instead of viewing agents' actions as their personal motives, employees tend to view agents' actions as indications of the organization's intentions. Thus, this personification tendency assigns organizations humanlike characteristics (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). These characteristics enable employees to view the organizations' supportiveness (perceived organizational support) as an indication of whether their organizations favor or disfavor them. Thus every organizational agent's actions influence an employee's perceptions and behaviors.

Even with the same treatment, employees may perceive different levels of supportiveness. According to social exchange theory, receivers favor the resources offered under discretionary choices rather than ones that are forced by circumstances or out of the donor's control (Blau, 1964). These discretionary choices are taken as evidence of the donor's care and respect (Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987). Therefore, in the employment context, employees have a better appreciation of benefits or rewards that are offered by employers without external constraints such as government safety and health regulations or union contracts (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Shore & Shore, 1995). Therefore, discretionary rewards, which are not written in the employment contract, enhance perceived organizational support. Similarly, providing employees with the kind of resources they need is

another way to increase perceived organizational support (Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stewart, & Adis, 2015).

Organizational support theory has suggested several relationships between perceived organizational support and other related constructs (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Kurtessis et al., 2015). First, consistent with social exchange theory, perceived organizational support yields a ‘felt obligation’, which is similarly defined as normative organizational commitment (Wayne, Coyle-Shapiro, Eisenberger, Liden, Rousseau, & Shore, 2009). This felt obligation entails employees to care about the organization’s welfare and to help the organization reach its goals. Meanwhile, the felt obligation and the norm of reciprocity formulate employees’ belief that organizations will notice and reward their increased performance as well. Thus, employee exchange ideology moderates the relationship between perceived organizational support and its outcomes (e.g. Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Eisenberger et al, 1986). Second, the caring, approval and respect connoted by perceived organizational support encourages employees to internalize the organization’s culture. This increased internalization enhances employee organizational commitment, which, in turn, emphasizes employees’ self-enhancement (Kurtessis et al, 2015). Third, the notion of perceived organizational support should strengthen employees’ beliefs that the organization recognizes and rewards increased performance (i.e., performance-reward expectancies), which encourages future exchanges. These psychological processes should create benefits to both employees and employers.

Perceived organizational support has been related to, but distinct from, affective organizational commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990: Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001; Shore & Tetrick, 1991), effort-reward expectancies (Eisenberger et al., 1990), continuance commitment (Shore & Tetrick, 1991),

leader-member exchange (Settoon, et al., 1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997), perceived organizational politics (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997), procedural justice (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001: Rhoades et al., 2001), job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al., 1997), supervisor support (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Shore & Tetrick, 1991) and psychological contract fulfillment (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Guchait, Cho, & Meurs, 2015).

Antecedents and Outcomes of Perceived Organizational Support

Because of the clarity of the construct and the ease of empirical examination, numerous studies were conducted to test antecedents and outcomes of perceived organizational support. Since employees have the tendency to personify organizations, they view the treatment from their supervisors as indications of the organizations' intentions (Levinson, 1965, Eisenberger et al, 1986). Thus, whatever treatment an employee receives at work, not only from the organization but also from supervisors, could influence their perceived organizational support. Rhoades and Eisenberger's (2002) meta-analysis summarized all antecedents into three categories: fairness, supervisor support and reward/job conditions. Fairness was found to have the strongest positive relationship with perceived organizational support, followed by supervisor support and reward/job conditions. Recently, Kurtessis et al. (2015) conducted another meta-analysis on perceived organizational support and reorganized antecedents into: (a) treatment by organization members, (b) employee-organization relationship quality, and (c) human resource practices and job conditions. Kurtessiss et al. (2015) claimed that supportive aspects of leadership, fairness, HR practices and work conditions were all related to employee's perceived organizational support. Their major findings included: (a) fairness has a unique strong attribution to perceived organizational support, in which procedural justice has the strongest contribution

than any other types of justice (e.g. distributive justice and interactional justice); (b) supervisor support was a stronger predictor of perceived organizational support than coworker support, in which supervisor's identity with the organization played a moderating role, and normally higher-level employees were more identified with organizations than lower-level employees; (c) leadership with inspiration and supportiveness was more closely related to perceived organizational support than transactional and structural; (d) work conditions that could be considered as resources (e.g. autonomy, rewards) contributed more than those considered as demands (e.g. role overload, conflict and ambiguity).

The outcomes of perceived organizational support has also drawn a great deal of attention from researchers. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that perceived organizational support was positively related to employees' affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, positive work mood, desired performance and work behavior; and negatively related to continuous organizational commitment, withdraw behavior and intention. Riggle, Edmondson and Hansen (2009) emphasized perceived organization support's significant contribution to employees' attitude and behavior outcomes. Kurtessis et al. (2015) divided outcomes into three groups: (a) orientation toward the organization and work, (b) subjective well-being; and (c) behavioral outcomes. Their findings were consistent with previous studies, while also providing some detailed new findings: (a) perceived organizational support was positively related to social exchange and negatively related to economic exchange; (b) organizational identification mediated the relationship between perceived organizational support and affective organizational commitment and the relationship between perceived organizational support and normative organizational commitment (felt obligation); (c) perceived organizational support was related more to organizational citizenship behavior toward organizations than toward individuals; (d)

job-efficacy had a small mediation effect between perceived organizational support and employee performance.

Work Outcomes

Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction is the subjective indicator of employees' career success. Career success refers to the accumulated positive work and psychological outcomes resulting from one's work experience (Judge, Cable, Boudreau & Bretz, 1995; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). Employment is no longer a lifelong-time relationship, especially with the millennial generation, (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). Job security is no longer guaranteed by employers, either, but this is perhaps more associated with an employee's employability (e.g., knowledge, skills, abilities and work performance). Therefore, increasing employability is the goal in an employees' self-development. Further, an employee's success will eventually contribute to an organization's success (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999). Therefore, career satisfaction should be of concern for both employees and organizations.

An individual's career success is operationalized into two dimensions: objective (extrinsic) and subjective (intrinsic). Objective career success is external, more tangible and can be seen and evaluated objectively by others (Arthur, Khapova & Wilderom, 2005; Judge, et al., 1995). Common indicators of objective career success include promotions (Judge, et al., 1995), salary (Tharenou, 2001) and levels attained in the organization hierarchy (Judge & Bretz, 1994). Subjective career success refers to individuals' feelings of accomplishment and satisfaction with their career achievements (Judge, et al., 1995). This type of career success is intrinsically measured by career satisfaction (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990; Judge, Higgins, Thoresen & Barrick, 1999).

Many individual and organizational level factors were found to facilitate employees' career satisfaction. Turner (1960) argued that upward mobility in organizations could be separated into contest-mobility and sponsored-mobility, but these two forms of mobility are not mutually exclusive. Contest-mobility promotions are based on employees' performance and their added value to the organization. Sponsored-mobility promotions are based on employees who are deemed to have high potential and provided with more sponsorship activities from more senior managers as well as favorable treatment in promotion competitions. The major difference between these two forms of mobility is whether the established elites (e.g. manager) would have the power to influence which employee will achieve upward mobility.

Through the lens of contest-mobility and sponsored-mobility in organizations, Ng, Eby, Sorensen & Feldman, (2005) meta-analyzed studies before 2005, and identified four categories of predictors of both subjective and objective career success: human capital, organizational sponsorship, socio-demographic status and stable individual differences. Human capital consists of individuals' educational, personal and professional experience that can enhance their career achievement (Becker, 1964), such as job and organizational tenure, work experience, willingness to transfer, education, career planning, and social capital. Organizational sponsorship, similar to organizational support, represents the extent that organizations provide special assistance to facilitate a particular employee's career advancement (Ng, et al., 2005), including career sponsorship, supervisor support, training and development opportunities, and organizational size. Socio-demographic status reflects individuals' demographic and social background, such as race, gender, marital status and age. Stable individual differences represent dispositional traits, measured by aspects of personality. Theoretically, human capital is more closely related to contest-mobility; organizational sponsorship and socio-demographic represent sponsored-

mobility; but stable individual differences are based on personality. Among these four categories, organizational sponsorship plays the most significant role in determining employees' career satisfaction, followed by stable individual differences but human capital and socio-demographics are also significant predictors. (Ng, et al., 2005) Consistent with these studies, perceived organizational support and supervisor support are two major predictors of career satisfaction (Renee Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera, 2010).

After Ng et al.'s (2005) study, a few more predictors were identified including performance goal orientation, organizational learning culture and leader-member exchange quality (Joo & Park, 2010; Joo & Ready, 2012); leadership types (Hussain Haider & Riaz, 2010); burnout and work-life balance (Keeton, Fenner, Johnson, & Hayward, 2007; Martins, Eddleston & Veiga, 2002); job and hierarchical plateau (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009; Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera, 2010), career competency (Kong, Cheung & Song, 2012), and employability (Nauta, Vianen, van der Heijden, van Dam & Willemsen, 2009).

In addition to a valuable outcome, career satisfaction is also a critical mediator between desired individual and organizational variables or is an antecedent of these variables. Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009) found that career satisfaction mediated the relationship between perceived organizational support, job content plateauing and intention to remain. Kang, Gatling & Kim (2015) found that career satisfaction mediated the relationship between supervisory support and turnover intention in the restaurant industry. Cunningham, Sagas, Dixon, Kent, & Turner (2005) found that career satisfaction after an internship impacted students' occupational commitment and intention to enter the profession.

Employee Engagement

Employee engagement, a term interchangeably used with work engagement and personal engagement, is an important construct in the management literature. It is theoretically close to but distinct from the construct of organizational commitment and job involvement (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006). Although different definitions and views have been applied to employee engagement over the past 25 years, ambiguity still exists. However, no matter how researchers differ regarding the theory behind employee engagement, they all agree that engaged employees devote more energy and demonstrate desired attitudes and behaviors at work (Abraham, 2012; Karatepe, 2011; Saks, 2006)

Employee engagement originated with Khan (1990) and was based on role theory. Kahn's interpretation was that an employee's degree of attachment with his or her work role physically, cognitively and emotionally or their "psychological presence" (Khan, 1992). Hackman and Oldham (1980) noted that people's internal motivations are largely influenced by their psychological states. Accordingly, Khan (1990) posited that people have discrete dimensions of themselves and this entails employees to express and employ (engage) or withdraw and defend (disengage) their preferred selves on the basis of their psychological experience in their work role. Further, employees have a dynamic relationship with their work role, with the degree of engagement on a continuum between fully engaged and fully disengaged. Khan (1990) also suggested that employee engagement should be influenced by three major psychological conditions, namely: meaningfulness, safety and availability. Psychological meaningfulness implies a feeling of worthwhile, useful and valuable, which are triggered when people perceive reasonable reciprocity from their work physically, cognitively and emotionally. Psychological safety is the extent people can employ their preferred selves without the fear of

negative consequences. Psychological availableness is “the sense of having the physical, emotional or psychological resources to personally engage at a particular moment” (Khan, 1990, p. 714). Therefore, employees are more likely to be engaged in situations where the work is meaningful, safe and when they feel they can devote psychologically. May, Gilson and Harter (2004) empirically tested Khan’s (1990) personal engagement model with different antecedents of these three psychological conditions. They found that all three psychological conditions (meaningfulness, safety and availability) all contributed to employee engagement significantly only when organization resources were linked to engagement directly; and meaningfulness exhibited the strongest relationship to engagement among the three psychological conditions (May, et al., 1994).

Another major understanding of employee engagement is to view it as the positive antithesis of employee burnout, which indicates a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual or behavior (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma & Bakker, 2002). In the burnout literature, Maslach and Leiter (1997) first considered employee engagement as the direct opposite of burnout and conceptualized engagement as consisting of energy, involvement and efficacy, which are the antipodes of burnout’s indicators (exhaustion, cynicism and inefficacy). Later, Schaufeli, et al. (2002) refined this perspective by arguing that even though theoretically engagement is the positive antithesis of burnout, measuring it with the antipodes of burnout’s indicators is not a precise approach. Instead, they provided a measurement of engagement using vigor, dedication and absorption. Within these three indicators, vigor and dedication are considered direct opposites of exhaustion and cynicism respectively (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003), but absorption is conceptually distinct from inefficacy (Schaufeli, et al., 2002). Vigor represents the high energy

and activation level of the individual at work. Dedication indicates an individual's high identification level with his or her work. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one's work. Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) research led to the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), which was refined and shortened to nine items by Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, (2006) and has been established as the most utilized engagement measure. Finally, Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter and Taris (2008) defined employee engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, affective, motivational state of work-related well-being that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption" (p. 187).

Employee engagement has been empirically tested with various antecedents and consequences. It is also perceived as a linkage between the employer and employee (Robinson, Parryman & Hayday, 2004). Saks (2006) utilized social exchange theory in explaining employment relations. He assumed that engagement was a way for employees to reciprocate the resources they receive from their organizations and their level of engagement was determined by the amount of and the favorableness of these resources. Therefore, the antecedents of engagement include job characteristics, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, rewards and recognition, procedural justice, and distributive justice (Saks, 2006). Other major antecedents of engagement include organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, trust. (Chughtai & Buckley, 2011). Major outcomes of employee engagement including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, less intention to turnover (Saks, 2006), greater commitment to their employer (Karatepe, 2013), better quality of work produced (Khan, 1992), higher level of performance (e.g. Abraham, 2012), career satisfaction (Koyuncu, Burke, & Fiksenbaum, 2006), and career commitment and adaptability (Barnes & Collier, 2013).

Thriving at Work

It is presumed that employees grow both physically and psychologically at work. However, not much is known about how employees grow psychologically at work. Thus, the concept of thriving at work was offered to describe employees' psychological experience regarding growth at work. Thriving is defined as "a psychological state in which individuals experience both a sense of vitality and a sense of learning at work" (Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005, P. 538). Vitality refers to the positive feeling that one has the energy (Nix, Ryan, Manly, & Deci, 1999) to sustain a zest for work (Miller & Stiver, 1997). Learning is about acquiring new knowledge and skills and applying them to build capability and confidences (Carver, 1998; Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Thriving employees experience growth and momentum through both a sense of feeling energized and alive (vitality) and a sense of continually improving at work (learning) (Porath, Spreitzer, Gibson, & Garnett, 2012). Therefore, vitality and learning are marked as the two grounding dimensions of thriving (Porath et al, 2012; Spreitzer et al., 2005). These two dimensions reflect both affective (vitality) and cognitive (learning) essences of personal growth (Porath et al., 2012) from both hedonic (vitality) and eudemonic perspectives of psychological functioning and development (Spreitzer et al., 2005). In simple terms, vitality is affective (i.e., feelings) and reflects the pleasurable experiences at work. Whereas, learning reflects human's need for self-actualization by revealing their full potential. Employees' missing either dimension could result in limited thriving.

Thriving serves as a gauge for employees to self-evaluate their psychological condition at work regarding growth and is associated with various important individual and organizational outcomes, such as self-development, health, performance, burnout, and positive adaption (Spreitzer & Sutcliffe, 2007; Spreitzer & Porath, 2013). Drawing from Spreitzer et al.'s (2005)

socially embedded model of thriving, individual agentic behaviors are the direct antecedents of thriving while both contextual features such as decision-making discretion, information sharing and trust and resources produced at work including knowledge and positive resources – indirectly affect thriving through agentic behaviors. Consequently, employees could adjust their feelings of vitality and learning by switching their work context. Spreitzer and Porath (2013) explained these relationships through the lens of the self-determination theory. They articulated that the dimensions of autonomy, competence and relatedness are all powerful facilitators of thriving. Autonomy, competence and relatedness are suggested by self-determination theory as the psychological antecedents of human growth (Ryan & Deci, 2000). All the antecedents of thriving mentioned above could lead to at least one of these psychological needs to increase, which in turn facilitate thriving at work.

Early studies in thriving were aimed at theoretical development using qualitative methods, until Porath et al. (2012) empirically developed a measure of thriving and validated it in different contexts. In their second-order measurement, Porath et al. (2012) quantified vitality and learning as two sub-dimensions of thriving with each dimension measured by five items. They confirmed the reliability and validity of this measurement by assessing data collected from different samples. Further, they confirmed construct validity by examining the relationship between thriving and its various antecedents and outcomes. Using the validated measure, thriving was found to influence employees' innovation behaviors (Wallace, Butts, Johnson, Stevens, & Smith, 2013), in-role behaviors (Paterson, Luthans, & Jeung, 2014), and turnover intention (Mukhaimer, 2012).

Turnover

Employee turnover is always a variable of interest to business researchers. As employee retention becomes an increasingly critical issue to hospitality employers, employee turnover draws more academic attention. Woods, Johanson and Sciarini (2012) defined turnover as a replacement cycle that a new employee fits into a position that was previously occupied by a departed employee. Mobley's (1977) definition of turnover involves a complete termination of an employees' employment. Even though high turnover is undesirable, researchers agree that turnover is inevitable in most industries, including hospitality (Walsh &Taylor, 2007; Yang, et al., 2012). Woods et al. (2012) classified overall turnover into desired and unwanted turnover. Desired turnover or involuntary turnover (Wanous, 1978) happens when employees are subjectively fired by organizations; yet the unwanted turnover or voluntary turnover (Wanous, 1978) happens when employees decide to quit their jobs. The average hospitality turnover rate in the United States ranges from 60% to 300% (Lee & Way, 2010; Moncarz, Zhao, & Kay, 2009). In the lodging sector, the turnover rate for front line-employees can reach up to 60% annually and 25% for management employees, while in quick service restaurants, the employee turnover rate can exceed 120% (Tracey & Hinkin, 2006). Though voluntary turnover is an employees' discretionary choice, employees often report that their decisions are avoidable (Maertz & Campion, 1998). The average turnover rate for all industries in the U.S. is 11%. (Compensation Force, 2014).

Although a certain level of turnover is healthy for organizations (Dalton & Todor, 1979; Woods et al., 2012) the severe and negative consequences of turnover have been noted extensively. The most obvious consequence of turnover is its considerable cost. Robbins (1995) stated that the overall cost associated with employees' turnover is approximately 1.5 times higher

than their salary. The costs of turnover include administrative (e.g. Dalton & Todor, 1982); stuffing and training (e.g. Mirvis & Lawler, 1977); and operational disruptions (e.g. Staw, 1980). Tracey and Hinkin (2006) classified turnover costs in the hospitality industry into pre-departure, recruitment and selection, orientation and training, as well as productivity loss. They also indicated that the more complex the position, the higher the turnover cost (Tracey & Hinkin, 2006). A large body of literature has discussed the consequences of turnover from other aspects. For example, Darr, Argote and Epple (1995) found that turnover could lead to knowledge depreciation and loss of productivity in pizza restaurants. Alonso and O'Neil (2009) found the same effect in other hospitality companies. In addition, turnover was found to cause problems in employee morale (Lam, Zhang, & Baum, 2001; Yang, et al., 2012) and even organizational climate (Argote, 1999).

Because of the severe consequences of turnover, understanding and predicting employee turnover has become critical. Early theories of turnover proposed that it is a function of desirability and ease of change (March & Simon, 1958), Bivariate correlations were the focus of turnover studies prior to the 1970s (Maertz & Campion, 1998), and then multivariate turnover models started to emerge. Since then numerous studies have attempted to provide a research model for turnover, from both process and content approach.

Mobley's (1977) intermediate linkage model is considered the first process model and dominated the turnover literature. It argued that job dissatisfaction is not directly linked to turnover action, but indirectly through turnover related cognitions (e.g., intention to search, intention to quit) and probability of alternative is another predictor of actual turnover. Mobley's (1977) study was the first to introduce the concept of turnover intention, which has been considered as one of the best predictors of actual turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Steers and

Mowday (1981) extended the intermediate linkage model by adding employee expectations of job and non-work factors into consideration. Expectations of the job are defined as “what they (employees) feel they must have, what they would like to have, and what they can do without" (Steers & Mowday, 1981, p. 243). The model proposed that job attitudes and turnover intentions were directly and indirectly influenced by the interaction of employees' expectations and work experiences and events. Unmet expectations could result in lower job attitudes and higher turnover (Lee & Mowday, 1987). Later, drawing from image theory and departing from the idea of intermediate linkages, Lee and Mitchell (1994) introduced the unfolding model of turnover. This model proposed that turnover decisions may not involve extensive evaluation or even choice but emphasized specific experiences and events, which were named shocks at work. They developed the idea of “shocks to the system” and claimed shocks were the initial point of turnover.

Rather than determine the mental or psychological processes of employee’s turnover behavior, content theories focus on multiple antecedents that influence employees’ turnover intention and actual turnover. Maertz and Campion (2004) identified eight motivational forces that drive employees to leave an organization: (a) affective, (b) contractual, (c) constituent, (d) alternative, (e) calculative, (f) normative, (g) behavioral, and (h) moral forces. Deery’s (2002) content model was developed specifically for the hospitality industry and highlighted turnover culture and the internal labor market as major antecedents of turnover intention. Blomme, van Rheede and Trom (2010) demonstrated that psychological contract measures, such as development opportunities, job security, and work-family balance, provided satisfactory explanation of employees’ intention to leave, especially using affective commitment as a moderator.

Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development

Affective Event Theory

"Things happen to people in work settings and people often react emotionally to these events. These affective experiences have direct influences on behaviors and attitudes" (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p. 11). Affective event theory was developed to explain the role that work events and emotions play in work attitudes and behaviors. Accumulated affective experience at work is triggered by different work events; therefore work events and emotions together with the work environment and disposition, shape employees' work attitudes and behaviors (see Figure 1). This theory focuses on the causes, structure and possible outcomes of affective experiences at work, which can exist as discrete emotions, affective states, and moods (Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004). The work attitude discussed in Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) original paper was job satisfaction. They argued that job satisfaction has both cognitive and emotional aspects; therefore, instead of an affective state, it should be considered as a general evaluation of one's work. Employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their work could lead to their future behaviors such as absenteeism and performance.

Since the development of affective event theory, it has been applied to many studies on various work attitudes and behaviors, such as job satisfaction, subordinates performance, organizational commitment, intention to quit and employee subjective well-being (Gaddis et al, 2004; Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002). Weiss and Beal (2005) suggested that the affective event theory is a "macrostructure" to help guide research, and that "microstructures" with specific events, affective reactions, attitudes and behaviors should be developed in different contexts.

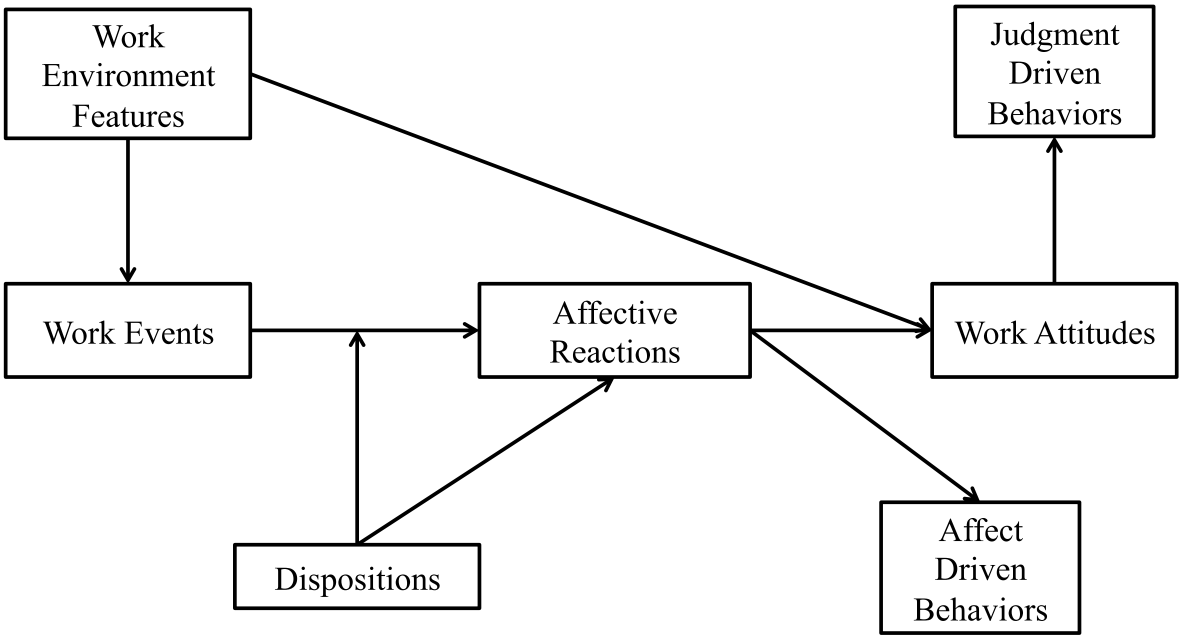

Figure 1. Affective event theory: Macro structure.

Note. Adapted from Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. Research in organizational behavior: An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews, 18, 1–74.

Human Affective Phenomena

In psychology, affective phenomena refers to human affect, emotion and mood (Ekkekakis, 2012). Emotions are human's short-term evaluative, affective and intentional psychological states (Colman, 2015). According to Frijda's (1993) review of emotions, every emotional experience has four main components: (a) an experiential component of affect (core affect); (b) a consequent appraisal process; (c) physiological bodily changes; and (d) an action readiness. Therefore, emotions are usually a short-term intensive affective reaction to specific objects. Mood is defined as a temporary but relative sustained and pervasive affective state

(Colman, 2015). Frijda (2009) described mood as “the appropriate designation for affective states that are about nothing specific or about everything – about the world in general” (Frijda, 2009, p. 258). Unlike emotions, a mood usually does not have a closely related stimulus, which makes the cause of a mood hard to be identified (Morris, 1992), but moods and emotions can be converted to each other frequently (Frijda, 1993). For example, when a server is angry with his/her customer (object), he or she is experiencing an emotional episode; but if this anger lasts long into his/her work, it is no longer an emotion but a mood, because it becomes a relative sustained state and this anger loses its object.

Core affect is defined as a “neurophysiological state consciously accessible as a simple primitive non-reflective feelings most evident in mood and emotion but always available to consciousness” (Russell & Feldman Barrett, 2009, p. 104). Russell (2003) mentioned that core affect is “similar to what Thayer (1989) called *activation*, what Watson and Tellegen (1985) called *affect*, what Morris (1989) called *mood*, and what is commonly called a *feeling*.” (p. 148) Affect is usually used as an umbrella term for emotions, moods and dispositions (Barsade & Giberson, 2007). The terms affect, mood and emotion are used interchangeably in the affect literature (Batson, Shaw, & Oleson, 1992). In order to be consistent, this study will use the term “affect” as the human affective state.

Russell and Mehrabian (1977) identified three independent and bipolar dimensions of affect: (a) pleasure-displeasure; (b) degree of arousal; and (c) dominance-submissiveness. Along with these three dimensions, Russell (1980) proposed the circumplex model of affect, which viewed discrete affects as highly and systematically interrelated. This model classifies all human affect into two orthogonal and bipolar dimensions – affective valence (pleasant – unpleasant) and perceived activation (activation-deactivation). All affects are combinations of these two

dimensions but vary in degree. Therefore, all affects are arranged along the perimeter of the circle defined by the dimensions of valence and actions.

Similar to Russell's (1980) circumplex model of affect, Zevon and Tellegen (1982) and Watson and Tellegen (1985) arrived at a consensual structure of mood. Drawing from the results of a factor analysis of self-reported data, Watson and Tellegen (1985) found that human affect did not reflect pure valence and activation but a mixture of these two dimensions. Thus, they proposed two new dimensions with each on a continuum: positive affect (PA) from high-activation pleasant affect to low-activation pleasant affect; and negative affect (NA) extending from high-activation to low-activation unpleasant affect. This structure model is a 45-degree rotational variant of the circumplex model. Therefore, Watson and Tellegen (1999) argued that positive and negative affect are not bipolar as proposed by Feldman Barrett and Russell (1998). Cacioppo & Berntson (1994) found that although affects are normally bipolar, positive and negative affect may occur at the same time. Along with this model, Waston, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) proposed the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS), which consists of 20 emotions on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "very slightly" to "very much". Since its development, PANAS has been the most frequently used scale of human affect.

Psychological Contract Fulfillment as a Work Event

In order to develop a "microstructure", particular work events, affective reactions and outcomes need to be discussed. Work events are the important happenings that may occur or have already occurred at work implying changes of what one is currently experiencing (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Brief and Weiss (2002) grouped work events into aversive stimuli (stressful events), leaders, workgroup characteristics, physical settings, and organizational rewards and punishments. One work-related concept that has been treated as a

work event was organizational justice. Weiss, Suckow and Cropanzano (1999) found that organizational justice at work impacted employee's emotions. Drawing from these descriptions, psychological contract fulfillment should be considered a work event for several reasons: (a) psychological contracts are the explicit and implicit promises organizations make at workplace; (b) the fulfillment status of psychological contract is subjected to change over time (Robinson, et al., 1994); and (c) psychological contract fulfillment, just like breach, triggers employees emotional reaction (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Zhao et al. (2007) treated psychological contract breach as a work event in their meta-analysis and found that it triggered employees' feelings of violation and mistrust in the organization, which in turn impacted employees turnover intention, organizational citizenship behavior and in-role behaviors. A major benefit of treating psychological contract fulfillment as a work event is that the content of the psychological contract covers nearly every area of an organization's human resource practices, including both relational and transactional aspects (Rousseau, 2000). Therefore, it could provide both global and detailed explanations of an organization's human resources practices.

Affect at Work as a Mediator

Employees' affective state was found pervasively and consistently to influence employees' work attitudes and behaviors (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). For example, if the organization provided its employees with sufficient training and development opportunities at work, employees may feel enthusiastic and happy at work because of increased self-esteem (Maslow, 1943). Therefore, the fulfillment of employees' psychological contract would influence employees' affect at work. In addition, Rothbard (2001) found that both positive and negative emotions influenced employees' work engagement. Continuing with the example above, an employee could feel enthusiastic and happy because of achievement and development

at work; this feeling could also lead them to be more engaged at work. Furthermore, George and Jones (1996) tested the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover with two moderators: attainment of values and positive mood. They collected data from managers in the US printing industry and found that the job satisfaction-turnover relationship was weakest when both the attainment of values and positive moods were present. Additionally, research findings in psychological contract fulfillment and turnover were mixed, which suggested the existence of mediators (Clinton & Guest, 2014). Therefore, the author hypothesizes that:

H1: Affect at work mediates the negative relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and turnover intention.

H2: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and employee engagement.

Kidd (2004) suggested that the role of emotion needs greater attention in the career development and management literature, which could better assist practitioners. Along with Kidd's argument, Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008) demonstrated that positive affect leads to improved workplace success. In addition, Spreitzer et al. (2005) argued that positive affect is a resource of agentic behaviors, which is an antecedent of thriving. Therefore, the author hypothesizes that:

H3: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and career satisfaction.

H4: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and thriving.

Perceived Organizational Support as a Mediator

Derived from social exchange theory, psychological contract and organizational support theories have been recognized as critical to explaining employment relations. Even though both of these two theories consider organizations as an exchange partner with employees, only psychological contract theory takes equity theory into account. Previous studies demonstrated that it is the differences between employer's obligations and inducements (psychological contract fulfillment/breach) that decide various employees' work outcomes (De Jong, et al., 2015; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; etc.). While, according to perceived organizational support theory, employees' perceived organizational support is the direct result of their received inducements (Eisenberger, et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Aselage and Eisenberger (2003) suggested that instead of considering favorable treatment as the only antecedent of perceived organizational support, employer obligations should be considered as a moderator between these relationships. This argument suggested that employees' expectations of certain psychological contract elements should play a role in the formation of perceived organizational support. Moreover, by perceiving more support from the organization, employees may perceive more positive moods while working in the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Therefore, the following hypothesis is offered:

H5: Perceived organizational support mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and affect at work.

Furthermore, previous research suggested that perceived organizational support predicted employees' career satisfaction (Renee Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera, 2010); engagement (Saks, 2006); turnover (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003); and thriving (Spreitzer et al, 2005). Therefore, the following hypotheses are offered:

H6: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between perceived organizational support and career satisfaction.

H7: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between perceived organizational support and employee engagement.

H8: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between perceived organizational support and thriving.

H9: Affect at work mediates the negative relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intention.

A full proposed research model is presented in Figure 2.

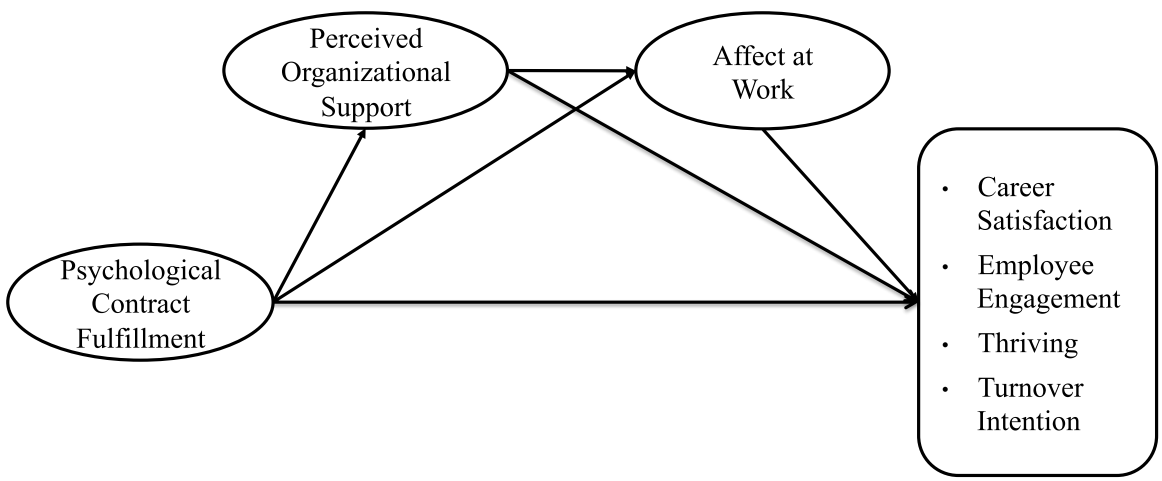

Figure 2. Proposed research model.

CHAPTER 3

METHDOLOGY

This chapter describes the research design, data collection and data analysis that were used to examine the study hypotheses. This cross sectional study employed a survey instrument to collect data from hotel employees to determine the underlying relationships among employee psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support, affect at work and various employee work attitudes (career satisfaction, employee engagement, thriving and turnover intention). This chapter contains three major sections: (a) research design, including sampling; (b) survey instrument, and (c) data collection and analysis.

Research Design

This study is a cross-sectional design with survey instrument. Building on the norm of reciprocity and the framework of social exchange, this study intends to empirically combine psychological contract theory with organizational support theory to examine the explanatory power of the this combination on employee affect at work and various work attitudes, including career satisfaction, employee engagement, thriving and turnover intention. In addition, perceived organizational support and affect at work will be examined as serial mediators between employee psychological contract fulfillment and various work attitudes.

Sample

The population for this study consists of hospitality employees in the United States. The sampling frame for this study is a panel sample from Qualtrics.com. Qualtrics is a company that partners with panel providers globally to provide online sample services. Their panel providers recruit respondents, record their personal information (e.g., gender, ethnicity, email addresses, profession), and provide subjects to Qualtrics, which constitutes their database allowing for

distribution of an online survey to respondents. Usually several screener questions are included in the online survey to ensure that participants meet certain criteria in the targeted population.

Survey Instrument

The online survey (Appendix I) is comprised of three major parts. The first part includes screener questions and an informed consent. The second part includes the measurements of psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support, affect at work, career satisfaction, employee engagement, thriving as well as an attention check question. The third part contains the demographic questions. All measures in this study were adapted from previous literature and modified to fit the context of this study.

Common Method Bias

Common method bias is the "variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003, p.879). It arises when self-report questionnaires are used to collect data in cross-sectional research (Chang, Van Witteloostuijn & Eden, 2010), especially with attitude-behavior measurements (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Previous research suggested that two types of remedies for common method bias needs to be considered: (a) procedural remedies, which are applied in the survey design stages; and (b) statistical remedies, which are post data collection and used in the analysis stage. Therefore, in order to minimize common method bias, several procedures is applied in this study.

First, the participants were acknowledged in the informed consent that there is no preferred answer in the survey and their personal information will be kept anonymous (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Second, different response scale types were utilized in the survey

(Chang, et al., 2010). Lastly, a Harman's one-factor test was applied to diagnose if there is any concern of common method bias. The results are discussed in the result section.

Screener Questions

Two screener questions were asked at the beginning of the survey. The purpose of the first screener question was to screen out non-hospitality employees. A multiple-choice question asked individuals to identify the type of industry in which they worked. The survey was terminated if the hospitality industry was not selected. The second screener question was provided to confirm that participants were older than 18 years of age. If they were younger than 18 years old, the survey would also be terminated.

Attention Check

An attention check was placed toward the middle of the survey. The question, participants were asked to choose "other" as the answer of the question. And they have to fill in "survey" in the textbox next to the choice. If either the choice of "other" or the text of "survey" was not properly input, the survey was terminated.

Psychological Contract Fulfillment

Fresse and Schalk (2008) suggested that unlike psychological contract breach, fulfillment of the psychological contract should be determined by a measure consisting of multiple items instead of a global evaluation (Freese & Schalk, 2008). Therefore, 13 specific items assessing various aspects of the employment relationship were adapted from Karagonlar, Eisenberger and Aselage's (2015) study were used in both approach, yielded a Chronbach's alpha of .87. Example items included "Consideration of your interests when making decisions that affect you" and "Fair pay compared with employees doing similar work in other organizations".

Two major approaches were identified in the existing literature to measure psychological contract fulfillment. The first approach is to assess fulfillment directly asking employees to what extent their employers have fulfilled their obligations (e.g., Lester, Kickul, & Bergmann, 2007; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). The other approach is to assess psychological contract fulfillment as a difference score between employer inducements and employer obligations (e.g., Robinson, 1996). The difference score has been discussed in the literature. Previous researchers argued that using a difference score better represented the congruence between two constructs (Arnold, 1996; Edward, 2001), such as person and job fit (Edward, 1991) and the match between employee expectations and experiences (Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992). However, researchers also argued that a difference score approach created validity and reliability issues (Peter, Churchill Jr, & Brown, 1993) as well as mythological problems (Edward, 2001). Since the difference score approach directly reflects the definition of psychological contract fulfillment used in this study, which is the fulfilled and over accomplished promises of employers (Rousseau, 1989), the difference score approach was initially used in this study. However, the results of the pilot study showed concerns with this approach (detailed results are discussed in the pilot study section). Therefore, respondents were asked to respond to several direct statements to assess employee psychological contract fulfillment in the final data collection.

In the difference score approach, participants were asked to what extent has the organization implicitly or explicitly promised to provide X (employer obligations) and to what extent does the organization provide X (employer inducement) (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002). All responses were collected through a 7-point scale (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *to a great extent*). Psychological contract fulfillment was determined as the difference between inducement and

obligation scores. In the direct question approach, employees' psychological contract fulfillment was assessed by the question "to what extent the organization meets your expectations concerning the following" and the participants rated each measurement item on a 7-point scale (1 = *Much less than expected*; 7 = *Much more than expected*) (Fresse & Schalk, 1997; Karagonlar, et al., 2015).

Perceived Organizational Support

The scale developed by Eisenberger, et al. (1986) was adopted to examine employees' perceived organizational support. This scale has 36-items in its original version, however, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) suggested that because of the unidemensional and high reliability of the original scale, an 8-items version of the questionnaire should be adequate for future research. Participants' degree of agreement or disagreement with each statement will measure from a scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strong Agree*). Previous research demonstrated these eight items show an internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of 0.89 to 0.93. Example items were "the organization values my contribution to its well-being" and "the organization would ignore any complaint from me" (reverse coded).

Affect at Work

Affect at work was assessed using the shortened 20-item version (Schaufeli & van Rhenen, 2006) of the Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS; Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000). JAWS measures employees' affective reaction at work as the frequency of experiencing four groups of affect: high-pleasure/high-arousal (HPHA); high-pleasure/low-arousal (HPLA); low-pleasure/high-arousal (LPLA); low-pleasure/low-arousal (LPHA). The frequency of these affective states will be rated using a scale from 1 (*never*) to 7

(*very often*). In previous studies, these scales showed a Cronbach's alpha of 0.90, 0.81, 0.80 and 0.80, respectively. Example affects were "angry", "calm", "excited" and "bored".

Career Satisfaction

Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley's (1990) 5-item measure was adapted to measure employees' career satisfaction by participants' ratings from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strong Agree*). The reliability of this career satisfaction scale was reported as 0.88. Example items included "I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career" and "I am satisfied with the process I have made toward meeting my overall career goals".

Employee Engagement

The 9-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003) was utilized to investigate employee engagement. This scale consists of three sub-constructs of engagement (vigor, absorption and dedication) with 3 items for each. The response scale is a frequency from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*always*). Previous research reported an internal consistency of 0.94. Example items were "At my work, I feel bursting with energy" and "I feel happy when I am working intensely".

Thriving

Thriving was measured using a 10-item scale developed by Porath et al.'s (2012) Participants will be required to rate their degree of agreement or disagreement on five statements on learning and five statements on vitality from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree)*. The highest overall internal consistency for the thriving scale was reported as 0.94. Example items were "I find myself learning often in my job" and "I feel alive and vital in my job".

Turnover Intention

The measurement of turnover intention was adapted from DeConinck and Stilwell's (2004) study. This measurement comprises four items and participants will indicate their degree of agreement and disagreement on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strong agree). The reliability of this measurement was reported as 0.90. Example items were "Within the next six month, I intend to search for another job" and "Within the next year, I intend to leave this profession".

Demographics

Demographic information was collected at the end of the questionnaire. It included age, sex, marital status, ethnicity, organization hierarchical level, employment status (full-time vs. part-time), employment department, tenure, income level and education level.

Pilot Study and Measurement Refinement

The pilot survey was soft launched at Qualtrics.com between Oct. 7^{th} and Oct. $8^{th,}$ 2015 and was used to check the questionnaire flow as well as the wording, face validity and reliability of the measurement scales prior to the final data collection. A total of 35 respondents completed the survey. A difference score approach (employer inducement ratings minus employer obligation ratings) was used to assess psychological contract fulfillment (Appendix II). However, this approach substantially reduced the variance in the psychological contract fulfillment, which was discussed as variance restriction by Peter et al. (1993). Many participants rated the same scale for employer obligation and inducement and resulted in a rating of 0 for psychological contract fulfillment. The item variances in the psychological contract fulfillment scores ranged between 0.33 to 1.48, while the item variance in the obligation and inducement scores ranged between 0.66 and 2.5. Therefore, a direct question approach was used in the final data collection.

In addition, a series of exploratory factor analyses using principal components and varimax rotation as well as Cronbach's alphas were examined. There were no other concerns emerged from the pilot test.

Data Collection and Analysis

The revised survey was launched at Qualtrics.com between Oct. 8th and Oct. 10th, 2015. In total, 322 respondents passed the two screening questions and started the survey. From the 322 respondents, 19 were filtered out by the attention check question. Another three respondents were excluded because they used less than three minutes (approximately 1/3 the median survey time) to complete the survey. Therefore, the final sample comprised 300 respondents for data analysis.

The analysis used in this study consisted of three major steps: (1) data screening and preparation, (2) exploratory factor analysis, and (3) path analysis. The purpose of the first step was to prepare and clean the data for further multivariate analysis. The purpose of the second step was to check each measures' reliability and validity as well as create factor scores of the constructs for path analysis. Lastly, path analysis was used to test proposed hypotheses. The first steps were performed by SPSS 22 and the last step was performed through EQS 6.2.

Data Screening and Preparation

Data screening and preparation include several aspects: (1) identifying missing data or straightlining responses; (2) checking for outliers; and (3) screening the data for normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity of observed variables.

There were no missing values identified in this study since the online survey approach ensured that participants answered every question in the survey. Also, straightlining responses were not found because of the attention check.

Outliers are data points that are distinct or deviant from the rest of the data (Pedhazur, 1997) and can create biased results. Outliers normally fall into four categories (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010): (1) procedural error: data entry or coding error; (2) extraordinary event: some special event happened during data collection and affected the observation; (3) extraordinary observations: some observation that are substantially different from others but researchers are unable to explain; (4) outliers that fall in the ordinary range but are associated with unique combinations. Hair et al (2010) suggested that outliers need to be detected at both the univariate level and the multivariate level. Therefore, at the univariate level a series of descriptive and frequency analyses were applied to all measurement items. No univariate level outliers were detected. At the multivariate level, Hair et al., (2010) suggested using Mahalanobis' D^2 to detect outliers and none were found in the data.

In addition, Hair et al., (2010) suggested testing the assumptions of univariate normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity prior to any multivariate analysis. Therefore, the data distribution shape (i.e., skewness and kurtosis), histogram, normality plots and Levene tests were examined. The results of these tests indicated that all assumptions were largely met. According to Pedhazur (1997), more residual based analysis and influential analysis should be provided prior to multiple regression to detect multivariate level outliers and test assumptions. However, since the multiple regression based path analysis were not applied on individual measurement items but on construct factor scores, these tests are discussed in the path analysis section.

Harman's Post Hoc Analysis

Podsakoff and Organ (1986) suggested that a Harman's post hoc analysis is needed to test for common method bias, especially when the data is collected through a self-reported survey and completed at one time. If the results of the principle components analysis without rotation

reveals (1) a single factor or (2) one general factor accounts for the majority of variance, then there is a common method bias concern. Therefore, a principle components analysis without rotation was applied on all measures. The results showed that 12 factors were extracted from the analysis but 40.75% of the variance loaded on one main factor while all 12 factors explained 73.06% of the total variance in all measures. Since 40.75% accounted for more than half of the variance extracted from the principle components analysis, there is a possibility of common method bias in this study. Podsakoff et al. (2003) suggested that using a confirmatory factor analysis approach can better depict common method bias issues. Therefore, a one-factor model and a seven factor model were conducted in StataMP 14. The results showed that the seven factor model ($\chi^2(2256) = 6715.08$, $p < 0.001$) fit the data better than the one factor model ($\chi^2(2277) = 10781.32$, $p < 0.001$). This result minimized the concern of common method bias and provided support for the convergent validity of the measures.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

After data cleaning, outlier detection and common method bias diagnostics, a series of exploratory factor analyses (EFA) were applied to each construct (i.e., psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support, affect at work, thriving, engagement, turnover intention and career satisfaction). These EFAs used principle components extraction and varimax rotation because the purpose of the analysis was twofold. First, the results of principle component analysis (PCAs) assists with content and convergent validity of the measurement scales (Bryant, 2000). Content validity concerns the degree to which an instrument assesses all relevant aspects of the measured constructs, while convergent validity, as one form of construct validity, concerns the degree to which multiple measures of the same construct demonstrate agreement or convergence (Bryant, 2000). Secondly, factor scores generated by PCAs were used

for the subsequent path analysis. According to Hair et al. (2010), Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Neyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) should be examined to check the appropriateness of using PCA. A KMO value that is larger than 0.5 indicates a satisfactory sampling adequacy. The Bartlett test of sphericity is an overall test of the correlation matrix to detect if there are significant correlations among variables in PCA. Therefore, a significant result of Barrlett's test of sphericity is desirable. The number of factors extracted was determined by the latent root criterion (i.e., eigenvalues greater than 1), priori criterion and the percentage of variance criterion (i.e., variance extracted greater than 60%). Factor loading cutoff scores in this study were set at 0.4, which was suggested by Hair et al. (2010). Factor scores of PCAs were saved for the path analysis.

Path Analysis

Path analysis was applied as the last step of data analysis. Path analysis, a variant of structural equation modeling, is a process to analyze multiple regression equations in one research model. Therefore, this analysis provided the basis to test the hypothesized mediations. Four path analysis models were tested and in each model, employee psychological contract fulfillment was the exogenous variable; perceived organizational support and affect at work were sequential mediators; and one of the four outcome variables (i.e., thriving, career satisfaction, employee engagement and turnover intention) was the final dependent variable. The evaluations of path analysis and mediation tests including effect size, path coefficients.

However, because of the use of multiple regression algorithms in path analysis, several assumptions should be tested prior to conducting path analysis. According to Hair et al., (2010), four assumptions need to be examined in multiple regression: (1) linearity of the phenomenon; (2) constant variance of error terms; (3) independence of the error terms; and (4) normality of the

error term distributions. Therefore, residual plots, normal probability plots, variance inflation factors (VIF) and Durbin-Watson scores were tested. For all multiple equations, these assumptions were largely met. In addition, Pedhazur (1997) suggested that casewise diagnostics of outliers as well as influence tests (i.e., covariance ratio, standardized difference in fit value, standardized DFBeta) were needed for multiple regression. Therefore, those tests were also applied in each regression analysis and discussed in the results section.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of this study. First, demographic information regarding respondents' characteristics is reported. Second, exploratory factor analysis results as well as construct reliability are provided. Finally, path analysis as well as the mediation test results are examined to test the following hypotheses:

H1: Affect at work mediates the negative relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and turnover intention.

H2: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and employee engagement.

H3: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and career satisfaction.

H4: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and thriving.

H5: Perceived organizational support mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and affect at work.

H6: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between perceived organizational support and career satisfaction.

H7: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between perceived organizational support and employee engagement.

H8: Affect at work mediates the positive relationship between perceived organizational support and thriving.

H9: Affect at work mediates the negative relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intention.

Demographic Analysis

Two aspects of respondents' demographic information were captured by the survey: (1) socio-demographic characteristics and (2) job characteristics.

Socio-demographic Characteristics

The respondents' socio-demographic characteristics are presented in Table 1. Among the 300 respondents, the majority was female (76.7%). More than half were younger than 35 years old (52.0%). The majority of respondents had some college education (43.0%) or high school or less education (18.7). Caucasians represented the largest category of respondents (77.0%), followed by notably smaller numbers of African Americans (9.7%) and Latinos or Hispanics (5.3%). Most respondents did not have any dependents (43.7%), while 5.7% of respondents had 4 or more dependents. Over half earned less than $49,999 per year.

Table 1

Socio-demographic Characteristics

Demographic	n	%
Gender		
Male	70	23.3
Female	230	76.7
Ethnicity		
Caucasian/White	231	77.0
African American	29	9.7
Latino/a or Hispanic	16	5.3
Asian or Pacific Islander	13	4.3
Others	7	2.3
Prefer not to disclose	4	1.3
Education Level		
High school grad or less	56	18.7
Some college degree	129	43.0
Undergraduate degree	80	26.7
Graduate degree	33	11.0
Prefer not to disclose	2	0.7
Age		
18-24	48	16.0
25-34	108	36.0
35-44	59	19.7
45-54	59	19.7
55-64	21	7.0
65 and older	5	1.7
Annual Income		
Less than $30,000 per year	100	33.3
$30,000 - $49,999	85	28.3
$50,000 - $74,999	61	20.3
$75,000 - $99,999	24	8.0
$100,000 - $124,999	17	5.7
$125,000 - $149,999	4	1.3
$150,000 or above	6	2.0
Prefer not to answer	3	1.0
Number of Dependents		
0	131	43.7
1	70	23.3
2	52	17.3
3	30	10.0
4 and more	17	5.7

Job Characteristics

The respondents' job characteristics are presented in Table 2. The majority were front-line employees (56.7%) with over half (68%) in the front of house departments (e.g., front desk, guest services.). Almost two-thirds of respondents were paid hourly (71.3%) and the length of employment at their present company was almost evenly split between less than and greater than four years with the majority at 1 to 3 years (34.7%). Respondents were asked to provide their work hours in an open textbox in the survey. The work hours were coded into two categories: regular, people who worked between 6am and 7pm; and irregular, those working before 6am or after 7pm. Respondents who did not answer this question clearly, such as missing am or pm in their response, were coded as *can't identify*. The majority of respondents worked during regular work hours (52.7%).

Table 2

Job Characteristics

Demographic	n	%
Compensation Structure		
Salary	75	25.0
Hourly	214	71.3
Working Area		
Back of the house	65	21.7
Front of the house	204	68.0
Other	31	10.3
Tenure		
Less than a year	50	16.7
Between 1 and 4 years, but less than 4 years	104	34.7
Between 4 and 7 years but less than 7 years	64	21.3
Between 7 and 10 years but less than 10 years	34	11.3
10 years and more	48	16.0
Employment Status		
Full-time	218	72.7
Part-time	79	26.3
On-call	1	0.3
Other	2	0.7
Organization hierarchical level		
Front-line employee	170	56.7
Manager/Supervisor	93	31
Director and above	13	4.3
Other	24	8.0
Work hour/Shifts		
Regular workhour	158	52.7
Irregular workhour	95	31.7
Can't identify	47	15.7

Exploratory Factor Analyses Results

All seven constructs were analyzed separately using principle components analysis with varimax rotation. After determining the number of sub-dimensions within each construct, reliabilities for each sub-dimension was tested and reported. The results are presented in the following sections.

Psychological Contract Fulfillment

After entering all 13 psychological contract fulfillment items into PCA with varimax rotation, the results revealed two sub-dimensions. However, the second dimension had only one item "steady employment" with a factor loading of 0.70, and was also cross loaded (0.49) with the first factor. Therefore, "steady employment" was deleted from the second PCA. After deleting, the 12 psychological contract fulfillment items showed a unidemensional result and explained 58.9% of the variance. Both KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated adequate use of PCA. The reliability was acceptable with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.94. The regression factor score was saved for future use. The results of PCA on the 12 measurement items of psychological contract fulfillment are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Principle Component Analysis of Psychological Contract Fulfillment

Psychological contract fulfillment	Factor Loading
Items	
Consideration of your interests when making decisions that affect you.	0.81
Challenging work assignments	0.68
Comfortable work environment	0.74
Reasonable work load	0.67
Up-to-date training and development	0.79
Fair pay compared with employees doing similar work in other organizations	0.83
Good health care benefits	0.64
Adequate resources to do job well	0.86
The necessary training to do job well	0.84
Adequate time for personal life	0.68
Fair pay for the responsibilities the employees have in their jobs	0.84
Clear job responsibilities	0.79
Overall Results	
Eigenvalue	7.07
Variance explained (%)	58.90
Cronbach's alpha	0.94

Note. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy = 0.92; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = 2532.68 (66 df, $p<0.0001$).

Perceived Organizational Support

Similar procedures were applied to the eight measurement items of perceived organizational support. These eight items showed unidemensionality in the PCA, therefore, no item was deleted in this construct. The single factor extracted explained 71.46% of the variance. Both KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated adequate use of PCA. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.94, which indicated an acceptable reliability. The regression factor score was saved for future use. The PCA results of the perceived organizational support construct are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Principle Component Analysis of Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support	Factor loadings
Items	
The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	0.83
The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)	0.81
The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)	0.82
The organization really cares about my well-being.	0.85
Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)	0.87
The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	0.87
The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)	0.87
The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	0.85
Overall Results	
Eigenvalue	5.72
Variance explained (%)	71.46
Cronbach's alpha	0.94

Note. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy = 0.93; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = 2125.61 (28 df, p<0.0001).

Affect at Work

According to both Van Katwyk, et al. (2000) and Schaufeli and van Rhenen (2006), affect at work consists of four components based on a combination of high and low pleasure and arousal levels (i.e., HPHA. LPHA. LPLA, LPHA). Each component of was measured by five different attributes. However, the PCA using an a priori criterion of four factors did not converge well. Many cross loadings resulted from the initial PCA. Therefore, the scree plot generated from this PCA was closely examined. The scree plot showed that the eigenvalue dropped substantially between the one-factor and two-factor solutions but not much between the two-factor and three-factor solutions, as well as three-factor and four-factor solutions. Therefore, a second PCA using a priori criterion of two factors was applied to the data and it converged well. The results of the second PCA indicated that only the level of pleasure functioned as an attribute to separate the 20

affects into high pleasure affects (HP) and low pleasure affects (LP). In addition, “discouraged” as a low pleasure affect (0.68) also cross-loaded with high pleasure affect (-0.44). Therefore, “discouraged” was deleted from the final PCA of affect at work items. These results are presented in Table 5. HP and LP together explained 61.67% of variance in affect at work. Both KMO and Bartlett’s test of sphericity indicated adequate use of PCA. The Cronbach’s alpha of HP and LP were 0.94 and 0.89 respectively and are both above the suggested value of 0.70. Factor scores for both components were saved for future use.

Table 5

Principle Component Analysis of Affect at Work

Affect	High Pleasure Affect (HP)	Low Pleasure Affect (LP)
Items		
Enthusiastic	**0.87**	**-0.22**
Excited	**0.86**	-0.11
Energetic	**0.84**	-0.18
Inspired	**0.83**	-0.11
Satisfied	**0.80**	-0.33
Ecstatic	**0.77**	-0.04
Relaxed	**0.75**	-0.30
At ease	**0.73**	-0.25
Content	**0.71**	-0.33
Calm	**0.60**	-0.35
Gloomy	-0.24	**0.81**
Furious	-0.15	**0.81**
Disgusted	-0.30	**0.76**
Angry	-0.37	**0.72**
Frightened	0.08	**0.72**
Depressed	-0.35	**0.72**
Anxious	-0.07	**0.66**
Fatigues	-0.38	**0.58**
Bored	-0.16	**0.45**
Overall Results		
Eigenvalue	9.00	2.72
Variance explained (%)	47.34	14.33
Cumulative variance (%)	47.34	61.67
Cronbach's alpha	0.94	0.89

Note. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy = 0.93; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = 4194.22 (171 df, $p<0.0001$).

Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction was measured by five items. By entering these items into PCA with varimax rotation, only one dimension was extracted. This single factor explained 77.04% variance in the construct. Both KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated adequate use of PCA. The PCA result of the career satisfaction construct is presented in Table 6. The reliability

of this construct was 0.93 and the regression factor score of this single factor was also saved for future analysis.

Table 6

Principle Component Analysis of Career Satisfaction

Career Satisfaction	Factor Loading
Items	
I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.	0.88
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.	0.91
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.	0.85
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.	0.91
I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.	0.83
Overall Results	
Eigenvalue	3.85
Variance explained (%)	77.04
Cronbach's alpha	0.93

Note. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy = 0.88; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = 1148.37 (10 df, p<0.0001).

Employee Engagement

Nine items were used to measure employee engagement. Schaufeli and Bakker (2001) suggested that these nine items should load on the three factors of vigor, dedication and absorption. However, the PCA using an a priori criterion of three factors did not converge well. These three dimensions did not show significant difference between factors. Therefore, an eigenvalue criterion (i.e., eigenvalue greater than 1) was used to decide the number of factors in this construct. The results showed that employee engagement was also a unidimensional construct (Table 7). KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated that PCA is appropriate in

analyzing the data. A Cronbach's alpha of 0.94 indicated the acceptable reliability in this construct and factor score is also saved.

Table 7

Principle Component Analysis of Employee Engagement

Employee Engagement	Factor Loading
Items	
At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	0.84
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	0.86
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0.86
I am enthusiastic about my job.	0.91
My job inspires me.	0.86
I am proud of the work that I do.	0.77
I feel happy when I am working intensely.	0.81
I am immersed in my work.	0.78
I get carried away when I am working.	0.58
Overall Results	
Eigenvalue	5.69
Variance explained (%)	66.25
Cronbach's alpha	0.94

Note. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy = 0.91; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = 2237.00 (36 df, p<0.0001).

Thriving

Thriving was measured by 10 items and indicated by Porath et al.'s (2012) that the items should load on two factors: learning and vitality. Therefore, an a priori criterion of two factors was used in the PCA. The results showed that learning and vitality items loaded well on their designated factor, except "I am developing a lot as a person in my job". This item had a cross loading on both the learning (0.57) and vitality factors (0.54). Therefore, this item was removed from the second PCA analysis. The results of the second PCA are presented in Table 8. Both KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated the use of PCA was adequate. The Cronbach's

alpha of learning and vitality was 0.85 and 0.90 respectively, suggesting acceptable reliability. Factor scores of learning and vitality were saved also.

Table 8

Principle Component Analysis of Thriving

Thriving	Learning	Vitality
Items		
I find myself learning often in my job.	**0.84**	0.34
I continue to learn more as time goes by in my job.	**0.84**	0.36
I see myself continually improving in my job.	**0.76**	0.40
I am not learning at work. (R)	**0.69**	0.13
I feel alive and vital in my job.	0.35	**0.83**
I have energy and spirit at work.	0.29	**0.86**
I do not feel very energetic at work. (R)	0.24	**0.64**
I feel alert and awake in my job.	0.26	**0.84**
I am looking forward to each new work day.	0.28	**0.84**
Overall Results		
Eigenvalue	1.10	5.44
Variance explained (%)	12.23	60.41
Cumulative variance (%)	12.23	72.64
Cronbach's alpha	0.85	0.90

Note. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy = 0.89; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = 1992.25 (36 df, $p<0.0001$).

Turnover Intention

Four items were designed to measure turnover intention. By entering these four items into a PCA, a one-dimension solution converged using an eigenvalue large than 1. Both KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated the use of PCA was adequate. Table 9 presents the detailed results of the PCA. The reliability of this single factor was 0.92. The factor score was also saved.

Table 9

Principle Component Analysis of Turnover Intention

Turnover Intention	Factor Loadings
Items	
Within the next six months, I intend to search for another job.	0.89
Within the next year, I intend to leave this profession.	0.88
Within the next six months, I would rate the likelihood of leaving my present job as high.	0.91
Within the next year, I would rate the likelihood of searching for a job in a different profession as high.	0.91
Overall Results	
Eigenvalue	3.22
Variance explained (%)	80.45
Cronbach's alpha	0.92

Note. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy = 0.83; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = 881.89 (6 df, $p<0.0001$).

Summary

In this section, the each measurement construct was analyzed by principle components analysis with varimax rotation. The analysis results were evaluated using KMO, Bartlett's test of sphericity, factor loading cut off value, and variance explained. The results showed that out of seven measured constructs, five were unidimensional while two were found to be multi-dimensional. Affect at work represented two sub-dimensions: high pleasure affect (HP) and low pleasure affect (LP) as well as thriving: learning and vitality. These results are consistent with previous research. The internal reliability of each construct was also examined. The Cronbach's alpha of all constructs' ranged from 0.85 to 0.94, which indicated good internal consistency within each factor. In addition, all regression factor scores were saved for the next step of path analysis.

Path Analysis Results

Path analysis was applied to the factor scores obtained from the series of principle component analyses. Four research models using different final outcome variables were tested (Figure 3). According to Hayes (2013), HP and LP were parallel mediators, in which LP or HP does not have influence on each other, while POS is a serial mediator before LP and HP, in which POS had influence on both LP and HP.

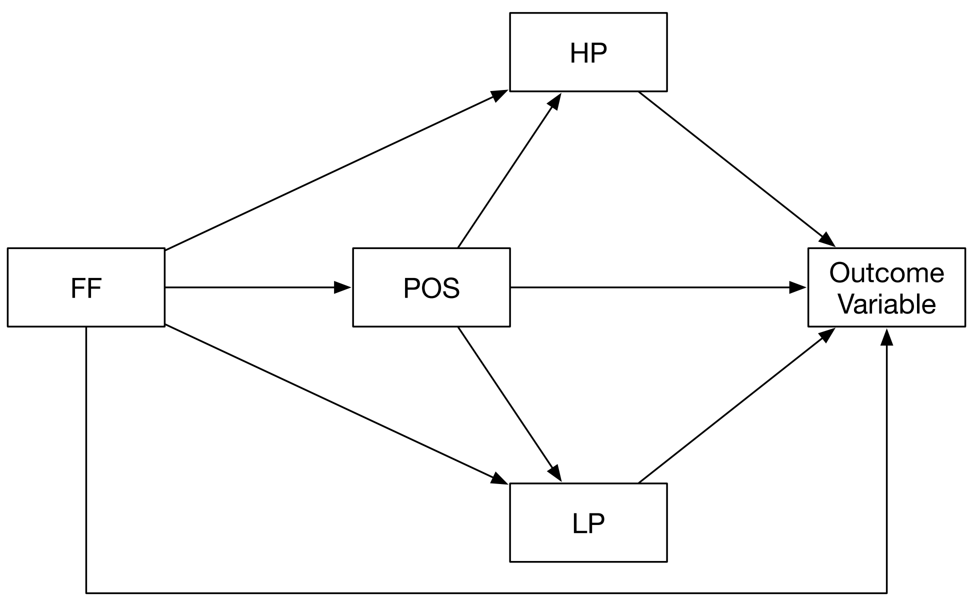

Figure 3. Master research model.

Note. FF = psychological contract fulfillment; POS = perceived organizational support; HP = high pleasure affect; LP = low pleasure affect.

Since these hypothesized models were tested directly using factor scores, these path analyses can be viewed as testing of various multiple regressions equations simultaneously. Therefore, the evaluation criterion of the path analysis majorly involved the criterion suggested in evaluating multiple regressions (e.g. coefficient of determination, regression coefficient,

statistical significance). Since this study results involves four model, in order to have results that are comparable, standardized path coefficients (B) are reported instead of the unstandardized path coefficients (β). Equations involved in these research models were:

$$POS = a_0 + a_1FF + e \quad (1)$$

$$HP = b_0 + b_1FF + b_2POS + e \quad (2)$$

$$LP = c_0 + c_1FF + c_2POS + e \quad (3)$$

$$CS = d_0 + d_1FF + d_2POS + d_3HP + d_4LP + e \quad (4)$$

$$EE = f_0 + f_1FF + f_2POS + f_3HP + e_4LP + e \quad (5)$$

$$Lrn = g_0 + g_1FF + g_2POS + g_3HP + g_4LP + e \quad (6)$$

$$Vtl = h_0 + h_1FF + h_2POS + h_3HP + h_4LP + e \quad (7)$$

$$TI = i_0 + i_1FF + h_2POS + i_3HP + i_4LP + e \quad (8)$$

Hair et al. (2010) suggested to test assumptions and multivariate level outliers prior to each multiple regression. Therefore, covariance ratio, standardized difference in fit value, standardized DFBeta, and casewise diagnostics (i.e. outliers outside 3.3 standard deviations) were closely inspected. These test revealed 11 outliers, which were deleted from the further analysis. Multicollinearity was examined using variance inflation factor (VIF) with the cutoff value of 5. The VIF values ranged from 1.26 to 2.65, indicating no multicollinearity. Assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity were examined by scatter plot of standardized residuals and standardized predicted score as well as standardized residual histogram. All assumptions were largely met according these analyses. These results indicated that path analysis was adequate to be used on the data set. Therefore, path analyses results using EQS 6.2 on each model are presented in the following section.

Model I: Career Satisfaction

Model I was analyzed to examine the relationships among psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support, high pleasure affect, low pleasure affect and career satisfaction. Regression equations (1), (2), (3) and (4) were analyzed simultaneously in this model. Since the relationship among psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support, high pleasure affect and low pleasure affect remained the same in all four models, (1) (2) and (3) were analyzed in all model. However, since the regression equations did not change, the results involving these four variables kept consistent. Therefore, the results related to the relationships among these four variables are only reported in this section. The results of model I are presented in Table 10 and Figure 4. The results showed that psychological contract fulfillment had a significant positive direct effect on perceived organizational support (B =0.71, p <0.001) and high pleasure (B =0.36, p <0.001), but not on low pleasure (B =-0.03, p >0.05) or on career satisfaction (B =0.71, p <0.001). Perceived organizational support had a significant direct positive impact on high pleasure affect (B =0.39, p <0.001) and low pleasure affect (B =-0.38, p <0.001) directly but not on career satisfaction (B =0.04, p >0.05) either. Meanwhile, both high pleasure (B =0.49, p <0.001) and low pleasure (B =-0.13, p <0.05) affect had significant direct impact on career satisfaction. In terms of indirect effect, psychological contract fulfillment had a significant impact on high pleasure affect (B =0.28, p <0.05) and low pleasure affect (B =-0.27, p <0.01) through perceived organizational support, and a significant impact on career satisfaction (B =0.24, p <0.05) through various paths.

As showed in Figure 4, since the direct effect from psychological fulfillment to low pleasure affect was not significant but the indirect effect was significant, perceived organizational support was a full mediator between these two variables. Also, because the direct

and indirect effect from psychological contract fulfillment on high level affect were both statistically significant, perceived organizational support was a partial mediator between psychological contract fulfillment and high pleasure affect. Therefore, the hypothesis 5 (perceived organizational support mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and affect at work) was partially supported. Since the direct effect from psychological contract fulfillment to career satisfaction was not significant but the indirect effect was, perceived organization support, high pleasure and low pleasure fully mediated the relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and career satisfaction. Therefore, hypothesis 3 (affect at work mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and career satisfaction) was supported by the results. Hypothesis 6 (affect at work mediates the positive relationship between perceived organizational support and career satisfaction) was also supported because the direct effect between perceived organizational support and career satisfaction was not significant but the indirect effect was significant.

Table 10

Direct and Indirect Effects from the Model I

Effect	Direct effect (Standardized)	Indirect effect (Standardized)	R^2
On perceived organizational support			0.51
of psychological contract fulfillment	0.71***	00	
On high pleasure affect			0.49
of psychological contract fulfillment	0.36***	0.28***	
of perceived organizational support	0.39***	00	
On low pleasure affect			0.16
of psychological contract fulfillment	-0.03^{ns}	-0.27***	
of perceived organizational support	-0.38***	00	
On career satisfaction			0.33
of psychological contract fulfillment	0.02^{ns}	0.38***	
of perceived organizational support	0.04^{ns}	0.24**	
of high pleasure affect	0.49***	00	
of low pleasure affect	-0.13*	00	

Note. **p* <0.05; ***p*< 0.01; ****p* <0.001; ^{ns} *p* >0.05 (nonsignificant).

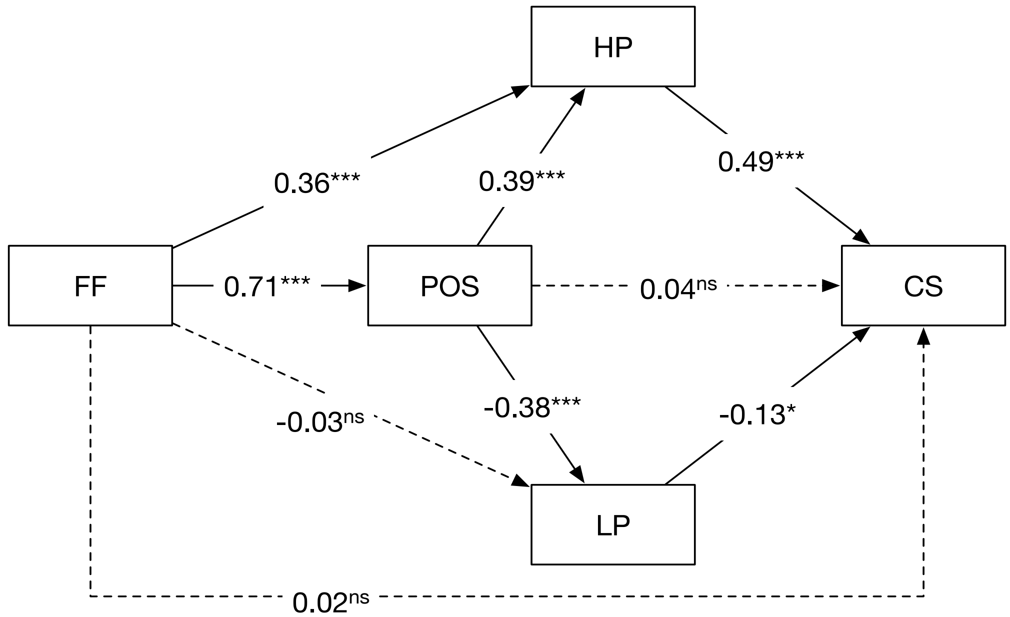

Figure 4. Model I results.

Note. FF = psychological contract fulfillment; POS = perceived organizational support; HP = high pleasure affect; LP = low pleasure affect; CS = career satisfaction. *p <0.05; **p< 0.01; ***p <0.001; ^{ns} p >0.05 (nonsignificant).

Model II: Employee Engagement

This model analyzed the outcome variable as employee engagement (Figure 5). The relationships analyzed in this model involved the regression equations (1) (2) (3) and (5). The results (Table 11) showed that employee engagement was directly influenced by psychological contract fulfillment (B= -0.23, *p* <0.05), high pleasure affect (B =0.68, *p* <0.001) and low pleasure affect B =0.28, *p* <0.01), but not by perceived organizational support. In addition, the indirect effect on employee engagement from psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support were both statistically significant. Therefore, perceived organizational support, high pleasure affect and low pleasure affect were all partial mediators between

psychological contract fulfillment and employee engagement. Also, because of the insignificant direct effect and significant indirect effect that perceived organizational support had on employee engagement, both high pleasure affect and low pleasure affect fully mediated the relationship between perceived organizational support and employee engagement. Therefore, hypothesis 2 (affect at work mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and employee engagement) and hypothesis 7 (affect at work mediates the positive relationship between perceived organizational support and employee engagement) were both supported.

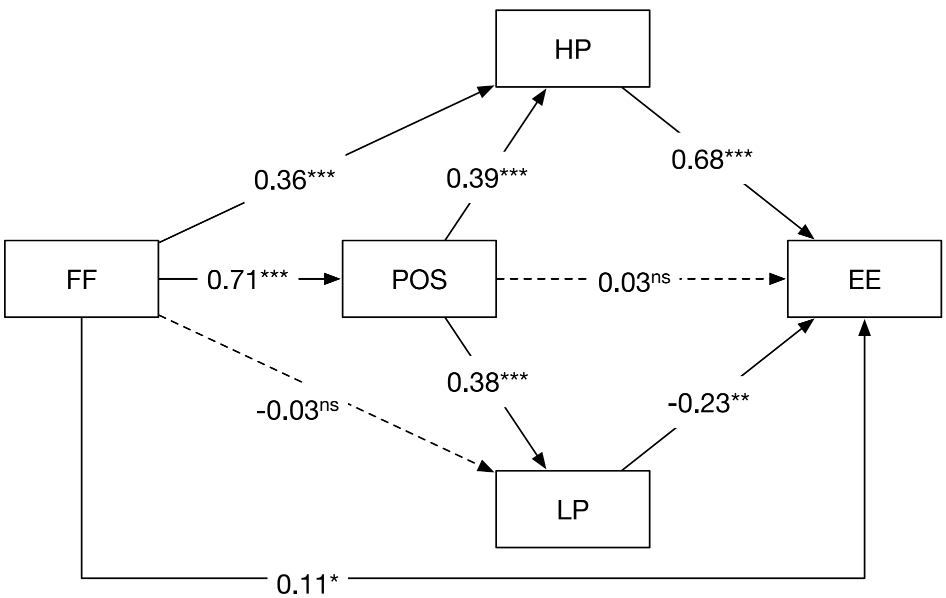

Figure 5. Model II results.

Note. FF = psychological contract fulfillment; POS = perceived organizational support; HP = high pleasure affect; LP = low pleasure affect; EE = employee engagement *p <0.05; **p< 0.01; ***p <0.001; ^{ns} p >0.05 (nonsignificant).

Table 11

Direct and Indirect Effects from the Model II

Effect	Direct effect (Standardized)	Indirect effect (Standardized)	R^2
On employee engagement			0.77
of psychological contract fulfillment	0.11*	0.53***	
of perceived organizational support	0.03^{ns}	0.36***	
of high pleasure affect	0.68***	00	
of low pleasure affect	-0.23**	00	

Note. *p <0.05; **p< 0.01; ***p <0.001; ^{ns} p >0.05 (nonsignificant).

Model III: Thriving

Learning and vitality were the extracted factors from thriving measures and were included in this model as outcome variables (Figure 6). This model tested equation (1) (2) (3) (6) and (7) together.

The results (Table 12) showed that learning was directly predicted by perceived organizational support (B =0.30, p <0.01), but both affect at work variables (i.e. high pleasure affect and low pleasure affect) or psychological contract fulfillment were not predictors of learning. Thus perceived organizational support became a full mediator between psychological contract fulfillment and learning. Vitality was directly impacted by high pleasure affect (B =0.62, p <0.001) and low pleasure affect (B =-0.20, p <0.001), but not directly by perceived organizational support. Therefore, the significant indirect effect from psychological contract fulfillment on vitality was through perceived organizational support, high pleasure affect and low pleasure affect. In addition, affect at work variables were mediators between psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support and vitality respectively. Therefore,

hypothesis 4 (affect at work mediates the positive relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and thriving) was partially supported by the data, as well as hypothesis 8 (affect at work mediates the positive relationship between perceived organizational support and thriving).

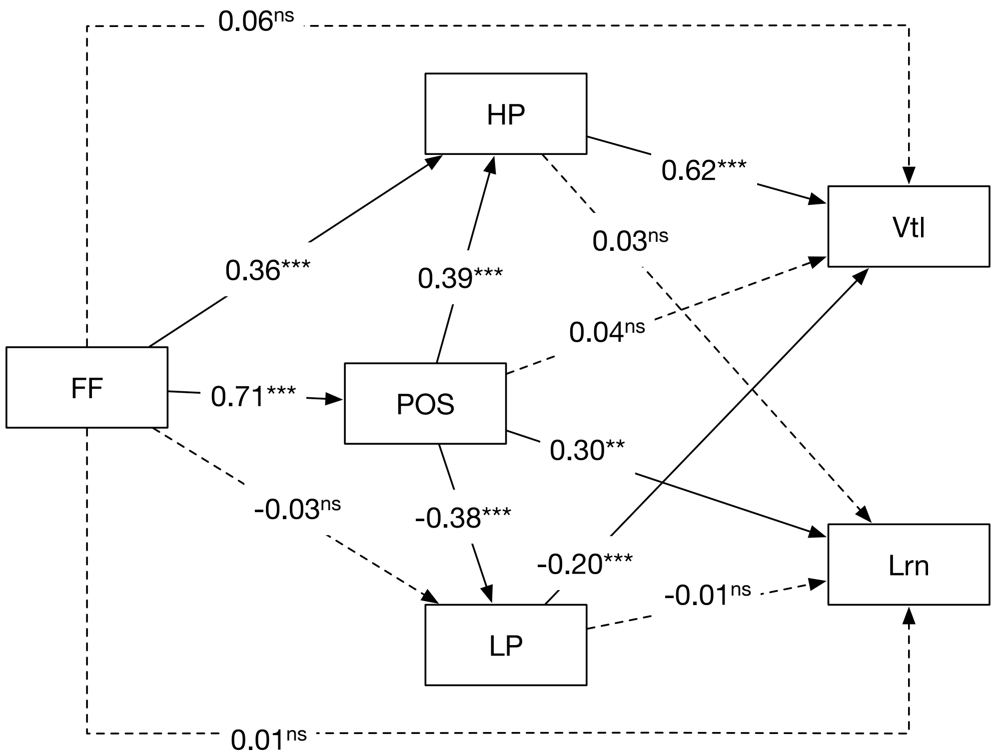

Figure 6. Model III results.

Note. FF = psychological contract fulfillment; POS = perceived organizational support; HP = high pleasure affect; LP = low pleasure affect; Vtl = vitality; Lrn = learning. *p <0.05; **p< 0.01; ***p <0.001; ^{ns} p >0.05 (nonsignificant).

Table 12

Direct and Indirect Effects from the Model III

Effect	Direct effect (Standardized)	Indirect effect (Standardized)	R^2
On vitality			0.59
of psychological contract fulfillment	0.06^{ns}	0.49***	
of perceived organizational support	0.04^{ns}	0.32***	
of high pleasure affect	0.62***	00	
of low pleasure affect	-0.20**	00	
On learning			0.14
of psychological contract fulfillment	0.01^{ns}	0.26**	
of perceived organizational support	0.30**	0.05^{ns}	
of high pleasure affect	0.03^{ns}	00	
of low pleasure affect	-0.10^{ns}	00	

Note. **p* <0.05; ***p*< 0.01; ****p* <0.001; ^{ns} *p* >0.05 (nonsignificant).

Model IV: Turnover Intention

This model analyzed turnover intention as the final outcome. The results showed that both perceived organizational support (B =-0.28, *p* <0.01) and high pleasure affect (B =-0.18, *p* <0.01) had significant direct effect on turnover intention, while low pleasure affect did not have a significant direct effect. However, the indirect effects from psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support on turnover intention were both significant. These results indicated that perceived organizational support and high pleasure affect were mediators between psychological contract fulfillment and turnover intention. In addition, high pleasure affect was a partial mediator between perceived organizational support and turnover intention. Therefore, hypothesis 1 (affect at work mediates the negative relationship between psychological contract fulfillment and turnover intention) was partially supported, while hypothesis 9 (affect at work

mediates the negative relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intention) was fully supported.

Table 13

Direct and Indirect Effects from the Model IV

Effect	Direct effect (Standardized)	Indirect effect (Standardized)	R^2
On turnover intention			0.24
of psychological contract fulfillment	-0.04^{ns}	-0.34***	
of perceived organizational support	-0.28**	-0.11***	
of high pleasure affect	-0.18*	00	
of low pleasure affect	0.10^{ns}	00	

Note. **p* <0.05; ***p*< 0.01; ****p* <0.001; ^{ns} *p* >0.05 (nonsignificant).

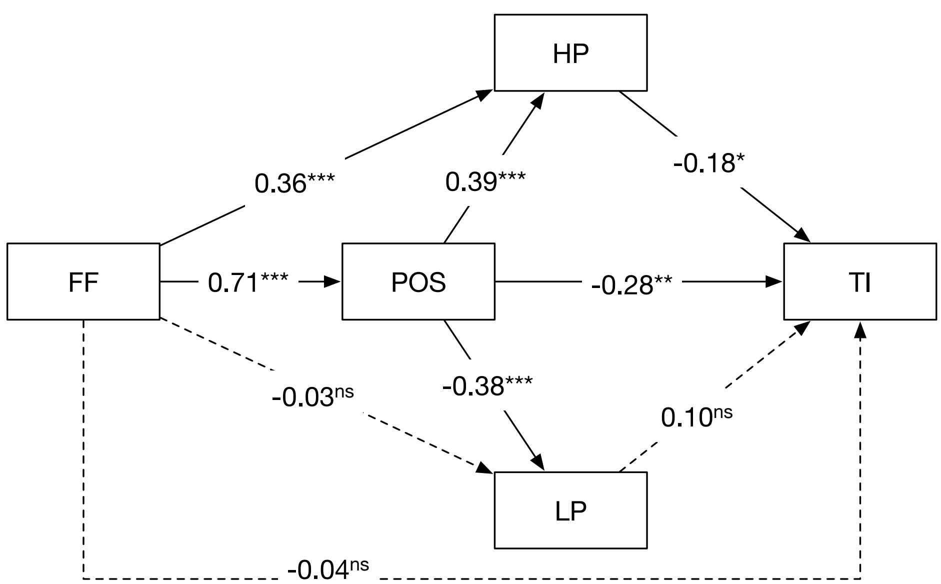

Figure 7. Model IV results.

Note. FF = psychological contract fulfillment; POS = perceived organizational support; HP = high pleasure affect; LP = low pleasure affect; TI = turnover intention. *p <0.05; **p< 0.01; ***p <0.001; ^{ns} p >0.05 (nonsignificant).

Summary

In summary, none of the nine proposed hypotheses was fully rejected by the analyses. However, since psychological contract fulfillment was found not significant in predicting low pleasure affect, some of the relationships from psychological contract fulfillment to the outcome variables were mainly through high pleasure affect. Therefore, hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 were partially supported. In addition, no mediation was present for affect at work variables on learning, which indicated that hypothesis 8 was also partially supported by the results.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter discusses the major findings of this study and draws conclusions based on these findings. It begins with an overview of the study, follows by the results of data analysis and conclusions on each dependent variable. Then, both theoretical and practical implications are provided. This chapter will close with limitations of the study as well as recommendations for future research.

Overview of the Study

This study empirically integrated organizational support theory (OST) and psychological contract theory (PCT) in the hospitality context to understand hospitality employees' work outcomes, including affect at work, career satisfaction, employee engagement, thriving and turnover intention. Affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) provided the theoretical framework for this study. Particularly, employee psychological contract fulfillment was tested as an antecedent for all the variables in this study; career satisfaction, employee engagement, thriving and turnover intention were tested separately in the model as outcome variables; and perceived organizational support and affect at work were tested as mediators in the model. The major analysis in this study involved exploratory factor analysis and path analysis. Nine mediating relationships were hypothesized based on previous literature. None of these nine hypothesized hypotheses were rejected by the analysis. The following section provides the major findings for each outcome variable.

Effect on Perceived Organizational Support

Both employee psychological contract theory and organizational support theory are derived from social exchange theory, therefore the concept of psychological contract fulfillment

and perceived organizational support are inherently related but theoretically distinct from each other. Psychological contract is a dynamic concept that captures employees' subjective feelings regarding how well their employers fulfill their expectations. It changes over time due to various reasons (Rousseau, 1989; Schalk & Roe, 2007) such as critical events at work (e.g., schedule change, heavy work load, unfair pay). Perceived organizational support, as a relatively stable state, represents employees' evaluation of an organization's readiness to reward and support their work (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). According to the results of this study employees' psychological contract fulfillment positively influenced perceived organizational support (B= 0.71) and explained 51% of the variance in perceived organizational support, which indicated a large effect size (Cohen, 1992). Specifically, when employees perceived higher fulfillment of their psychological contract they also were more supported by their employer. This finding is consistent with the majority of previous studies (e.g. Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Karagonlar, Eisenberger, &Aselage, 2015). Previous literature suggested different causality between psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support. Although Guchait, Cho and Meurs (2015) found that perceived organizational support was an antecedent of relational psychological contract fulfillment, the majority of the literature is not in agreement. Coyle-Shapiro and Conway (2005) found that perceived organizational support did not influence employee psychological contract but employees' perceived inducements from their employer predicted perceived organizational support. Karagonlar et al. (2015) found that reciprocation moderates the impact from employee psychological contract fulfillment on perceived organizational support. This study's results confirmed that in the hospitality industry, employees' psychological contract fulfillment strongly influences their perceived organizational support. In other words, the extent that employers fulfill

their promises of various aspects in the employment relationship strongly shapes their employees' belief of being supported at work.

Effect on Affect at Work

This study also examined the contributions from both psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support on employees' affect at work. Aselage and Eisenberger (2003) suggested that psychological contract theory and organizational support theory stress different aspects of the social exchange process and their integration can provide a better explanation of the employee-employer relationship. Therefore, perceived organizational support was tested as a mediator between psychological contract fulfillment and affect at work. Because the results of the exploratory factor analysis, affect at work was separated into two components: high pleasure affect and low pleasure affect.

The results showed that high pleasure affect was impacted directly by both psychological contract fulfillment (B= 0.36) and perceived organizational support (B= 0.39); while low pleasure affect was impacted directly by perceived organizational support (B= -0.38) and indirectly by psychological contract fulfillment through perceived organizational support (B= -0.28). These results showed that psychological contract fulfillment and psychological contract fulfillment were strong predictors of high pleasure affect (R^2= 0.49) but a weak predictor of low pleasure affect (R^2= 0.16). In other words, when employees perceive more fulfilled promises and support from their employer, they experience more pleasure at work. Their expressed affect may include energetic, excited or inspired. However, when they do not perceive fulfilled promises from their employer, they do not necessarily feel unpleasant. Employees would feel unpleasant only if they perceived that their organization was not supporting them. For example, hotel employees need to frequently interact and respond to unsatisfied guests. Sometimes these guests

can be rude or impertinent making the work environment uncomfortable for employees, which may reduce their satisfaction with their employer. However, this situation does not necessarily cause employees to feel unpleasant unless they also feel their organization does not support them by recognizing their contribution or providing necessary care for their well-being. This is a new finding but not counterintuitive. The literature on psychological contract breach, which is the direct opposite of fulfillment, argued that there are major differences between psychological contract breach and violation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Psychological contract breach refers to the unmet employee expectations but psychological contract violation refers to the extreme affect that employee experience because of breach. Morrison and Robinson (1997) argued that not every unmet expectation translates to extreme affective reactions. Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson and Wayne (2008) found that perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange mediated the relationship between psychological contract breach and violation. Similarly, Matthijs Bal, Chiaburu and Jansen (2009) found that psychological contract breach negatively influenced employees' in-role behavior and organizational citizenship behavior, but this relationship was mediated by perceived organizational support and trust in the organization. Particularly, when employees hold a higher-level of perceived organizational support and trust toward the employer, the damaging effects of psychological contract breach on in role and extra role behaviors was diminished. Even though these research findings closely link to the findings of this study, the literature has not discussed the positive effect of psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support on employee affect at work. In summary, this study found that employees psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support have a stronger effect on their positive affect at work than on their negative affect at

work. Specifically, negative affect emerged only when both psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support were missing.

Effect on Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction was tested as one of the work outcomes in this study. Career satisfaction, as employees' personal feelings about their career achievement, captures the subjective or intrinsic aspect of career success (Judge, Cable, Boudreau & Bretz, 1995). The results in this study showed that psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support, high pleasure affect and low pleasure affect all contributed to career satisfaction, with high pleasure affect (B= 0.49) and low pleasure affect (B= -0.13) impacting career satisfaction directly, while psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support influenced career satisfaction through both types of affect. In addition, both high and low affect fully mediated the impact of perceived organizational support on career satisfaction (B= 0.24).

These relationships are straightforward, career satisfaction as an indicator of intrinsic career satisfaction, emphasizes employees' feelings about their career. When they feel the current job can bring them happiness, inspiration and excitement, they are more likely to feel satisfied with their career, because these emotions align with intrinsic motivation (Porter & Lawler, 1968). Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008) found that happiness was an antecedent of career success as well as other work place outcomes. Besides, employer's support at work does not necessary provide employees with career satisfaction. Employees may have high satisfaction with their employers but still not satisfied with their career. For example, a large percentage of employees in hospitality work part-time while going to school (Lucas & Ralston, 1996). These students do not necessarily love their current job because they treat it as a financial resource to support their education. In this case, no matter how supportive the employer, employees will not

directly feel more satisfied with their current job. But if employers can encourage and motivate these students to enjoy working in the hospitality industry, their career satisfaction will be markedly changed.

Effect on Employee Engagement

Employee engagement has also been referred to as work engagement. It was viewed as the positive antithesis of burnout and as employees' psychological presence at work (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma & Bakker, 2002). In this study, employee engagement was analyzed as an outcome variable of psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support and high and low pleasure affect. The results showed that employee engagement was directly impacted by psychological contract fulfillment (B= 0.11), high pleasure affect (B= 0.68) and low pleasure affect (B= -0.23), but not by perceived organizational support (B= 0.03). Specifically, the more fulfillment employees perceived from their employer, the more engaged they were at work; and more pleasant. In addition, perceived organizational support's contribution to employee engagement was fully mediated by the high and low pleasant affect (B= 0.36).

These results are consistent with previous literature. Parzefall and Hakanen (2010) found that psychological contract fulfillment had both motivational and health enhancing effects on employees through work engagement. Salanova, Llorens and Schaufeli's (2011) study supported that positive affect (enthusiasm, satisfaction and comfort) mediated the relationship between efficacy beliefs and activity engagement. In addition, Rothbard (2001) claimed that positive and negative emotions influenced employee's role engagement. Even though, engagement has been well studied as a mediator between the work environment and various employee outcomes, there are no current findings that connected affect at work to employee engagement. The findings of

this study suggested that engagement was highly dependent on employees' affect at work, not only on high pleasure affect but also on low pleasure affect. In addition, psychological contract fulfillment has a significant direct effect on employee engagement after controlling for perceived organizational support, high pleasure affect and low pleasure affect. Among the four final outcome variables analyzed in this study, only employee engagement had this direct effect, which draws future research interest.

Effect on Thriving

Thriving was analyzed using its two components (i.e., learning and vitality) in this study because of the exploratory factor analysis results. Thriving is an employee's psychological state that captures their feelings of growth at work. Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein and Grant (2005) theorized that thriving comprised two components: learning, a cognitive dimension recognizing employees' self-development; and vitality, an affective dimension recognizing employees' energy level at work. Thriving employees has a feeling of energized and alive (vitality) at work and continuing gaining skills and abilities at work (learning) (Porath, Spreitzer, Gibson & Garnett, 2012). The results of this study found that only perceived organizational support had a direct contribution to learning (B= 0.30). Also, only high pleasure affect (B= 0.62) and low pleasure affect (B= -0.20) directly impacted vitality. Therefore, for vitality, all influences from psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support went through affect at work. However, for learning, the influence from psychological contract fulfillment was only through perceived organizational support.

These results are stimulating. Among the outcome variables in this study, learning is the only one that was not influenced by either types of affect. This finding suggests that employees' development does not depend on their subjective feelings at work, but on the objective

environment in the organization. Psychological contract fulfillment as a dynamic subjective evaluation shapes perceived organizational support, a more stable environmental evaluation regarding employers' level of support. This work environment is the key to determine employees' learning. For example, training and development opportunities or adequate resources, as elements of the psychological contract, contributes to employees perspective that the organization cares about them; and this feeling makes employees feel they are growing and learning in the organization. In addition, this process is not influenced by their emotions. On the other hand, vitality was not influenced by the work environment but by employees' subjective affect at work. This is because vitality is manifested from a group of positive emotions that are closely related to personal well-being and self-actualization (Ryan & Frederick, 1997). The current study found that employees feel more energized and alive when they experience more pleasant feelings at work, which is consistent with Sheldon, Ryan and Reis's (1996) study. In summary, the findings of this study suggested that the cognitive component of thriving was not influenced by affective factors, and the affective component of thriving was not influence by environmental factors.

Effect on Turnover Intention

Turnover intention was the last outcome variable that was examined in this study. Turnover intention captures employees' desire to leave an organization. The findings suggested that perceived organizational support (B= -0.28) and high pleasure affect (B= -0.18) reduced turnover intention directly while psychological contract fulfillment (B= -0.34) reduced turnover intention indirectly. Surprisingly, low pleasure affect did not significantly increase employee's turnover intention. In other words, only perceived organizational support and high pleasure affect were mediators between psychological contract fulfillment and turnover intention.

These findings are consistent with the literature, but also extend current knowledge. Previous studies focused more on the effect of psychological contract breach on turnover intention and overlooked the effect from fulfillment. Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, and Bravo (2007) meta-analyzed 51 studies on psychological contract breach and found that the greater breach employees perceived the higher their turnover intention. But Zhao et al. (2007) failed to find similar effects on employee's actual turnover. Clinton and Guest (2013) found that psychological contract breach increased employee voluntary turnover through fairness and trust. Testing from a positive perspective, Conway and Briner (2002) found that employee psychological contract fulfillment reduced employee's intention to quit. However, none of these studies actually tested how affect at work interacts with psychological contract fulfillment and turnover intention. The finding of this study suggested that high pleasure affect magnified the negative relationships between psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support and turnover intention respectively, but low pleasure affect did not diminish the positive relationships.

This finding is counterintuitive but not unexplainable. The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) suggests that any kind of human intention is a function of three basic determinants one of which is perceived behavior control. Perceived behavior control refers to individual's ability to perform certain behaviors (Ajzen, 1991). When people perceive low ability to do something, their intention, even their actual behavior, will be seriously reduced (Ajzen, 1991). In the employment context, employees' turnover should be influenced by their attitude toward leaving a company (e.g., negative feelings about the employer), their subjective norm and their perceived ability to leave the company. When most employees think of quitting their jobs, they would naturally think about their ability to find another job, which should be considered a strong

negative perceived behavior control. If they do no perceive a high opportunity to find a job in a short time, their intention to quit the current job will be reduced. This argument also conforms to Maertz and Campion's (2004) alternative force that drives people leave a company. Therefore, pleasant affect is enough to reduce turnover intention but unpleasant affect does not necessarily lead to high turnover intention.

Theoretical Contribution

The theoretical contributions of this study are threefold. First, this study is among the first to empirically integrate psychological contract theory and organizational support theory to better understand the social exchange relationship between employees and employers. It extends an understanding of both micro theories as well as social exchange theory. In the literature, psychological contract and organizational support were normally separately used in explaining the employee-employer exchange relationship (e.g. Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Aselage and Eisenberger (2003) initially compared these two theories and suggested that an integration of should better explain employee-employer exchange. Along with this argument, Coyle-Shapiro and Conway (2005) empirically distinguished psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support and found that psychological contract fulfillment influenced perceived organizational support over time. However, very few studies attempted to determine how psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support interactively influence employees' work outcomes. This study found that psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support both contributed to various outcome variables, but their contributions were different among the outcomes. For example, psychological contract fulfillment influenced employees' turnover intention fully through perceived

organizational support but its prediction on employee engagement was not entirely through perceived organizational support. Instead, psychological contract fulfillment had a significant direct impact on employee engagement. Also, psychological contract fulfillment did not have a significant impact on employees' low pleasure affect while perceived organizational support was significant. Therefore, this study showed that an integration of psychological contract theory and organizational support theory provided a more comprehensive explanation of employees' work attitudes, but also raises more research questions.

Also, this study contributes to affect theory development. Many articles were published promoting emotion or affect studies in the organizational behavior and management fields. Kidd (2004) suggested that more studies on employee emotions in career development and management were needed, because they can provide better explanations of how personal and organizational outcomes are shaped. Totterdell and Niven (2014) also argued that momentary affect studies are useful but also challenging because of their dynamic and transitory nature. Previous research on affect at work suggested that affect is closely related to various work outcomes, such as creativity (Amabile, Barsade, & Mueller, 2005) and person-environment fit (Yu, 2009). However, research is missing that connects psychological contract fulfillment with affect. This study found that affect at work was a strong mediator between psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support and different work attitudes. This study also found that learning, was not influenced by affect. Thus, this study confirmed Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) affective event theory but also draws interest for future research.

Lastly, this study contributes to the positive organizational behavior literature and supports both the similarity and the differences between positive variables and negative variables. Positive organizational behavior researchers argued that the field needs a proactive and

positive approach to encourage and motivate employees instead of focusing on fixing existing problems (Luthans, 2002). Studies in psychological contract traditionally focus more on contract breach than fulfillment, because researchers believed that the negative breach had a stronger impact than positive fulfillment (Conway & Briner, 2009). However, Lambert, Edwards and Cable (2003) suggested that psychological contract breach and fulfillment needed to be viewed as a continuum from unfulfilled to fulfilled promises. By overlooking the fulfilled promises, the researchers lose the opportunity to find out what happens when an employer is actually doing well with their employees. This study found that psychological contract fulfilment was linked to employees' perceived organizational support, high pleasure affect at work and various work outcomes. Therefore, psychological contract fulfilment has a strong predictive power on desired employee attitudes, which can be used to prevent employees' negative attitudes as well as absence behavior.

Practical Implications

This study tested several employee work attitudes and their link to employee psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support. Each outcome variable captured different aspects of employees' work attitudes. Employee engagement is a strong indicator of employees' performance (Salanova, Agut, & Peiró; 2005); turnover intention captures employees' willingness to leave the company; career satisfaction addresses employees' feelings about their career success; and thriving gauges employees' energy as well as their self-development levels. This study provided several interesting and useful implications for both human resources practitioners and managers in the hospitality industry. These implications can assist practitioners and managers with important HR related initiatives and procedures.

The findings of this study offer recommendations for a company's recruiting and training processes. Since psychological contract fulfillment is a function of employer inducements and employee expectations, managers need to assist employees in formulating reasonable expectations. Communication with employees during recruitment and orientation are important early phases of clarifying expectations. Unrealistic information transmitted to an individual prior to joining the company and to new hires at orientation could mislead their expectations, which in turn influences turnover intention (Woods, Johanson & Sciarini, 2012). Also, a training program can clearly deliver the right messages to employees about what should be expected from their employer. Clear and unambiguous communication can foster the intended employee expectations and prevent an employer from breaking perceived promises, which in turn positively effects employees work attitudes.

This study also revealed another important use in employee's performance appraisals. Periodic communication could assist managers to enhance their understanding of employees' current psychological contracts and company's level of fulfillment. By knowing employees expectations, managers can better address employees' expectations. For example, a new employee would expect their employer to provide a supportive learning environment, which might not be a common expectation of longer serving employees. By knowing employee's psychological contract, employers could provide more development opportunities. A better understood expectation is a benefit for both employees and employers. Using the same example, once the employee's psychological contract is fulfilled, it will contribute to their thriving at work by increasing both feeling alive at work and feeling improved at work.

The findings of this study allow managers to develop an optimal environment at the workplace. Employee's perceived organizational support can be enhanced in different ways,

including providing personal recognition and improved leadership practices – but it can also be impacted by mislead expectations. Once employees believe they are not supported or cared for by their organization, their affect at work will become more negative. This study found that unfulfilled promises made by employers, were not enough to cause employees to feel angry, gloomy or depressed, but if employees experienced a lack of support, these negative feelings would follow. Since emotions are contagious (Barsade, 2002) such feelings could easily encourage a negative environment.

Also because of emotional contagion, resolving negativity may be difficult to achieve. Therefore, preventing a negative affect is very important. Psychological contract fulfillment depends on employers' inducements but also on employees' subjective expectations. As a result, employers are unable to provide everything that an employee desires or expects. However, as long as employers provide support to their employees (such as proper recognition) contagious negative affect created in the organization can be reduced. For example, in the hospitality industry, calling employees in for additional work during peak seasons is not unusual but it is unpleasant. When employees are called in to work on their day off, an unfulfilled promise is created. However, as long as they feel they are recognized by the organization for performing the extra work, a negative affect will be avoided. Finally, managers should consider employees more as human beings (with the potential to hold positive and negative impressions, to be influenced by the actions of others etc.) and provide them adequate recognition and support at work—especially for the extra work they are doing—negative feelings can be mitigated or avoided.

This study provides hospitality employers with an approach to effectively motivate employees by stimulating their positive affect at work. The results of this study indicated that high pleasant affect is a strong predictor of several desired outcomes. High pleasant affect at

work fosters employee's feelings of enjoyment at work, which aligns with intrinsic motivation. Studies found that adults were more influenced by intrinsic motivation than external rewards, which could diminish internal motivation and known as the over-justification effect (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). Therefore, hospitality employers should consider employees more in their daily reward system. Focusing on aligning employee interests with their job can best motivate them as well as potentially reduce labor costs.

The results of this study also offer managers specific areas to focus on depending on the outcome desired. For managers who seek to foster employees' engagement or career satisfaction, the findings of the study suggest that psychological contract fulfillment, perceived organizational support and high and low pleasant affect are all important areas to address. However, for managers who want to foster a learning environment in their organization, focusing more on psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support will be more effective than focusing on employee affect. For example, in a fast food restaurant, employees need to learn and perform quickly. Therefore, managers need to focus more on providing employees with the necessary support to influence learning rather than on positive or negative affect. Alternatively, when managers want employees to feel more energized at work, fostering their positive affect and reducing negative affect becomes more important. For example, a hostess's energy level may significantly influence his/her interactions with the customer. Enthusiasm in this position is critical to creating both a lasting first impression as well as a lasting final impression of a restaurant experience. Therefore, managers need to ensure that the hostess experiences pleasant affect at work more often so that these pleasant feeling can, in turn, be extended to the guests.

In summary, this study revealed the importance of considering employee psychological contract fulfillment and affect at work in daily practices for the hospitality industry. Unlike other

indicators, such as psychological contract fulfillment or perceived organizational support, affect at work can be displayed in employees' daily attitudes and behaviors. By closely examining employees affect at work, employers could have a better idea about what employees are going through. Showing concern and caring to employees is strongly helpful to increase employees' high pleasant affect, which in turn will positively influence desired outcomes.

Limitations and Future Research

There are several limitations associated with this study which influenced the theoretical and practical implications of this study. These limitations also provide opportunities for future research. First, this study employed a cross-sectional design, in which data was collected at a single point in time. This research design excluded the possibility of testing time as a predictive factor. Therefore, this study did not test the reciprocity among variables. Since reciprocity is a key element of social exchange theory, future research should consider a longitudinal approach and test for reciprocity to further extend social exchange theory. Second, this study used regression based path analyses, therefore, it was not possible to confirm the causality between variables in this study. For example, scholars have different arguments on the causality between psychological contract fulfillment and perceived organizational support (e.g. Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Guchait, et al, 2015). As a result, future research should design an experiment to test the causality between variables. Third, because of the exploratory factor analysis results, this study was not able to analyze thriving as one latent variable. Therefore, the conclusions drawn from this study were not comprehensive for thriving. Other statistical methods to analyze thriving as one concept and compare with the current results is warranted.

The results of this study also suggest that future research needs to determine the theoretical reason for the different contributions of psychological contract fulfillment and

perceive organizational support to various outcomes. In addition, more research is needed on affect at work and its effect on work outcomes. More importantly, research should identify the underlying psychological mechanism between affect at work and work outcomes.

APPENDIX A

Survey

PART I: Screener

1. In which industry do you currently work in?

- ❑ Agriculture, forestry, fishing, and hunting
- ❑ Construction
- ❑ Educational
- ❑ Hospitality (e.g. restaurant, lodging, etc.) ---*If Hospitality Is Not Selected, Then EXIT*
- ❑ Manufacturing
- ❑ None of Above

2. Are you 18 years and older?

Yes. -------- *CONTINUE*
No. --------- *EXIT*

PART II: Measurement Scales

3. Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements**.**

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward the meeting my goals for the development of new skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Within the next six months, I intend to search for another job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Within the next year, I intend to leave this profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Within the next six months, I would rate the likelihood of leaving my present job as high.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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	6	7
1. I find myself learning often in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I continue to learn more as time goes by in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I see myself continually improving in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I am not learning at work. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am developing a lot as a person in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I feel alive and vital in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. I have energy and spirit at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I do not feel very energetic at work. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel alert and awake in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I am looking forward to each new day to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The organization really cares about my well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. Please indicate how often you've experienced each emotion at work over the past 30 days.

Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My job made me feel…

Angry	_______	Content	_______	Energetic	_______	Furious	_______
Anxious	_______	Depressed	_______	Enthusiastic	_______	Gloomy	_______
At ease	_______	Discouraged	_______	Excited	_______	Inspired	_______
Bored	_______	Disgusted	_______	Fatigued	_______	Relaxed	_______
Calm	_______	Ecstatic	_______	Frightened	_______	Satisfied	_______

5. Please indicate **how often** you've experienced the following each statement.

Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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

6. Please indicate to what extent the organization meets your expectations concerning the following.

Much less than expected			**What was expected**			**Much more than expected**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

1. Consideration of your interests when making decisions that affect you	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Challenging work assignments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Steady employment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Comfortable work environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Reasonable work load	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Up-to-date training and development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Fair pay compared with employees doing similar work in other organizations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Good health care benefits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Adequate resources to do job well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. The necessary training to do job well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Adequate time for personal life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Fair pay for the responsibilities the employees have in their jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Clear job responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART II: Demographic Information

1. What is your primary ethnicity?

❍ Caucasian/White
❍ African American
❍ Latino/a or Hispanic
❍ Asian or Pacific Islander
❍ Others
❍ Prefer not to disclose

2. What is your gender?

❍ Male
❍ Female
❍ Other

3. What is your age?

❍ 18-24
❍ 25-34
❍ 35-44
❍ 45-54
❍ 55-64
❍ 65 and older

4. What is your education level?
- ❍ High school grad or less
- ❍ Some college education (including trade school and associate degree)
- ❍ Undergraduate degree
- ❍ Graduate degree
- ❍ Prefer not to answer

5. How many dependents you are currently supporting? (Dependents are people who you are financially supporting. Examples for dependents could be children or aging parents)
- ❍ 0
- ❍ 1
- ❍ 2
- ❍ 3
- ❍ 4 and more

6. What is your annual house income level?
- ❍ Less than $30,000 per year
- ❍ $30,000 - $49,999
- ❍ $50,000 - $74,999
- ❍ $75,000 - $99,999
- ❍ $100,000 - $124,999
- ❍ $125,000 - $149,999
- ❍ $150,000 or above
- ❍ Prefer not to answer

7. What is your current compensation structure?
- ❍ Salary
- ❍ Hourly
- ❍ Other (e.g. intern) ____________________

8. What area of the organization do you mainly work for?
- ❍ Back of the house (kitchen, stewarding, corporate, etc.)
- ❍ Front of the house (Front desk, guest services, etc.)
- ❍ Other ____________________

9. How many years have your worked for your present company?
- ❍ Less than a year
- ❍ 1-3 years
- ❍ 4-6 years
- ❍ 7-9 years
- ❍ 10+ years

10. What is your current employment status?
- ❍ Full-time
- ❍ Part-time
- ❍ On-call
- ❍ Other ____________________

11. Which category below best represents your position?
- ❍ Front-line employee
- ❍ Manager/Supervisor
- ❍ Director and above
- ❍ Other ____________________

12. What is your normal work hours (e.g. 9am - 3pm)?

____

APPENDIX B

Perceived psychological contract fulfillment pilot study data

PCF_1	PCF_2	PCF_3	PCF_4	PCF_5	PCF_6	PCF_7	PCF_8	PCF_9	PCF_10	PCF_11	PCF_12
-1	-1	0	0	1	0	0	0	-1	0	-2	-2
0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	-1
-1	0	-1	0	-1	1	0	0	0	0	-2	0
0	-1	0	-2	-1	-2	0	1	-1	-2	-2	0
0	0	-1	0	-1	-1	0	1	-2	0	0	0
-2	0	-1	0	0	-1	-1	0	0	0	1	-1
-2	-1	-1	-2	-2	-2	-3	-3	-1	-2	-1	-3
0	0	-2	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-2
-2	0	0	-1	-1	-2	-3	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
0	0	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	0	0	-1	-1	0
0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
-2	0	0	-2	-1	0	-2	0	0	-1	0	-1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	-1	0	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
-1	0	0	0	-1	0	0	-1	0	-1	-1	0
-1	0	0	-4	-2	-2	-3	0	-2	0	-2	-3
-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
-1	-1	0	1	0	0	0	-1	-1	0	-1	0
-1	0	0	-1	0	-1	-1	0	-1	-1	0	-1
-1	-1	-1	-2	0	-2	0	0	-2	-3	0	0
-1	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
-2	-1	0	0	-2	-2	-1	0	0	-2	-1	-1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	-1	-1	-1	0	-2	-1	-1	-1	-1
0	-1	0	-1	0	-1	-1	0	1	1	1	0
1	-1	0	1	0	-1	0	0	0	1	-1	0
-1	-1	0	-1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
-2	-2	-1	-1	-1	-2	-2	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
-1	-1	-1	0	0	0	-2	0	0	0	-2	0
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
-4	0	-1	-2	-2	-2	-4	0	-4	-4	-3	-3
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	-1	0	0	0	0

APPENDIX C

IRB Approval Form

UNLV Social/Behavioral IRB - Exempt Review
Exempt Notice

DATE:	September 18, 2015
TO:	James Busser
FROM:	Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects
PROTOCOL TITLE:	[791115-1] An integration of psychological contract theory and organizational support theory on explaining employee work attitudes.
ACTION:	DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS
EXEMPT DATE:	September 18, 2015
REVIEW CATEGORY:	Exemption category # 2

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this protocol. This memorandum is notification that the protocol referenced above has been reviewed as indicated in Federal regulatory statutes 45CFR46.101(b) and deemed exempt.

We will retain a copy of this correspondence with our records.

PLEASE NOTE:
Upon final determination of exempt status, the research team is responsible for conducting the research as stated in the exempt application reviewed by the ORI - HS and/or the IRB which shall include using the most recently submitted Informed Consent/Assent Forms (Information Sheet) and recruitment materials. The official versions of these forms are indicated by footer which contains the date exempted.

Any changes to the application may cause this protocol to require a different level of IRB review. Should any changes need to be made, please submit a **Modification Form**. When the above-referenced protocol has been completed, please submit a **Continuing Review/Progress Completion report** to notify ORI - HS of its closure.

If you have questions, please contact the Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects at IRB@unlv.edu or call 702-895-2794. Please include your protocol title and IRBNet ID in all correspondence.

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Dissertation Title

Understanding employee work attitudes: An integration of psychological contract theory and organizational support theory.

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