

AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF INTERPERSONAL
CHARACTERISTICS AND PSYCHOLOGICAL
STATES TOWARD EMPLOYEES' WORK OUTCOMES

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Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
May, 2018

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Title of Study: AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF INTERPERSONAL
CHARACTERISTIC AND PSYCHOLOGICAL STATES TOWARD
EMPLOYEES' WORK OUTCOMES

Major Field: HUMAN SCIENCE

Abstract: The purpose of this study is to build and empirically test a model describing the psychological mechanisms underlying employees' social exchange relationships in the workplace by applying both the interpersonal characteristics of work design and the job characteristics model (JCM). This study specifically aims to extend the JCM by investigating not only the effects of interpersonal relationships with customers, supervisors, and coworkers on psychological states (customer orientation and organization-based self-esteem) but also the moderating effects of situational strength between psychological states and job satisfaction. A cross-sectional questionnaire survey was conducted by targeting frontline employees who were working in the full-service restaurant segment in the United States at the time of the survey. A total of 499 responses were analyzed using a confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modeling, and hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

The results presented that all path relations among constructs that were hypothesized were empirically supported. It suggested that the interpersonal characteristics of work design acted as critical aspects of work to increase employees' psychological states, eventually triggering positive work attitudes and prosocial behaviors. Moreover, it showed that role clarity and role consistency were fundamental situational factors to moderate the relationship between psychological states and job satisfaction in the hospitality industry. This study extended the JCM by incorporating the interpersonal characteristics of work design as new core dimensions of work. More importantly, it presented that the customer-employee exchange at the service encounter was the most influential interpersonal relationship to trigger positive psychological states from employees. In addition, the study contributed to the JCM by presenting that the interaction of situational and individual factors showed a better understanding and prediction of employees' work attitudes. Lastly, this study gave rise to a new theoretical perspective that is distinct from other existing frameworks by not only taking the social dimensions of work as the core characteristics but also focusing on outcomes related to social components.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Overview.....	1
Background of the Problem	2
Purpose and Objectives of the Study	6
Significance of the Study	7
Theoretical Contributions	7
Practical Contributions	9
Organization of the Study	11
II. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	12
Job Characteristics Model.....	12
Job Dimensions.....	13
Psychological States	14
Individual Growth Need Strength	14
Outcome Variables.....	15
Job Characteristics Model in the Hospitality Industry.....	15
The Interpersonal Characteristics of Work Design.....	16
Interaction Outside the Organization.....	19
Customer-Employee Exchange.....	19
Interaction Within the Organization	21
Leader-Member Exchange.....	22
Coworker Exchange.....	23
Psychological States.....	24
Customer Orientation.....	25
Organization-Based Self-Esteem	27
Work Attitude	28
Job Satisfaction	29
Prosocial Behavior	30
Role-Prescribed Customer Service	32
Extra-Role Customer Service	32
Cooperation.....	33
Situational Strength.....	34
Role Clarity.....	35
Role Consistency	36

The Conceptual Framework & Hypotheses	37
Summary of Research Hypotheses	52
III. METHODS	55
Survey Instrument	56
Common Method Variance	58
Pilot Test	59
Sampling Plan	59
Target Population	59
Sample Size	60
Sampling Approach	61
Data Analysis	62
Moderating Effects Testing	68
IV. RESULTS	70
Initial Data Screening	70
Demographic Information	71
Measurement Model	72
Structural Model	77
Competing Model	82
Moderating Effects of Situational Strength	86
Moderating Effect of Role Clarity	87
Moderating Effect of Role Consistency	89
Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results	92
V. CONCLUSION	93
Summary of Findings	93
Interpersonal Characteristics of Work Design and Psychological States	94
Psychological States and Job Satisfaction	96
Job Satisfaction and Prosocial Behavior	97
Moderating Effects of Situational Strength	97
Theoretical Implications	99
Practical Implications	102
Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research	104

REFERENCES	107
APPENDICES	137

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Proposed Measurement Items	57
2. Goodness-of-Fit Indices and Acceptable Range.....	67
3. Descriptive Statistics of Respondents' Characteristics.....	71
4. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations.....	74
5. The Results of the Measurement Model	75
6. Discriminant Validity among the Constructs.....	76
7. The Structural Path Estimates.....	78
8. Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of Interpersonal Characteristics of Work Design on Job Satisfaction	85
9. Moderating Effect of Role Clarity	87
10. Moderating Effect of Role Consistency.....	90
11. Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results	92

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. The Job Characteristics Model of Work Motivation	13
2. Conceptual Framework	47
3. Proposed Overall Research Framework	51
4. Six-Stage Procedures for Structural Equation Modeling	65
5. Hypothesized Model with Path Estimates	81
6. The Alternative Model	84
7. Interaction Effect of Customer Orientation and Role Clarity on Job Satisfaction	88
8. Interaction Effect of Organization-based Self-esteem and Role Clarity on Job Satisfaction	89
9. Interaction Effect of Organization-based Self-esteem and Role Consistency on Job Satisfaction	91

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Overview

For more than 40 years, the motivational approach, which is based on work design theories, has been influential in understanding and changing employees' work experiences and behaviors (Grant & Parker, 2009; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Morgeson & Campion, 2003). Researchers proposed the effects of job design on employees' behavioral outcomes, including absenteeism, performance, and turnover (e.g., Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1976), on physical outcomes, such as cardiovascular disease, blood pressure, and mortality (e.g., Ganster, Fox, & Dwyer, 2001), and on psychological outcomes, for instance, work motivation, stress, burnout, and job satisfaction (e.g., Parker & Wall, 1998). Until recently, many scholars have assumed that work design theories and research have already provided answers to the fundamental questions (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). However, the nature of work has dramatically changed (Grant & Parker, 2009). There has been a global shift from a manufacturing economy, where organizational survival depended on tangible products, to a service and knowledge economy in which organizations live and die by their ability to meet customers' needs in business, leisure, finances, information, hospitality, and service (Batt, 2002; Grant & Parker, 2009). According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2016), more than nine times

as many Americans are employed in service jobs (103 million) as in production and manufacturing jobs (12.3 million). The service economy makes up 80% of the U.S. GDP by employing more than 80% of American workers. Across the globe, similar trends are appearing in Asia and Europe (Ford & Bowen, 2008; Grant & Parker, 2009; Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001). This striking change in work context requires new theoretical approaches to help scholars and practitioners demonstrate and adjust the nature of work (Grant & Parker, 2009; Johns, 2006; Rousseau & Fried, 2001).

As a result, in the past decade, researchers have started to reshape work design theories by introducing the new characteristics of work and work outcomes as well as the mechanisms that link them and their boundary conditions (e.g., Morgeson & Campion, 2003; Parker et al., 2001). Even though these perspectives took a step toward crafting work design theories, there is still much progress to be made to capture the recent work context (Grant & Parker, 2009). Thus, this study aimed to provide new direction, with an emphasis on a relational perspective, that accentuated the influence of interpersonal interactions in the workplace. Its purpose was to help capture recent changes in organizational life.

Background of the Problem

Hospitality jobs are often characterized by employee absenteeism, dissatisfaction, and high turnover because of labor intensity (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2012). Thus, researchers have claimed that job design and job characteristics provide promises to mitigate absenteeism and increase employee job satisfaction in labor intensive hospitality jobs (Bartlett, 2007). They have applied the job characteristics model (JCM: Hackman & Oldham, 1976) to understand and discuss the relationship between job characteristics and employees' work attitudes and behaviors in the hospitality industry (e.g., Bartlett, 2007; Tsaur, Yen, & Yang, 2011). The motivational approach led by these researchers has been dominant over the past 30 years and cited about 2,000

times by researchers (Morgeson & Campion, 2003). However, they only focused on a limited set of motivational work characteristics (e.g., autonomy and skill variety). Even though these are critical work characteristics, other significant aspects of work, such as the social environment, have been overlooked (Humphrey et al., 2007).

Unlike other industries, the hospitality industry is unique in that intangible service is its core product. The importance of service quality to a hospitality company is as critical as the importance of product quality to a manufacturing company. This is because the starting point for a hospitality company to create customer satisfaction is to provide quality service to customers. Satisfied customers, in turn, tend to purchase the company's products and become loyal customers (Bienstock, DeMoranville, & Smith, 2003; Ma & Qu, 2011). Thus, providing quality service is fundamental for any hospitality company to achieve success. Frontline employees who engage in contact with customers to provide service purposefully perform their jobs to meet different customer needs and demands in the service encounter. Hence, employees' work attitudes and behaviors in the service delivery process could be crucial factors to increase customer satisfaction and achieve organizational success (Kanten, 2014). Moreover, interaction or communication in the service encounter also plays a significant role in increasing employees' job satisfaction and performance in the hospitality industry (Ozturk, Hancer, & Im, 2014). Based on the conservation of resources theory (COR), positive interactions with customers could be perceived as resources to help employees achieve personal and organizational goals (Hobfoll, 1989). In addition, relationships with supervisors and coworkers have been considered as one of the important sources for increasing employees' perceptions of meaningful work, enhancing their satisfaction, and lowering intention to leave within the hospitality industry (Susskind, Kacmar, & Borchgrevink, 2007; Tutuncu & Kozak, 2007; Wrzesniewski, Dutton, & Debebe, 2003). As such, a growing body of research has presented that interpersonal relationships in the workplace play a crucial role in enabling employees to perceive their jobs as meaningful and important (Barry & Crant, 2000; Bradbury & Lichtenstein, 2000). When experiencing their jobs as meaningful and

important, employees tend to be motivated to make a prosocial difference (Grant, 2007). As a result, they are more likely to exhibit prosocial behaviors, such as role-prescribed and extra-role behaviors and cooperation, to make a positive difference in others' lives (Bettencourt, 1997; Grant, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2009). Nevertheless, an interpersonal perspective has not yet been incorporated into the work motivation and job design theories (Grant, 2007; Grant & Parker, 2009).

Researchers have extensively reviewed work design studies over past decades (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Grant & Parker, 2009; Taber & Taylor, 1990). The primary motivational model characterizing this work, JCM (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), posits that critical psychological states act as the core of the model and fully mediate the relationship between job characteristics and relevant work outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980). However, the majority of research on work design has omitted the psychological states and studied only the direct relationships between job characteristics and outcomes (Behson, Eddy, & Lorenzet, 2000). Hence, researchers noted that “the paucity of research that incorporates the mediating influence of psychological states is remarkable” (Johns, Xie, & Fang, 1992, p. 658). More recently, researchers claimed that there was a need for additional constructs in job design theory in part aimed at discovering the mediational mechanisms such as psychological processes (Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson & Campion, 2003). According to the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), positive experiences in the workplace can build employees' psychological personal resources, such as energies and personal characteristics, in the emotional process. More specifically, the concept of an employee's customer orientation as a personal resource has been addressed explicitly in the service industry. Customer orientation refers to an individual employee's disposition to meet customer needs in the workplace (Brown, Mowen, Donovan, & Licata, 2002). Another personal resource that has been considered as an important personal characteristic is organization-based self-esteem, which is an individual's belief about his or her competence and self-worth as a member of the organization (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989). These personal

resources in service interactions help employees achieve personal and organizational goals. Thus, in order to understand the psychological mechanisms underlying the relationship between positive experiences in the workplace and work outcomes, the role of psychological states needs to be investigated.

In addition to personal dispositional factors, situational factors should be also considered to fully understand and predict employees' work attitudes since employees' perceptions of the work environment also impact their work attitudes (Gerhart & Fang, 2005; Parker et al., 2003). In a similar vein, the fit theory posits that a combination of the individual and the situation or environment influences the individual's behaviors (Nadler & Tushman, 1980; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). A few researchers argued that one of the most significant situational forces to consider is situational strength such as role clarity and role consistency (Meyer, Dalal, & Hermida, 2010; Murphy, 2005). Customer-contact employees must handle demands both from their supervisors and customers (Weatherly & Tansik, 1993). Thus, in the hospitality industry, role stressors, such as role ambiguity and role conflict, are mainly considered to be critical job demands (Kim, Shin, & Umbreit, 2007; Tiyce, Hing, Cairncross, & Breen, 2013). This is because employees in the hospitality industry often take several roles, usually in conflict, as boundary spanners of both the consumers' and the organization's interests. Moreover, they are often asked to perform work duties without a clear standard in dynamic circumstances (Kim, Murrmann, & Lee, 2009). When the role expectations are ambiguous, overloading, or conflicting, the employees can experience role stress. These role stressors lead to psychological and behavioral responses. More specifically, the harmful effects of role stress on individuals and their work attitudes, for example job satisfaction and organizational commitment, have been widely supported in both marketing and management research (Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006; Tubre & Collins, 2000). The results of these studies led to a recommendation to practitioners to provide role clarity and role consistency so as to not cause negative outcomes (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008). Nevertheless, there is a limited effort to investigate whether role clarity and role consistency exert

a positive influence in the hospitality industry. Researchers in management have argued that situational strength, including role clarity and role consistency, is one of the most significant characteristics to be considered, especially as a moderator of personal differences and outcomes relationships (Hough & Oswald, 2008; Meyer, Dalal, & Bonaccio, 2009; Murphy, 2005). Still, no research has studied the interactions between individual differences and situational strength to investigate their joint influences on employees' work attitudes, especially in the hospitality industry.

Purpose and Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study is to build and empirically test a model describing the psychological mechanisms underlying employees' social exchange relationships in the workplace by applying both the interpersonal characteristics of work design and the job characteristics model (JCM).

The specific objectives of the study are as follows.

- 1) To examine the relationships between the three types of employees' social exchange relationships (customers, supervisors, and coworkers) and the two types of employees' psychological states (customer orientation and organization-based self-esteem);
- 2) To assess the relationships between two types of employees' psychological states and their work attitude (job satisfaction);
- 3) To investigate the effect of employees' job satisfaction on their prosocial behavior (role-prescribed customer service, extra-role customer service, and cooperation);
- 4) To test the moderating effects of role clarity and role consistency on the relationship between employees' psychological states and job satisfaction; and

- 5) To provide suggestions for hospitality practitioners to increase employees' positive work attitude and behaviors by proposing how to enhance employees' positive psychological states through their interpersonal work relationships.

Significance of the Study

Work design research has been a popular topic for about four decades in organizational behavior research. By investigating psychological mechanisms, this study focused on the interpersonal characteristics and impact of work design. It is meaningful and significant from theoretical as well as practical perspectives.

Theoretical Contributions

This study made three contributions to the existing work design literature and the JCM. First, it extended the JCM by investigating the effects of the interpersonal characteristics of work design on employees' psychological states. The social characteristics of work, such as the interpersonal and interdependent characteristics, were neglected for decades in work design theories (Grant & Parker, 2009; Humphrey et al., 2007) even though they are significant components of work that are not redundant with motivational characteristics (Grant, 2007; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Social interaction has become much more prominent and pervasive in contemporary work organizations (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). Thus, the need to focus on the social aspects of the work has been proposed, especially in the hospitality literature since the central features of service work are the development and management of social relationships at work (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). In this regard, previous research in the hospitality literature presented the significance of employees' interpersonal relationships because they enable employees to perceive their jobs as important and meaningful (e.g., Ozturk et al., 2014; Tutuncu & Kozak, 2007). However, issues regarding not only how the social characteristics

of work contribute to employees' motivation and performance but also which social dimensions of the work are the most influential motivators still exist (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). Accordingly, this study investigated the effects of three social exchange relationships at work, specifically, customer-employee exchange, leader-member exchange, and coworker exchange, on employees' psychological states. As Hackman and Oldham's JCM stated, the mediating effects of psychological states on the relationship between interpersonal characteristics and work outcomes were required to be specified (Grant & Parker, 2009). Thus, this study included two psychological constructs, customer orientation and organization-based self-esteem, affected by interpersonal relationships at work in order to understand the psychological mechanisms underlying the social exchange process.

Second, this study contributed to the JCM by measuring the moderating effects of situational factors on the relationship between employees' psychological states and their work attitudes. Hackman and Oldham's JCM only specified individual differences, not situational factors, as the moderating boundary conditions for task characteristics relationships. Thus, the need to investigate potential moderating factors to understand employees' responses to the social characteristics of work was suggested to generate conceptual and practical interest (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). The relationship between the individual factors and work attitudes is dependent on situational factors (Smith, Fuqua, Choi, & Newman, 2011). Thus, both individual and situational factors are necessary to understand employees' work attitudes (Gerhart & Fang, 2005). Situational strength, including role clarity and role consistency, has been considered as the most critical situational factor in previous research (e.g., Meyer et al., 2010). Research, especially in the hospitality literature, emphasizes the importance of role clarity and role consistency as service employees' boundary conditions because of the intangibility of the service (e.g., Tiyce et al., 2013). Therefore, this study investigated the interaction effects of situational strength and individuals' psychological states on work attitude. More specifically, the study tested the moderating effect of situational strength on the relationship between psychological states and

employees' work attitudes, especially pinpointing role clarity and role consistency, which have been presented as the most significant characteristics to be considered (Meyer et al., 2009; Tiyce et al., 2013).

Last, this study incorporated social components, such as prosocial behaviors, as outcomes to understand exchange relationships based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). It extended the JCM by focusing primarily on the social aspects of work and thus proposing a new theoretical perspective. As the JCM posited, previous researchers have tested employee well-being, turnover intention, satisfaction, and job performance as motivational outcomes of core job characteristics (Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). However, the work outcomes related to the social aspects of work have not been incorporated into the JCM. Given that the social aspects of work become more prominent in contemporary organizations, researchers recently acknowledged that focusing on social components gives rise to new and distinct theoretical perspectives from that suggested by the JCM (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). Thus, this study measured prosocial behaviors, including role-prescribed customer service, extra-role customer service, and cooperation, as outcomes of employees' job satisfaction to suggest the mechanisms of employees' social exchange relationships in the workplace.

Practical Contributions

This study also provided several practical contributions to the hospitality industry. First, thanks to technology development, many hospitality companies apply technologies into their business to service routine customer transactions. As the workplace becomes more automated, there are more chances for frontline employees to take roles in answering questions and solving customers' problems. This causes more nonroutine interpersonal exchanges between frontline employees and customers (Kotler, Bowen, Makens, & Baloglu, 2016). So far, hospitality practitioners have mainly focused on employee influence on customers since employees' attitudes and behaviors in the service encounter can directly impact customers' perceptions of service

quality. By focusing on the effects of interaction with customers on employees' psychological states, this study presented the need for practitioners to facilitate employees' interpersonal communication with customers. In addition, this study assessed the critical roles of interpersonal relationships within the organization, such as with supervisors and coworkers, to increase employees' positive psychological states. These results presented empirical evidences to prove why practitioners need to discover ways to encourage employees' exchange relationships in the workplace. Detailed suggestions are elaborated in the discussion section.

Second, meeting and exceeding customers' expectations by providing quality service are fundamental practices in the hospitality industry. Therefore, if employees perform prosocial behavior in the workplace, it can create satisfied customers through the high-quality service. By identifying the psychological mechanism that triggered employees' prosocial behaviors, this study proposed practical suggestions to managers on how to provide quality service to customers in the hospitality industry. More specifically, this study investigated the influence of job satisfaction to trigger prosocial behavior. With the results of the positive relationship between psychological states, such as customer orientation and organization-based self-esteem, and job satisfaction, practical suggestions can be presented to increase job satisfaction, which eventually triggers prosocial behavior.

Last, with the findings of the moderating effects of situational strength, this study presented ways in which organizations could enhance employees' positive work attitudes. Employees' dispositional factors, such as customer orientation and organization-based self-esteem, could make them experience job satisfaction. Under this situation, organizations could help employees feel more satisfaction with their jobs by providing positive situational factors. This study provides suggestions to practitioners on how to help employees experience more satisfaction with their jobs by investigating the joint effect of individuals' psychological states and situational strength on job satisfaction.

Organization of the Study

There are five chapters in this dissertation. The first chapter presents an overview of the study, background of the problem, the purpose and objectives of the study, and the significance of the study. It provides the rationales for conducting the current research. The second chapter reviews the previous literature as it relates to the JCM, social exchange relationships, psychological states, work attitude, prosocial behavior, and situational strength. The research model is proposed, and the relationships among constructs are explained. The third chapter details the methods of the study such as the survey instrument, pilot test, sampling plan, and data analysis procedure. The fourth chapter describes the results of the study. In the last chapter, the findings of the study are summarized and discussed, and the implications of the results are discussed. In addition, the study's limitations and suggestions for future research are discussed at the end of the chapter.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Job Characteristics Model

Previous researchers sought to understand the relationship between job characteristics and individual employee's responses to the work (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Turner & Lawrence, 1965). Their research led directly to the job characteristics model (JCM), which was fully articulated by Hackman and Oldham (1976). They suggested that five "core" job dimensions prompt three critical psychological states, which in turn produce a few positive personal and work outcomes. Moreover, individual growth need strength moderates not only the relationship between the core job dimensions and the psychological states but also the relationship between the psychological states and the outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The JCM is described in the following Figure 1, and the major variables in the model are discussed in detail below.

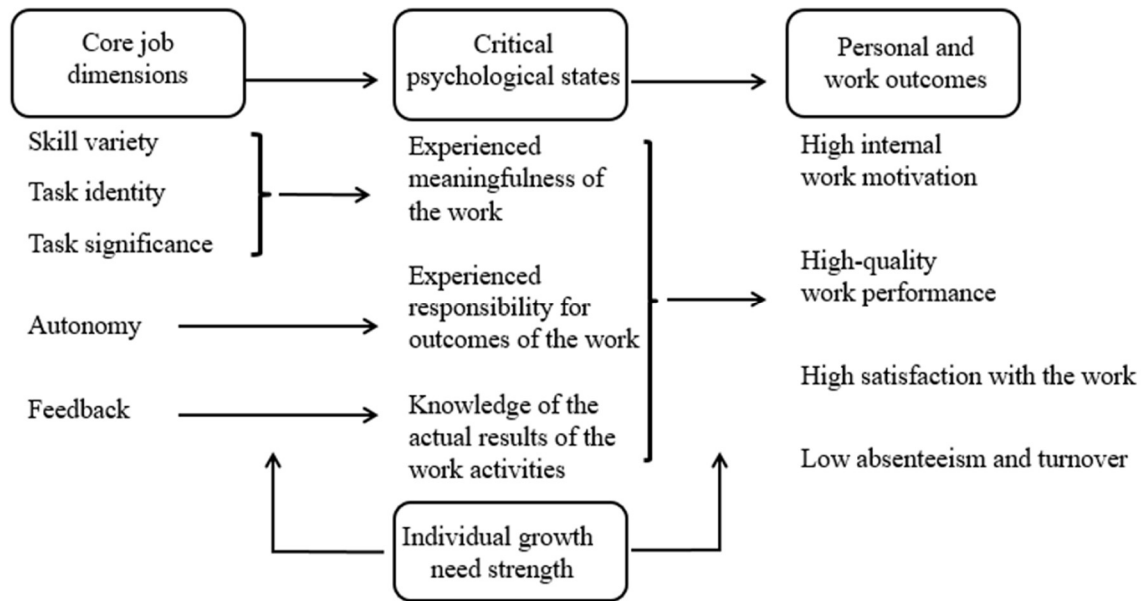


Figure 1. The Job Characteristics Model of Work Motivation

Source: Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16(2), p. 256.

Job Dimensions

The first job characteristic is *skill variety*, which means the degree to which a job requires different personal abilities and skills. The second one is *task identity*, which indicates the extent to which the job requires completion of a “whole” work by the employee. The third job characteristic is *task significance*, meaning the degree to which the job has influence on others’ lives and work. The fourth one is *autonomy*, which indicates the degree to which the job affords independence and freedom to the individual. The last characteristic is *feedback*, which means the extent to which the job provides information about the individual’s work performance. This feedback refers to feedback directly obtained from the job itself. These five motivational job dimensions affect an individual’s attitudinal and behavioral outcomes through their effects on three critical psychological states (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Psychological States

Hackman and Oldham (1976) argued that these five job characteristics are presumed to impact the psychological states known as *experienced meaningfulness*, *experienced responsibility*, and *knowledge of results*. To be specific, experienced meaningfulness means the degree to which an employee feels that the job has importance and value. Skill variety, task significance, and task identity are expected to influence experienced meaningfulness. When a person is required to engage in activities that stretch or challenge abilities and skills, the person perceives those tasks as meaningful. Moreover, if a person completes a whole work and understands that the results of the person's work performance may have an important influence on the well-being of others, the person will find the work more meaningful (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Experienced responsibility means the degree to which an employee feels accountable and liable for job results. Autonomy is expected to influence experienced responsibility. To the degree to which a job has high autonomy, the work outcomes increasingly depend on the person's own decisions and efforts. In such circumstances, the person feels strong personal responsibility for the job (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Knowledge of results means the degree to which the employee is aware of the level of performance. Feedback is thought to influence knowledge of results (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Individual Growth Need Strength

Individual differences moderate how employees react to their works. The basic prediction of the model is that employees with a high need for personal growth may respond more positively to their jobs than employees who have low growth need strength. As noted earlier, there are two possible "places" for this moderating effect in the model. The first place is at the link between the core job dimensions and the psychological states. Employees with high growth need tend to experience the psychological states more than employees with low growth need. The second place is at the link between the psychological states and the outcomes. This allows for the

possibility that when job conditions are right, most employees may experience the psychological states. However, employees with high growth needs react more positively to that experience than employees with low growth needs (Hackman & Oldham, 1976)

Outcome Variables

Previous research presented several outcome variables affected by the level of job-based motivation experiences at work. Outcomes include not only affective outcomes, such as job satisfaction and absenteeism, but also behavioral outcomes, for instance, performance and turnover (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Lawler, 1971). If jobs have high motivating potential, these outcomes are expected to be more positive (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). However, the model does not explicitly address the causal priorities among these outcomes.

Job Characteristics Model in the Hospitality Industry

Researchers insist that job design and job characteristics offer great promise for reducing ongoing absenteeism and increasing employee job satisfaction, particularly in labor-intensive hospitality jobs (Bartlett, 2007). Several researchers have adopted the JCM to discuss the relationship between job characteristics and employee attitude as well as behaviors in the hospitality industry. In a study of hotel employees, Pizam and Neumann (1988) found that job characteristics were relatively powerful predictors of employee satisfaction with coworkers and supervisors, but they did not measure the overall satisfaction. In their study, feedback was the dominant predictor among the core job characteristics. In a study of hospital food-service employees (Sneed & Herman, 1990) and university food-service employees (Duke & Sneed, 1989; Jafté, Almanza, & Chen, 1995), the positive relationship between core job characteristics and job satisfaction was found. In another study of university food-service employees, core job characteristics were found to be important predictors of overall satisfaction (Bartlett, Propper, &

Scerbo, 1999). More recently, one study tested nine specific job characteristic variables by including friendship opportunities, customer interaction, and scheduling flexibility as job characteristics in table-service restaurants. Even though the results suggested the positive effect of job characteristics on job performance and satisfaction, customer interaction was not a significant predictor of outcomes (Bartlett, 2007). Core job characteristics also influenced frontline service employees' creativity (Coelho & Augusto, 2010). In addition, different job types moderated the effect of job characteristics on employee creativity in travel agencies (Tsaour et al., 2011).

The Interpersonal Characteristics of Work Design

Even though motivational job dimensions are significant work characteristics, other critical aspects of work, for instance, interpersonal characteristics, have been neglected (Humphrey et al., 2007). Few researchers investigated the extent to which a job involved dealing with others, friendship opportunities, and receiving feedback from others (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976). In their studies, these interpersonal dimensions were not related strongly or consistently either to employees' work motivation or to actual performances. More specifically, although these interpersonal dimensions were positively related to certain kinds of satisfaction, the relationships were not as significant as those involving the core job dimensions (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). As a result, the interpersonal aspects of work started to disappear from work design literature in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Humphrey et al., 2007; Latham & Pinder, 2005).

However, several researchers have highlighted the significance of social interactions and interpersonal relationships in work design (e.g., Grant & Parker, 2009; Humphrey et al., 2007; Stone & Gueutal, 1985). For example, Barley and Kunda (2001, p. 77) stated that "the ability to collaborate and interpersonal skills in cross-functional teams appears to be more critical than in

the past... Even factory workers are said to require interpersonal and decision-making skills previously reserved for managers". Researchers also argued that the social aspects of work can act as an important role in shaping employees' working experiences and behaviors (Grant, 2007). They developed relational perspectives that emphasize social aspects of work, social outcomes of work design, and social mechanisms through which work design impacts employees' behaviors (Grant & Parker, 2009). In this regard, researchers integrated several diverse studies on work design to develop a comprehensive measure of work characteristics, including five social characteristics: received interdependence, initiated interdependence, social support, feedback from others, and interaction outside the organization (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). When an employee's job is influenced by others' jobs, received interdependence occurs (Kiggundu, 1981, 1983; Wageman, 2001). Initiated interdependence is the extent to which a job is dependent on others' work. It has been explained as dealing with others alternatively (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). Social support is the extent to which an employee receives support from coworkers and supervisors (Karasek Jr, 1979; Theorell, Karasek, & Eneroth, 1990). Feedback from others is the extent to which other members in the organization provide performance information. It broadly emphasizes the interpersonal component of feedback. Interaction outside of the organization is the extent to which a job asks employees to communicate with people external to the organization such as suppliers or customers. To investigate the contributions of these social characteristics, they conducted a meta-analysis of 259 studies to measure the relationships between these social characteristics and employees' attitudinal and behavioral outcomes after controlling for knowledge characteristics and motivational task characteristics. They found significant relationships between the social characteristics and employees' attitudes in the workplace. More specifically, social characteristics explained a variance of 40% in organizational commitment, 24% in turnover intentions, 17% in job satisfaction, and 9% in subjective performance (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). These promising findings propose that the unique effects of social characteristics deserve further attention.

Interpersonal relationships in organizations have been studied based on the social exchange theory as an important motivator for employees' work behaviors (e.g., Cho & Johanson, 2008). According to the social exchange theory, "social behavior is an exchange of not only material goods but also non-material ones, for example the symbols of prestige or approval. A person who gives much to others tries to get much from them. Moreover, a person who gets much from others is under pressure to give much to them." (Homans, 1958, p. 606). Based on this claim, social exchange was defined as individuals' voluntary actions motivated by the returns that they are expected to get from others (Blau, 1964). This social exchange forms relationships involving unspecified future obligations. In addition, it does not occur based on calculation but is based on an individual's trust that the other party in the exchange will be fairly satisfied with his or her obligations in the long run (Holmes, 1981). Thus, the social exchange theory can explain how people feel about their relationships with others based on one's perceptions of: (a) the kind of relationships they deserve; (b) the balance between what people put into the relationship and what they get from it; and (c) the chances of having a better relationship with someone else (Blau, 1964). The social exchange theory has been applied to explain various processes and phenomena occurring in organizations (e.g., Ma & Qu, 2011; Tsui & Wu, 2005; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998). The relationship between employees and the organization, for example, has been explained based on the social exchange theory. What researchers have found is that employers utilizing the social exchange approach show concern about employees' career development and well-being to develop a long-term relationship with them and thus expect the commitment to be reciprocated (Van Dyne & Ang, 1998). From the employee side of positive social exchange with leaders and organizations, employees tend to reciprocate by engaging in positive work behaviors if they are treated with concern and respect (Cho & Johanson, 2008; Ma & Qu, 2011).

In the hospitality industry, frontline employees can have interpersonal relationships with three groups of people, customers, supervisors, and coworkers. These three types of interpersonal relationships are named as (a) customer-employee exchange, (b) leader-member exchange, and

(c) coworkers exchange (Ma & Qu, 2011). Among the three types of interpersonal relationships, researchers have given the most attention to the leader-member exchange, while they have studied relatively less about the social exchange between employees and customers and between coworkers (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). However, attention on all three interpersonal relationships is important and desirable especially for the hospitality industry for two reasons (Ma & Qu, 2011; Sierra & McQuitty, 2005). First, high-quality service highly relies on the teamwork of service employees. In other words, service employees are not working independently. Thus, in the process of customer services, there are many interactions among coworkers (Ma & Qu, 2011). Second, while the most important task for service employees is to serve customers, customers are actively involved in the service process rather than being passive recipients of it (Sierra & McQuitty, 2005). Therefore, the quality of the service experience depends heavily on customers' active participation.

Interaction Outside the Organization

Customer-Employee Exchange

Researchers of service marketing proposed that the interaction between customers and employees can be considered as part of the social exchange process (Lawler, 2001; Ma & Qu, 2011; Sierra & McQuitty, 2005). They suggested that in the social exchange process, both customers and employees perceive some degree of shared responsibility. Therefore, even though employees play central roles in building successful exchanges with customers, customers' roles cannot be ignored (Sierra & McQuitty, 2005). The importance of customers' roles is also explained by the two characteristics of services, intangibility and inseparability. Services cannot be tested and verified in advance of a sale and thus service companies have difficulty in understanding how customers perceive their services and assess the service quality. Moreover, service quality occurs during an interaction between the customer and the customer-contact employee because production and consumption of services are inseparable. Thus, service

companies have less control over quality in services in which customer participation is intense since customers influence the process (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). However, most previous research on service marketing focused on employees' influence on customers (e.g., Sierra & McQuitty, 2005) while limited attention was given to the customers' influence on employees. Based on the assumptions of social exchange, it can be expected that the responses and attitudes of customers can also impact employees' attitudes and behaviors (Ma & Qu, 2011).

In a similar vein, researchers emphasizing relational job design have presented a positive aspect on interactions outside the organization (Grant, 2007; Grantiz, Koernig, & Harich, 2008). Recently, researchers investigated how the relational characteristics of jobs can lead to employees' prosocial motivation, which may include their desires to promote and protect the well-being of others (Grant, 2007; Grantiz et al., 2008). The more a job provides employees contact with others, the more employees can empathize, take the perspective of, identify with, and, therefore, enhance affective commitments to others (Parker & Axtell, 2001). Employees' affective commitments to others strengthens their prosocial motivations and encourages them to exhibit more persistence and effort (Grant, 2007). A positive viewpoint on interactions outside the organization, especially customer interactions, can be presented by applying theories on resources in the workplace. According to the COR theory, resources are defined as 'energies, conditions, personal characteristics, and objects that are considered as valuable by the individuals or that serve as a means for obtaining these energies, conditions, personal characteristics, and objects' (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). Resources are gained through positive experiences and are lost through negative ones (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, based on the COR theory, positive service interactions with customers can be perceived as psychological job resources for employees. In a similar vein, empirical research proposed that positive service interactions with customers prevent stress reactions, help employees gain well-being, and facilitate the achievement of personal and organizational goals (Zimmermann, Dormann, & Dollard, 2011).

Interaction Within the Organization

Researchers in management literature have been interested in the exchange processes in organizations (Rousseau, 1990; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). They have applied the social exchange theory as an underlying framework, as explained earlier (Wayne et al., 1997). Based on the theory, many empirical studies have showed that effective communication or interactions are important to companies' successes (Hargie, Tourish, & Wilson, 2002). High levels of interaction provide opportunities for employees to garner assistance and advice from others. This form of interaction is more likely to help employees handle concerns (Humphrey et al., 2007). Internal communication or interaction is especially key to enhance employees' job satisfaction in the hospitality industry. For example, research presented that relationships with supervisors and coworkers were one of the critical job sources for lowering employees' turnover intention and increasing their job satisfaction in the hotel industry (Tutuncu & Kozak, 2007). Even though research has not traditionally investigated the contribution of internal social characteristics above motivational characteristics, a few empirical evidences suggest that it may occur (Humphrey et al., 2007). For example, Hackman and Lawler (1971) found that social characteristics were associated with satisfaction. More recently, research presented that social support predicted compensation requirements, training requirements, and job satisfaction beyond the motivational characteristics (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). In the present study, internal interactions are included at the organizational level (i.e., leader-member exchange) and the interpersonal level (i.e., coworker exchange).

Leader-Member Exchange

Early research on leadership theories assumed that leaders use a single specific leadership style in their organizations with all subordinates (Dunegan, 2003). However, researchers with a different perspective have suggested that dyadic relationships between a supervisor and each subordinate are established over time through a series of interactions. Moreover, the supervisor

may subconsciously or consciously form different types of exchange relationships with his or her subordinates. This perspective has evolved into a dyadic approach to comprehend the working relationship between manager-employee through the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory. The LMX theory posits that an interpersonal relationship between supervisors and subordinates evolves against the background of a formal organization (Graen, 1976). According to the theory, each employee builds a unique social exchange relationship with his or her supervisor. The quality of the exchange relationship is generally linked to positive job attitudes and job performance (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). The social exchange theory presents the theoretical basis for LMX (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). More specifically, LMX relationships have been presented to vary based on the amounts of information, support, and material resources exchanged between the two parties. When the perceived value of the intangible and tangible resources exchanged becomes better, the quality of the LMX relationship is getting greater (Wayne et al., 1997). In other words, in the context of high LMX relationships, supervisors show support and influence beyond what is required in formal descriptions and subordinates are given more responsibility and autonomy. These relationships are characterized by mutual respect, obligation, and trust. On the other hand, low LMX relationships are perceived to be limited to the exchanges that are specified in the employment contract. These relationships are characterized by predominantly contractual exchanges, formality, and role-defined interactions. Therefore, the role of LMX in shaping employees' attitudes in the workplace is critical (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). LMX research showed the positive effects of higher quality LMX on higher job satisfaction and job performance and a lower turnover intention (Gerstner & Day, 1997). At the same time, research also presented the negative effects of lower quality LMX on dysfunctional outcomes such as reduced citizenship behavior and higher turnover intention (Kim, O'Neill, & Cho, 2010; Mayfield, Mayfield, & Kopf, 1998). In a similar vein, in the hospitality context, researchers emphasized the importance of high-quality relationships with supervisors and the resulting

positive impacts such as increased intrinsic motivation, engagement, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Li, Sanders, & Frenkel, 2012; Ma & Qu, 2011).

Coworker Exchange

Coworker exchange refers to the dyadic peer relationships among employees (Sherony & Green, 2002). Based on the social exchange theory, if employees receive help and support from their coworker, they feel pressure to give back to that specific coworker. The pressure can be expressed through a sense of obligation to help the coworker with his or her job (Ma & Qu, 2011). Coworkers provide each other with feelings of personal worth and social support (Sherif & Sherif, 1964). Like LMX, relationships with coworkers are marked by mutual respect, trust, and loyalty (Raabe & Beehr, 2003; Sherony & Green, 2002). Coworkers, especially, are considered as the key social referent in previous literature for several reasons. First, coworkers define the environment at work (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). For example, research presented that the influence of coworkers is important, making “a case for attention to relationships in organizational research” (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008, p. 1089). Second, job performance and satisfaction are influenced by employees’ social comparison with the input-outcome ratio of other employees. In general, for social comparisons, coworkers are the most relevant referents within an organization. According to the literature, social comparisons impact an individual’s evaluation in multiple ways (Mussweiler, Rüter, & Epstude, 2004). Third, as organizations have adopted more team-based structures, the relationships between employees and their coworkers have become increasingly critical. Therefore, there is a high possibility that coworkers impact fellow employees in the workplace (Jackson & LePine, 2003; Lepine & Van Dyne, 2001). Thus, researchers have paid increasing attention to the coworkers’ role in the work environment (e.g., Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008).

Coworkers have been expected to have a stronger effect on employees, especially when the work is high in social intensity (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). The hospitality work is socially

intense in two ways. Employees work with different and numerous customers daily in the hospitality industry. At the same time, employees typically work alongside one another with their responsibilities requiring regular social interactions. It is difficult for employees to avoid interpersonal contact since the workplace is readily accessible by others and is often undefined. As such, there is a great opportunity for coworkers to influence an employee's on-the-job experience (Tews, Michel, & Ellingson, 2013).

The influence of coworker exchange on work attitudes is complicated since an employee is involved in exchanges with multiple coworkers. In other words, an employee experiences a unique coworker exchange relationship with each member in the organization. Thus, insights into the effect of coworker exchange on attitudes can be gained by investigating the composition of exchange experiences that an employee is having at work (Sherony & Green, 2002). Empirical research, for example, presented that coworker exchange positively increased employees' positive attitudes and behaviors such as organizational citizenship behavior (Ma & Qu, 2011; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

Psychological States

The JCM was developed by identifying psychological states that were critical for employees' motivation and job satisfaction. Next, researchers identified the core job characteristics that could elicit employees' psychological states (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). To understand the mechanism underlying the relationship between job characteristics and their outcomes, psychological states that may fully mediate the relationship need to be investigated (Behson et al., 2000). Interpersonal characteristics as job resources at the workplace could have intrinsic motivational potential by providing specific information or help for achieving goals (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). For example, as job resources, social support and feedback from others link to employees' work attitudes and behaviors (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006;

Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007). To explain the psychological mechanisms underlying the link between job resources and organizational outcomes, researchers focused on the role of employees' personal resources (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009b). Personal resources describe an individual's sense of his or her capabilities to control and impact the environment successfully. This may include individual objects, energies, conditions, or characteristics that are valued by the individual (Hobfoll, 1989). In addition, individuals may also include positive self-evaluations related to resiliency. As such, personal resources are related to psychological and physiological costs, are functional in goal achievement, and can stimulate personal development and growth (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003).

According to the COR theory, people try to both protect their resources and accumulate them (Hobfoll, 2002). More specifically, if individuals work in a resourceful work environment (e.g., have feedback or social support), they tend to feel valued, increase their beliefs in their capabilities, and be optimistic about achieving their goals. In turn, they may develop a positive self-regard (Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009a). Empirical research, for example, showed that personal resources explained the link not only between various job resources and work engagement but also between these job resources and job performance (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009a). Therefore, how individuals perceive and react differently to organizational contexts can be understood by studying the role of personal resources. This study investigated customer orientation and organization-based self-esteem as both personal resources and critical psychological states that link the interpersonal characteristics of work design and work attitudes.

Customer Orientation

Customer orientation has been expected to play a significant role regarding the success of service businesses because of the intangible nature of the services and the high level of customer interaction. It has been investigated both at the organizational and individual levels (Donavan,

Brown, & Mowen, 2004). At the organizational level, customer orientation describes a market orientation that serves as a vehicle to implement the marketing concept as a business philosophy (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). At the individual level, customer orientation means an employee's tendency or disposition as personal resources to meet customer needs in an on-the-job context (Brown et al., 2002). The service quality research explained that the service employees' behavior influences customers' perception of the service quality (Bitner, Booms, & Mohr, 1994). Thus, researchers explicitly addressed the concept of service employees' customer orientation (e.g., Brown et al., 2002; Hennig-Thurau & Thurau, 2003). They suggested that customer orientation consists of two dimensions: the needs and the enjoyment dimensions. The needs dimension demonstrates an employee's belief about his or her capability to satisfy customer needs. The enjoyment dimension describes that the extent to which interaction with customers and serving customers are enjoyable for an employee (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). Both components are considered to be critical as personal resources to understand a service employee's motivation and ability to serve customers (Brown et al., 2002).

Research on individual characteristics proposed four different levels of personality traits: (a) elemental traits, meaning the most abstract dispositions based on early childhood experiences; (b) compound traits, representing predispositions acting in a certain way across different conditions; (c) situational traits, meaning dispositions behaving in a consistent manner in a general situational context; and (d) surface traits, representing predispositions to act in a consistent manner in a specific context (Mowen, 2000). Most researchers have considered customer orientation as a surface trait and a result of the joint effects of elemental, compound, and situational traits. At the same time, customer orientation has been considered a consequence of the specific context since it can be learned in a specific context and affected by the situation (Babakus, Yavas, & Ashill, 2009).

Customer orientation is considered a key driver to gain customer satisfaction, especially in a service context. Thus, hiring customer-oriented service employees has been represented as a

fundamental step toward it. This is because employees who are more customer oriented not only yield better job performance, engagement, and job satisfaction but also exhibit more organizational citizenship behavior (Babakus et al., 2009; Donovan et al., 2004). In terms of predictors, basic personality traits, such as conscientiousness and agreeability, job resourcefulness, and transformative leadership, impact an individual's customer orientation (Brown et al., 2002; Karatepe & Douri, 2012; Liaw, Chi, & Chuang, 2010). As such, there are still critical gaps in understanding the factors triggering an employee's customer orientation though there is a significant body of literature on customer orientation (Thakor & Joshi, 2005).

Organization-Based Self-Esteem

Self-esteem has been considered a key to predicting employees' attitude and behaviors (Judge & Bono, 2001; Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Most research investigated general self-esteem, which represents an individual's overall beliefs about competence and self-worth. However, a few researchers claimed that self-esteem must be defined as a hierarchical construct. Moreover, they argued that individuals might have different self-perceptions of their competence and worth across different roles (Simpson & Boyle, 1975). For example, an individual may feel less competent and valued as an employee, but feel highly competent and valued as a student or as a spouse. In this regard, organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) was introduced by researchers. Unlike general self-esteem, OBSE means an individual's belief about his or her competence and self-worth as a member of the organization (Pierce et al., 1989). In other words, OBSE considers the individual's self-evaluations specifically within the workplace context rather than only examining general self-esteem (Bowling, Eschleman, Wang, Kirkendall, & Alarcon, 2010).

A recent meta-analysis suggested that OBSE showed stronger influences than general self-esteem on work outcomes, for example, organizational commitment, job involvement, turnover intention, and job satisfaction, which provided evidence that general self-esteem and OBSE were distinguishable (Jian, Kwan, Qiu, Liu, & Yim, 2012). In the same vein, recent

research has demonstrated that OBSE as a personal resource in the workplace is related to personal and work outcomes such as commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention (Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). In terms of predictors, the literature on global self-esteem suggested that several forces affected self-esteem (Brockner, 1988; Korman, 1970). These factors can be classified as (a) the implicit signals sent by the environmental structures where the individual is exposed, (b) the individual's feelings of competence derived from his or her personal and direct experiences, and (c) the messages sent from important others in his or her social environment. Researchers reasoned that the determinants of OBSE were similar, yet they are grounded in the individual's work and organizational experiences (Pierce et al., 1989). For example, several environmental variables, including autonomy, social support, and job complexity, were positively linked to OBSE (Bowling et al., 2010). In the hospitality context, research presented that understanding an employee's self-esteem provided managers ways to create a favorable work environment that brought an advantage to the organization (Crawford & Hubbard, 2008). Recent research emphasized the significance of OBSE as a predictor of customer-contact employees' job performance in the hospitality industry (Jian et al., 2012). However, researchers have argued that even though OBSE plays a critical role, few studies have emphasized the role of OBSE, especially in the hospitality context (Lee, Choo, & Hyun, 2016).

Work Attitude

An attitude is a broad construct used to represent the affective, cognitive, and behavioral aspects of the relationship between an individual and social, ideological, or physical objects (Katz & Stotland, 1959). Applying this definition, employee's attitudes toward work can combine an affective reaction to the work (e.g., like or dislike), a set of beliefs about the work (e.g., challenging or easy), and behavioral intentions (e.g., likelihood of leaving the job or

recommending the job to a friend). With this definition, it is not easy to know where the attitudinal construct leaves off and behavior starts (Staw & Barsade, 1993). Consequently, Fishbein and Ajzen's study (1975) recommended that affect, cognition, and behavior should be separated as much as possible. Many researchers followed this convention (Staw & Barsade, 1993). In the same vein, the affective events theory (AET: Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) separates the affective component from the other two components (i.e., cognition and behavioral intentions) and views it as a predictor of the work attitude. The AET provides a guide to study how affective reactions and subsequent work attitudes associate with each other. Based on the AET, research emphasized the significant role of affective reactions in the workplace (Dasborough, 2006; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006). The experiences of positive or negative work events can elicit affective reactions that contribute to the work attitude formation (Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004). As the AET suggests, employees' affective reactions (e.g., job satisfaction) are influenced by individual dispositions and the workplace environment. These affective reactions are expected to lead to affect-driven behaviors and judgement-driven behaviors such as prosocial behaviors (Richards & Schat, 2007; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to "a positive or pleasurable emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300), and it came to be considered an affective reaction to an individual's job. After a decade, researchers recognized that job satisfaction has a cognitive dimension in addition to an affective one (Organ & Near, 1985). More explicitly adopting a job satisfaction construct as an attitude, researchers conceptualized it as "a positive or negative judgment an individual makes about his or her job or job situation" (Weiss, 2002, p. 6). In other words, job satisfaction is an evaluative judgment, and affective experiences on the job lead to job satisfaction (Weiss, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Thus, it is important to consider both how affective response processes and cognitive processes contribute.

Job satisfaction helps to ensure that employees in the hospitality industry provide service to customers with the utmost respect (Arnett, Laverie, & McLane, 2002). Because of the critical role of employees in developing relationships with customers in the hospitality industry, employees' job satisfaction is a fundamental interest for organizations (Kim, Leong, & Lee, 2005). Moreover, in general, satisfied employees are less likely to leave and more likely to exhibit better performance (Arnett et al., 2002). Thus, research on job satisfaction has investigated ways to increase employees' job satisfaction in the hospitality industry. Their findings indicated that promotion, rewards, and compensation are important factors that impact the satisfaction level of employees in hotels (Vinten, Akin Aksu, & Aktas, 2005). In addition, training programs and mentors in an organization are likely to influence newcomers' job satisfaction in the service industry (Lam, Lo, & Chan, 2002). Research also proved that the service orientation of the organization, managerial leadership, and individual characteristics of frontline employees impact employees' job satisfaction (Karatepe, Uludag, Menevis, Hadzimehmedagic, & Baddar, 2006; Kim et al., 2005; Varela González & García Garazo, 2006). In terms of the consequences of job satisfaction, the negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention has been proved empirically (Feather & Rauter, 2004; Wong & Law, 2002; Yang, 2010). Also, employees' job satisfaction has been associated with customer satisfaction in the hospitality industry (Testa, Skaruppa, & Pietrzak, 1998).

Prosocial Behavior

The word 'prosocial' was created as an antonym for 'antisocial' by social scientists. Prosocial behaviors in organizational settings were defined as behaviors which are (a) performed by an organization's member; (b) directed toward an individual, group, or organization that he or she interacts with while performing his or her role; and (c) performed with the intention of improving the welfare of the individual, group, or organization (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Thus,

prosocial behaviors cover a wide range of behaviors with intention to benefit one or more people other than oneself, for example, helping, sharing, and cooperating (Batson & Powell, 2003). The concept of citizenship behavior is related closely to prosocial behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Researchers conceptualized citizenship behavior as a form of prosocial behavior directed toward the organization (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983).

Research, especially in the service literature, has highlighted the important role of customer-contact employees since their behaviors have a critical influence on customers' perceptions of service quality (Farrell, Souchon, & Durden, 2001; Kim & Lee, 2009; Parasuraman et al., 1985; Tsaor & Lin, 2004). Because of its significance, researchers in service marketing or organizational behavior literature studied employees' service behaviors and defined them as prosocial behaviors (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). According to their studies, prosocial behaviors describe the helpful behaviors of service employees directed toward an organization or other individuals (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). They are a part of service employees' roles in the organization and are intended to improve the individuals' or organization's welfare where they are directed (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Customer-directed prosocial behaviors involve providing service to customers in organizationally inconsistent or consistent ways (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). A service employee, for example, might handle a customer's complaint by deviating from the organization's policy or by following that policy. In both cases, the employee is performing customer-directed prosocial behaviors if the employee is behaving in the customer's best interest (Kelley & Hoffman, 1997). It was conceptualized as role-prescribed customer service, extra-role customer service, and cooperation (Wilke & Lanzetta, 1982).

One prosocial norm that has been studied extensively by researchers is *reciprocity* (Batson & Powell, 2003). People tend to comply with the norm of reciprocity (Batson & Powell, 2003). Empirical research has presented various antecedents of prosocial behaviors in the hospitality industry. They have proposed service capability, cultures, transformational leadership,

organizational commitment, and a company's human resource management practices positively influence the service employees' prosocial behaviors (Gill & Mathur, 2007; Kim & Lee, 2009; Lee, Nam, Park, & Lee, 2006).

Role-Prescribed Customer Service

Role-prescribed customer service means behaviors prosocially providing services to customers in organizationally consistent ways. In other words, role-prescribed customer service behaviors refer to expected employees' behaviors derived from implicit norms at work or from explicit obligations stated in organizational documents, for example, job description and performance evaluation forms (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). These behaviors include demonstrating accurate knowledge of products and policies, exhibiting common courtesy, and greeting customers (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997), and they improve customers' perceived service quality, satisfaction, and loyalty (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990). In terms of the factors triggering role-prescribed performance, empowerment, commitment, and trust in the leader positively influence employees' role-prescribed performance (Bartram & Casimir, 2007). On the other hand, negative emotions, such as burnout, negatively impact employees' role-prescribed performance (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998). Employees' role-prescribed customer service, especially, could be increased when workplace fairness, such as pay level and internal equity, is provided (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997).

Extra-Role Customer Service

Extra-role customer service behaviors describe behaviors that provide services to customers in organizationally inconsistent ways. These are the discretionary behaviors of customer-contact employees beyond the formal role requirements. Extra-role customer service behaviors have been considered to be a type of citizenship performance, meaning employees' discretionary behaviors that are above and beyond role requirements and benefit the organization

(Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). These behaviors mean that customer-contact employees “delight” customers by providing a “little extra” exceptional service and “extra attention” during the service encounter. The marketing literature has highlighted the significance of these behaviors for increasing positive emotional responses from customers and customer satisfaction (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). Task dimensions, organizational characteristics, leader behaviors, and subordinate characteristics were found to be related to extra-role performance (MacKenzie et al., 1998). Also, employees tend to show extra-role customer service behavior in addition to role-prescribed customer service when they perceive workplace fairness (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997).

Cooperation

Cooperation describes the helpful behaviors of customer-contact employees to other members of their organization. Many critical behaviors in organizations mainly rely on employees’ cooperation and unrewarded help behaviors from employees (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986). More specifically, an organization’s ability to provide good service to customers is dependent on cooperation among its employees (Azzolini & Shillaber, 1993). Thus, researchers recommended that strengthening cooperation can enable hospitality companies to overcome increasing competition and rapidly changing customer demands (Sharma, Altinay, Pechlaner, & Volgger, 2012). Empirical research supported the significance of cooperation among service employees for high-quality service (Hoffman & Kelley, 1994; Zeithaml, 1988). Regarding the predictors of cooperation, workplace fairness and interdependence trigger employees’ cooperation with coworkers (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Sharma et al., 2012) whereas envy among employees undermines cooperation (Kim et al., 2010).

Situational Strength

Situational strength was conceptualized as “implicit or explicit cues provided by external entities regarding the desirability of potential behaviors” (Meyer et al., 2010, p.122). Researchers argued that the determinants of human behavior and the complexity of it should be studied from a perspective that explains the interactive and simultaneous influences of individual differences and situational characteristics (Mischel, 1977). Thus, they stated that situational strength must be considered as the most significant situational variable (Meyer et al., 2010; Snyder & Ickes, 1985).

Situational strength was conceptualized as a multi-dimensional concept comprised of role clarity, role consistency, role constraints, and role consequences (Meyer et al., 2014). The first facet of situation strength, role clarity, impacts employees’ attitudes and behaviors by providing easily comprehensible and straightforward information about work-related requirements or responsibilities. The second facet, role consistency, affects attitude and behaviors by consistently communicating a particular action across various channels. The third facet, role constraints, influences employees’ attitudes and behaviors by preventing them from exercising discretion in decisions about which tasks to perform and when or how to perform them. The last facet, role consequences, influences attitude and behaviors by encouraging actions that reduce negative outcomes and increase positive ones (Meyer et al., 2014).

Every job may have its own particular risk factors related to job stress, and, based on the job demands-resources (JD-R) model, these factors can be classified in two general categories, job demands and job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands means the social, organizational, or physical aspects of the job that require mental or physical efforts and are related to certain psychological and physiological costs (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). In the hospitality industry, role ambiguity and role conflict are widely used as indicators of job demands (Babakus, Yavas, & Karatepe, 2008; Kim et al., 2007; Tiyce et al., 2013). Researchers argued that employees in the hospitality industry are more likely to

experience role ambiguity and role conflict due to their boundary role positions than would their manufacturing counterparts. This is due to the intangibility of the service. Moreover, service production and consumption happen simultaneously during customer interaction (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Hing & Nuske, 2012; Yavas, Karatepe, & Babakus, 2011). Literature presented negative effects of role ambiguity and role conflict on job outcomes (Bettencourt & Brown, 2003; Knight, Kim, & Cruisinger, 2007). Thus, a majority of studies have emphasized the necessity of management interventions to control role stress since it is related to physiological, psychological, and behavioral strains among hospitality employees (e.g., Kim et al., 2009). Given the situation of high role ambiguity and role conflict in the hospitality industry, the impact of role clarity and role consistency among situational strength facets were investigated.

Role Clarity

Role clarity was defined as “the extent to which cues regarding work-related responsibilities or requirements are available and easy to understand” (Meyer et al., 2010, p.125). Role clarity can be influenced by various organizational sources of information such as well-communicated and well-developed procedures, clear instruction, and well-established norms (Meyer et al., 2010). There are great opportunities for role ambiguity in the service encounter since the customer-contact employees are responsible for providing service to customers in a way that meets particular customers’ expectations (Bowen & Ford, 2004; Jackson & Schuler, 1992). Role ambiguity, the opposite of role clarity, refers to an employee’s uncertainty about others’ expectations of the employee’s job because of lack of information (Beehr, 1976; Behrman & Perreault Jr, 1984). According to the role theory, role ambiguity increases the probability of dissatisfaction with the role and the experience of a distortion of reality and anxiety and ultimately leads to less effective performance (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Empirical research presented that employees who experienced role ambiguity were more likely to perform at lower levels than employees who had a clearer understanding of what was expected of them

and the job requirements (Babin & Boles, 1998). Moreover, an experience of role ambiguity can constrain employees' customer-oriented behavior and commitment to delivering quality service (Knight et al., 2007; Wetzels, De Ruyter, & Bloemer, 2000). In addition, role ambiguity influences job satisfaction as a work stressor (Madera, Dawson, & Neal, 2013). On the other hand, employees with enhanced role clarity can understand their job requirements and the standards they are expected to meet. It helps them determine how to perform their jobs to achieve expected and positive outcomes (Whitaker, Dahling, & Levy, 2007). Little research has studied the factors affecting role clarity and its significant influence on service quality, especially in the service industry (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006). Researchers presented that team support, participation in decision-making, and feedback positively increase role clarity. Moreover, the more employees perceive role clarity, the more they are satisfied with their jobs and are committed to their organizations (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006).

Role Consistency

Role consistency was defined as “the extent to which cues regarding work-related responsibilities or requirements are compatible with each other” (Meyer et al., 2010, p.126). In other words, various sources of information from relevant others may provide either different (inconsistent) or similar (consistent) information about the desirability of specific behaviors. Role conflict, the opposite of role consistency, is a fundamental variable among employees in the service industry because of the complex environment in which they work. In manufacturing organizations, there is one distinct authority whereas in service organizations, there is another master to serve, the customer (Chung & Schneider, 2002). Thus, service employees are frequently faced with potential conflicts between the role expected by the organization or other employees and the role expected by the customer (Bowen & Ford, 2004; Zeithaml, 1988). Research proved the detrimental effects of role conflict on employees' job satisfaction and customer-oriented job performance (Kim et al., 2009; Knight et al., 2007). Given these results of the studies, researchers

claimed the importance of role consistency to achieve employees' positive work outcomes (e.g., Kim et al., 2009). However, there is only a limited number of research studies that investigated the significance of role consistency and its influence on employees' work outcomes (e.g., Meyer et al., 2009).

The Conceptual Framework & Hypotheses

Customer-Employee Exchange and Customer Orientation

Based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), social exchange tends to trigger feelings of gratitude and trust from employees (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Because of these positive feelings, employees are more likely to reciprocate positive behaviors back to the source of the treatment (Scott, 2007). Thus, if an employee is treated respectfully by customers, the employee will tend to have a positive perception and attitude toward them. In other words, the employee is more likely to enjoy serving customers and having interactions with customers.

Fredrickson's broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001) can be applied to predict and explain the influences of employees' positive service experiences with customers as perceived job resources at work. This theory helps to predict a new perspective on positive emotions. According to the theory, experiences with positive affects prompt the person to become involved in his or her environment and participate in activities. More specifically, this theory posits that positive emotions broaden the person's thought-action repertoire and encourage the person to discover novel lines of thought or actions. These broadened mindsets increase personal resources, such as intellectual, psychological, physical, and social resources, by finding new ideas and actions (Fredrickson, 2001). Thus, the positive and respectful attitudes of customers during the service interaction can help an employee have confidence about and believe in his or her ability to satisfy customer needs through the implementation of new actions. At the same time, it can also help the employee to enjoy service interactions with customers.

H₁₋₁. Customer-employee exchange has a positive influence on customer orientation.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Customer Orientation

The influences of LMX on employee work attitudes can be understood based on the social exchange (Tangirala, Green, & Ramanujam, 2007). When an employee receives favorable treatment from his or her supervisor, which means the LMX is high, the employee is driven to equalize and reciprocate the exchange by a sense of obligation (Blau, 1964). Thus, such employees tend to be willing to express and develop positive work attitudes that can be valued by the supervisor and the organization the supervisor represents (Foa & Foa, 1980). The employee is positioned to receive and seek material resources (e.g., decision-making authority) and psychological resources (e.g., recognition and emotional support) from the supervisor (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The employee more effectively handles the job demands of customer interactions by utilizing these resources (Wilk & Moynihan, 2005). This means that employees in high LMX relationships exhibit more willingness to view customers favorably, have access to support from the supervisor that might help in customer interactions, and receive recognition from the supervisor (Tangirala et al., 2007). In a similar vein, when sales employees perceive a positive psychological climate through their managers' leadership style, such as developing supportive relationships with them and empowering them to handle customer concerns on their own, they are more likely to be customer oriented (Martin & Bush, 2003; Schwepker Jr, 2003). In addition, leaders who are supportive create the working environment where sales employees are more disposed toward meeting customer needs (Boles, Babin, Brashear, & Brooks, 2001).

H₁₋₂. Leader-member exchange has a positive influence on customer orientation.

Coworker Exchange and Customer Orientation

Previous research on teams and groups has made it clear that relationships among team members can influence how these members feel about the team and their jobs (Cohen & Bailey,

1997; Goodman, Ravlin, & Schminke, 1987). Based on the social exchange theory, when an employee receives help and support from a coworker, the employee feels pressure to repay the coworker or the organization to which the coworker belongs (Foa & Foa, 1980; Ma & Qu, 2011). An employee who receives more support and trust from coworkers can obtain job resources to handle difficult and stressful customers (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Tsai, Chen, & Liu, 2007). According to the COR theory, a surplus of resources can help the individual gain even more resources (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). In other words, service employees can gain job resources, such as emotional support, directive guidelines, consideration, and useful customer information, from their relationships with coworkers (Ducharme & Martin, 2000). These job resources can motivate and support service employees to persist in solving customer problems, meet customer needs, and lead to a higher customer orientation as personal resources. Previous empirical research, for example, has indicated that support from coworkers is significantly tied to delivering reliable services to customers (Susskind et al., 2007), and it influences the quality of interactions with customers in the hospitality industry (Gjerald & Øgaard, 2010).

H₁₋₃. Coworker exchange has a positive influence on customer orientation.

Customer-Employee Exchange and Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE)

Previous research in organizational literature has mentioned that environmental conditions may enhance OBSE (Pierce et al., 1989). To be specific, the work environment may impact the explicit cues or implicit cues that employees receive about their value and competence within the organization (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). The major source of self-esteem comes from the social messages received and internalized from significant and meaningful others (Baumeister, 1999). In this sense, an individual's OBSE is formed based on the messages about the self that are transmitted by those who evaluate his or her work. Once these messages are integrated into the individual's evaluation and internalized into the conceptualization of the self, they become a part of the self-concept (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). In the hospitality industry,

customers play a significant role in sending messages to employees by evaluating their performances at work (Liao & Chuang, 2004). The social exchanges between employees and customers have a satisfaction component and an emotional component (Sierra & McQuitty, 2005). In high customer-employee exchange relationships, the customers may show satisfaction with the service that the employees provide to them and provide emotional support by appreciating them (Ma & Qu, 2011). According to the COR theory, the employees might perceive these positive service interactions with the customers as psychological job resources (Hobfoll, 1989). The COR theory posits that resourcefulness can help the individual gain more resources (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). This means positive service interactions with customers as job resources encourage the individual to gain more personal resources by believing that he or she has self-worth and competence in the workplace. Researchers, for example, suggested that successful work experiences enhance an employee's self-esteem (Brockner, 1988; Korman, 1970; Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Based on the COR theory and empirical research, it can be hypothesized that the customer-employee exchange as a positive and successful work experience can enhance an employee's OBSE.

H_{2.1}. Customer-employee exchange has a positive influence on organization-based self-esteem.

Leader-Member Exchange and Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE)

Anderson and Chen (2002) proposed the concept of the relational self, meaning knowledge about the self. The relational self is associated with knowledge about significant others (Anderson & Chen, 2002). In a similar vein, Pierce and Gardner (2004) suggested that important others, such as mentors, role models, or those who assess the individual's work in the workplace, provide social messages that are major sources of the individual's OBSE. Relationships in the workplace, especially those with supervisors, have been considered as significant predictors of employees' work outcomes (Kark, Waismel-Manor, & Shamir, 2012).

According to the LMX theory, supervisors do not treat all subordinates in the same way; instead, they have dyadic relationships with each subordinate (Graen, 1976). The supervisor continuously communicates the employee's value to the organization and work, serves as the role model of the employees, and builds a dyadic partnership in order to cultivate a high-quality LMX (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This high-quality relationship with a supervisor in the workplace not only conveys to an individual that he or she is competent, but also enables the individual to recognize his or her value to the organization. In addition, employees with a high LMX are respected and trusted by their supervisors. Once employees receive these positive signals from their supervisors, who are significant representatives of the organization, these positive experiences increase the employees' sense of worth in their organizations (Liu, Hui, Lee, & Chen, 2013). Empirical research, for example, proposed a significant and positive relationship between the quality of the LMX relationship and OBSE (Heck, Bedeian, & Day, 2005; Liu et al., 2013).

H_{2.2}. Leader-member exchange has a positive influence on organization-based self-esteem.

Coworker Exchange and Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE)

Interpersonal interactions with coworkers may result in more explicit or direct signals about an individual's worth to the organization (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). As an individual interacts with other people who encourage beliefs about the self, it is more likely that the individual internalizes those beliefs and others' views become a part of the self (Korman, 1970). Within an organizational context, coworkers act as significant others for employees to support and help them to protect, invest, and replenish their personal resources due to their physical and psychological closeness (Turner, Stride, Carter, McCaughey, & Carroll, 2012). Social support and performance feedback from coworkers as job resources are expected to play intrinsic motivational roles since they foster employees' development and growth (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Personal resources refer to an individual's sense of his or her capability to successfully control

and influence the environment (Hobfoll et al., 2003). Researchers have considered self-evaluations, for example, self-efficacy, optimism, and OBSE, as personal resources (Albrecht, 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009b). By putting the research together, it can be predicted that support and feedback from coworkers as job resources can enhance personal resources such as OBSE, self-efficacy, and optimism. This can also be predicted based on the COR theory, which shows that providing resources to an employee could help him or her to achieve more resources (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). In other words, it can be predicted that the coworker exchange relationship as a job resource can increase a personal resource such as an individual's OBSE.

H_{2.3}. Coworker exchange has a positive influence on organization-based self-esteem.

Customer Orientation and Job Satisfaction

The fit theory provides a rationale for the link between customer orientation and employees' responses to their jobs. The theory is derived from interactional psychology, suggesting that the individual and the situation or environment combine to influence the individual's behavior (Nadler & Tushman, 1980; O'Reilly et al., 1991). Organizational behavior researchers have approached the concept of fit between employees and environment from several directions. According to the prior approaches, the fit between employees and the environment can be classified into two categories: (a) the fit between the employee and the tasks related to a particular job and (b) the fit between the employee and the specific organization (Kristof, 1996). The first type of fit, labeled person-job (P-J) fit, is addressed herein. The P-J fit means the congruence between the individual's abilities and the demands of a job (Edwards, 1991). However, it is more than just an individual's capabilities, and it extends to the personality of the employee (Donavan et al., 2004). Given that the primary task of service employees is serving customer needs, employees who are more customer oriented have a better fit with the service setting than employees who are less customer oriented. This is because customer-oriented

employees are predisposed to enjoy their work of serving customers (Donavan et al., 2004) and perceive the work as more fulfilling (Farrell & Oczkowski, 2009; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007).

Only a few researchers have determined the positive causal relationship between job satisfaction and customer orientation. They have suggested that employees who are satisfied with their jobs exhibit higher levels of customer orientation (Hoffman & Ingram, 1991; Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & Taylor, 2002). However, others have argued that dispositional customer orientation is a critical issue because of its implications for managers in the hospitality industry. If customer orientation results from job satisfaction, there can be less attention on identifying customer-oriented candidates in the hiring process. Conversely, if job satisfaction is a consequence of customer orientation, managers must devote efforts to hire employees who exhibit a customer-oriented personality (Donavan et al., 2004). Consequently, based on a P-J fit mechanism, service employees who have a higher degree of customer orientation are more likely to express a higher level of job satisfaction.

H₃₋₁. Customer orientation has a positive influence on job satisfaction.

Organization-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) and Job Satisfaction

Research on the consequences of OBSE has been guided by the self-consistency theory (Korman, 1970). The self-consistency theory posits that people tend to maintain a consistent level of self-esteem. Individuals who have a high level of self-esteem generally behave in ways that maintain positive views of themselves. Conversely, individuals with a low level of self-esteem generally behave in ways that continue the negative views of themselves. In the organizational context, high OBSE employees can maintain their self-perceptions by enhancing positive work attitudes whereas employees with low OBSE can maintain their self-perceptions by increasing negative job attitudes (Pierce et al., 1989). This suggests a causal relationship between OBSE and job attitudes (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Empirical research has proved that core self-evaluations,

such as self-esteem and self-efficacy, are positively related to job satisfaction (Bowling et al., 2010; Judge & Bono, 2001).

H₃₋₂. Organization-based self-esteem has a positive influence on job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction and Role-Prescribed Customer Service

Customer-contact employees' job satisfaction has been perceived as a factor promoting their citizenship behavior such as helping coworkers and volunteering for things that are not required (Lee et al., 2006). This causal relationship is implicitly proved in the social psychology literature. In the literature, the premise that attitudes increase behavior is a prominent theme (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). In psychology literature, research has applied a form of social exchange to explain the reciprocate relationship between job satisfaction and prosocial behaviors (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983). Those who benefit from being satisfied with their jobs are more likely to reciprocate by engaging in prosocial behaviors (Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller, & Johnson, 2009). This is because increased job performance is seen as a way to reciprocate rewards from the organization (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). In other words, researchers concluded that in general, based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), individuals evaluating an attitude object favorably are more likely to be involved in behaviors that support or foster it whereas individuals evaluating an attitude object unfavorably are more likely to be involved in behaviors that oppose or hinder it (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Following this logic, attitudes toward the job are associated with behaviors on the job, the most central of which is job performance (Judge et al., 2001). These findings suggest a positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their prosocial behavior at work.

In terms of the relationship between job satisfaction and role-prescribed customer service, the results of previous research are inconclusive. A few researchers argued that there is no relationship between job satisfaction and role-prescribed customer service (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). However, others suggested that employees who are satisfied with their jobs tend to exhibit

more role-prescribed customer service (Lee et al., 2006). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer's (1996) meta-analysis also presented that job satisfaction has a significant positive relationship with role-prescribed performance. In addition, research in service marketing presented a direct effect of job satisfaction on role-prescribed customer service. This indicates that when employees are satisfied with their jobs, they are more likely to exhibit customer-oriented service behaviors (Lee et al., 2006). Thus, this study hypothesized the positive relationship between job satisfaction and role-prescribed customer service.

H_{4.1}. Job satisfaction has a positive influence on role-prescribed customer service.

Job Satisfaction and Extra-Role Customer Service

The relationship between job satisfaction and extra-role behaviors has been studied most frequently (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Research in service marketing and retailing presented that there was no significant relationship between job satisfaction and extra-role customer service (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Lee et al., 2006). On the other hand, most of the other research proposed that the extra-role aspect of performance comes from an employee's job satisfaction (MacKenzie et al., 1998). Employees who are more satisfied with their jobs tend to go beyond their official job requirements to get the work done (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). The logic of this significant relationship is that once employees are satisfied with their jobs, they tend to have a desire to reciprocate the feelings of experienced satisfaction and gratitude to the organization. As a result, they are more likely to engage in extra-role behaviors (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Thus, the positive relationship between job satisfaction and extra-role customer service was hypothesized.

H_{4.2}. Job satisfaction has a positive influence on extra-role customer service.

Job Satisfaction and Cooperation

Research presented that positive affection and attitude to the job can strengthen social relationships with supervisors and coworkers in the workplace (George, 1991). When an

employee is satisfied with his or her job, the employee tends to seek to reciprocate the organization's efforts. These reciprocal behaviors include helping coworkers with job related problems (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). Empirical research, for example, proved the positive relationship between job satisfaction and willingness to cooperate with coworkers (Scott, Bishop, & Chen, 2003). In addition, research presented that job satisfaction resulted in employee teamwork cooperation (Zeffane & McLoughlin, 2006). Research, especially investigations of service employees' attitude and behaviors, also proved that when employees were more satisfied with their jobs, their helpful behaviors increased (Donavan et al., 2004). Thus, this study hypothesized the positive relationship between job satisfaction and cooperation.

H₄₋₃. Job satisfaction has a positive influence on cooperation.

Figure 2 describes the conceptual framework of this study.

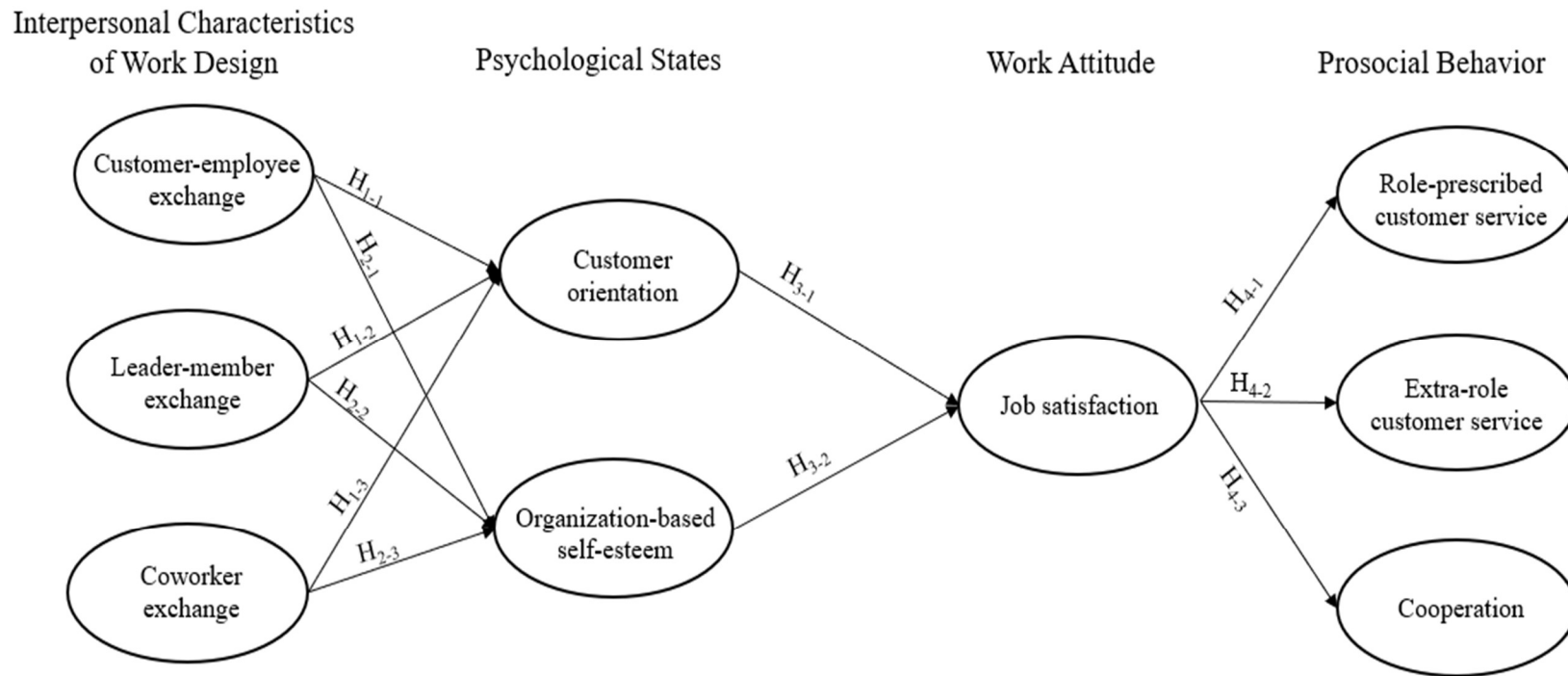


Figure 2. Conceptual Framework

Role Clarity and Role Consistency as Moderators of the Effect of Psychological States on Job Satisfaction

Based on the fit theory, the combination of the situation and the individual affects the individuals' response to their jobs (Nadler & Tushman, 1980; O'Reilly et al., 1991). Thus, the previous literature demonstrates that both situational and individuals' dispositional factors are significant in understanding work attitude (Gerhart & Fang, 2005). Researchers view attitudes and behaviors as functions of both the environmental situation and the person (Licata, Mowen, Harris, & Brown, 2003). According to previous research, the positive effect of dispositional factors on work attitudes is dependent on other situational factors (Smith et al., 2011). For example, interactions between situational (e.g., social support and autonomy) and dispositional characteristics (e.g., Big Five traits and self-efficacy) significantly influenced employees' work attitudes (Cohrs, Abele, & Dette, 2006; Smith et al., 2011). In the same vein, research presented that the effect of dispositional factors (e.g., self-efficacy) on job satisfaction was not significant when high organizational constraints were provided (Stetz, Stetz, & Bliese, 2006).

Researchers argued that the most significant situational moderating variable is situational strength (Meyer et al., 2010). Tett and Burnett (2003), for example, viewed situational strength as a necessary force to consider in individual difference and outcome relationships. Situational strength has been found to moderate several relationships in the organizational behavior research (Beaty Jr, Cleveland, & Murphy, 2001; Meyer et al., 2009). Job satisfaction, especially, was accounted for not only by the influence of the job environment but also by the influence of person variables. More specifically, researchers stressed the joint influence of person and situational variables on job satisfaction (Arvey, Carter, & Buerkley, 1991). The basic notion underlying their arguments is that there should be some degree of 'congruence' between person and situational variables for the person to be satisfied (Arvey et al., 1991). Thus, the joint effects of person and situational factors are considered to be important to produce job satisfaction (Terborg, 1981). The most well-known model presenting the significance of person-environment congruence on job

satisfaction is the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). A major tenet of this theory is that job satisfaction is a function of the congruence between individual occupational needs and job factors (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). In other words, correspondence (or “fit”) between an individual and the organizational environment might induce employees’ job satisfaction (Judge, 1994). Another congruence model was introduced by Holland (1973), and it has received substantial research attention. According to this model, job satisfaction is dependent on the congruence between personality and the work environment (Holland, 1973). As such, several researchers have investigated both individual difference variables and situational variables, especially in studies of job satisfaction.

Both role clarity, which is the opposite of role ambiguity, and role consistency, the opposite of role conflict, can act as situational job characteristics that impact psychological attitude (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). At the same time, they can be treated as job performance-related variables that influence the relationship between dispositional factors and attitude (Bandura, 1997). Employees build confidence and resiliency in the work environment when given clear and unambiguous roles. That is, role clarity helps employees work with a sense of competence in their work roles and in a comfortable environment (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2011). Research showed the significant joint effect of role clarity and a personal factor (i.e., need for clarity) on the job satisfaction of community hospital employees (Lyons, 1971). Moreover, lack of congruent expectations from other people in the workplace makes employees feel uncomfortable and thus diminish effectiveness and job satisfaction (Piko, 2006). It was proposed that to understand work attitude (e.g., job satisfaction), the joint effect of personal difference (e.g., job-related self-esteem, level of education, and job tenure) and the level of role conflict should be measured (e.g., Gregson & Wendell, 1994; Michaels & Dixon, 1994). Service employees’ customer orientation and their OBSE have been described as important personal factors in the workplace that are related to work outcomes, for example, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007;

Mauno et al., 2007). Thus, with high role clarity (low ambiguity) and role consistency (low conflict), personal variables, such as customer orientation and OBSE, were expected to be strongly associated with job satisfaction than situations with low role clarity (high ambiguity) and role consistency (high conflict).

H_{5.1}. Role clarity moderates the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction. When role clarity is high, the positive effect of customer orientation on job satisfaction is strengthened.

H_{5.2}. Role clarity moderates the relationship between organization-based self-esteem and job satisfaction. When role clarity is high, the positive effect of organization-based self-esteem on job satisfaction is strengthened.

H_{6.1}. Role consistency moderates the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction. When role consistency is high, the positive effect of customer orientation on job satisfaction is strengthened.

H_{6.2}. Role consistency moderates the relationship between organization-based self-esteem and job satisfaction. When role consistency is high, the positive effect of organization-based self-esteem on job satisfaction is strengthened.

Figure 3 describes the overall research framework of this study.

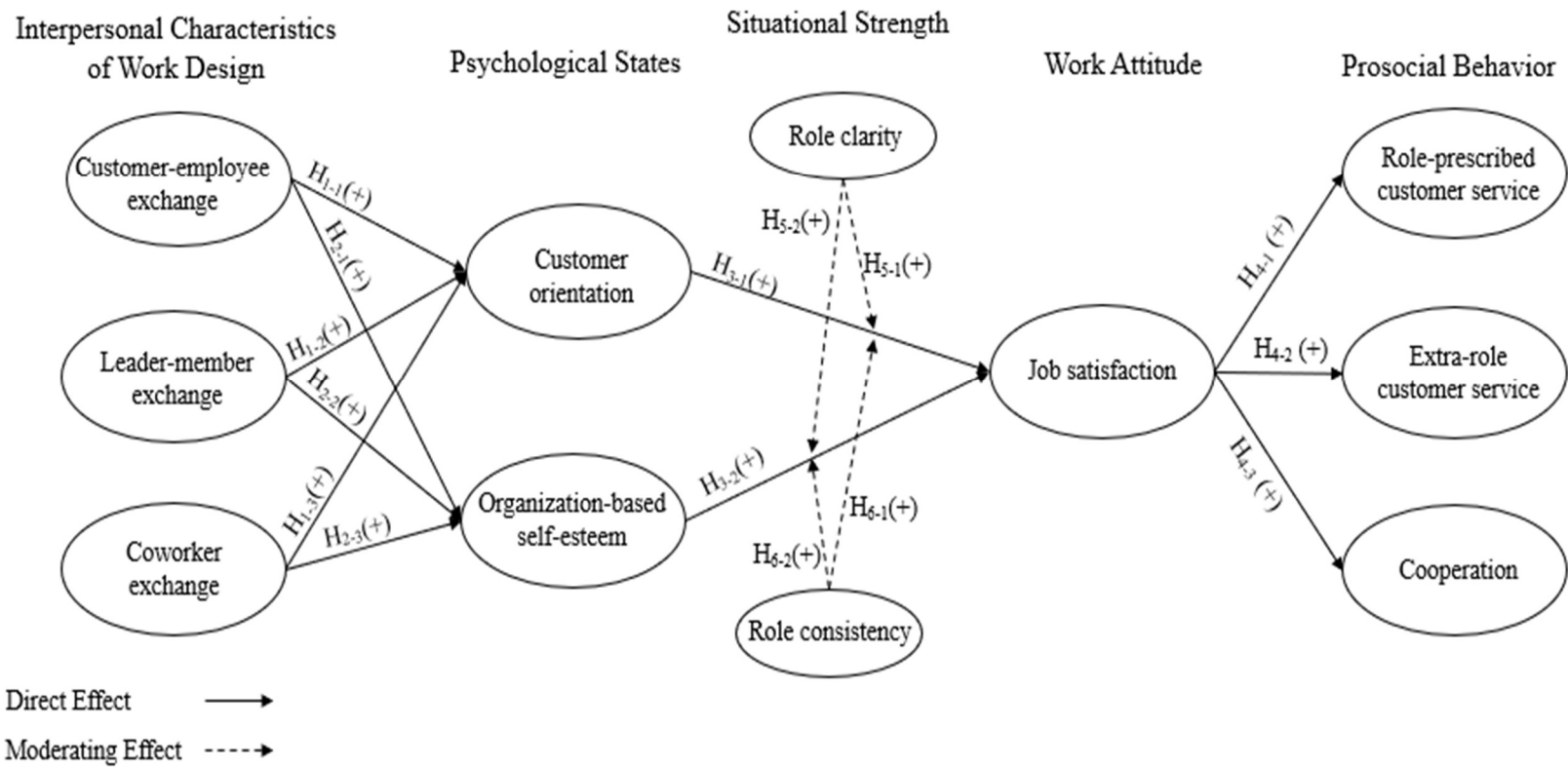


Figure 3. Proposed Overall Research Framework

Summary of Research Hypotheses

A summary of all research hypotheses in path relationships follows:

H₁₋₁. Customer-employee exchange has a positive influence on customer orientation.

H₁₋₂. Leader-member exchange has a positive influence on customer orientation.

H₁₋₃. Coworker exchange has a positive influence on customer orientation.

H₂₋₁. Customer-employee exchange has a positive influence on organization-based self-esteem.

H₂₋₂. Leader-member exchange has a positive influence on organization-based self-esteem.

H₂₋₃. Coworker exchange has a positive influence on organization-based self-esteem.

H₃₋₁. Customer orientation has a positive influence on job satisfaction.

H₃₋₂. Organization-based self-esteem has a positive influence on job satisfaction.

H₄₋₁. Job satisfaction has a positive influence on role-prescribed customer service.

H₄₋₂. Job satisfaction has a positive influence on extra-role customer service.

H₄₋₃. Job satisfaction has a positive influence on cooperation.

A summary of all hypotheses in testing moderating effects follows:

H₅₋₁. Role clarity moderates the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction.

When role clarity is high, the positive effect of customer orientation on job satisfaction is strengthened.

H₅₋₂. Role clarity moderates the relationship between organization-based self-esteem and job satisfaction. When role clarity is high, the positive effect of organization-based self-esteem on job satisfaction is strengthened.

H₆₋₁. Role consistency moderates the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction. When role consistency is high, the positive effect of customer orientation on job satisfaction is strengthened.

H₆₋₂. Role consistency moderates the relationship between organization-based self-esteem and job satisfaction. When role consistency is high, the positive effect of organization-based self-esteem on job satisfaction is strengthened.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

The purpose of this study is to build and empirically test a model that describes the psychological mechanisms underlying employees' social exchange relationships in the workplace by applying both the job characteristics model (JCM) and interpersonal characteristics. Thus, this study conducted a cross-sectional survey by collecting the samples at a specific point of time. The proposed model, depicted in Figure 3, was empirically tested to achieve the research purpose and objectives. This chapter presents the survey instruments, pilot test, sampling plan, and data analysis.

Survey Instrument

A self-reported questionnaire was used to survey employees who had customer interactions in the restaurant industry.

Respondents were asked if they had ever taken part in customer interactions on a regular basis in the workplace. If they had, they were asked to explain what kind of customer interaction they had been involved in. This question was for the purpose of enabling us to identify respondents who were in ongoing relationships with customers. Individuals who did not have any customer interactions were asked to stop responding to the survey. The questionnaire was comprised of six main sections.

The first section was to ascertain employees' perceptions about the three types of social exchange relationships that, based on previous studies, happen in the workplace. *Customer-employee exchange* was measured with four items from Ma and Qu's (2011) study. The original items were developed to measure hotel employees' interpersonal relationships with customers. Thus, the questions were modified to fit the restaurant settings for this study. *Leader-member exchange* was assessed with five items that were derived from the study of Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). *Coworker exchange* was evaluated with five items that were adapted from the study of Ladd and Henry (2000). All items were measured by using a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

The second section was to discover employees' perceptions about their psychological states. *Customer orientation* was measured using six items from Brown, Mowen, Donovan, and Licata's (2002) study. Customer orientation was conceptualized as having two dimensions: the needs dimension and the enjoyment dimension. Each dimension was measured using three items, respectively. *Organization-based self-esteem* was assessed using six items that were adapted from the study of Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, and Dunham (1989). All items were measured by using a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

The third section was for collecting information on employees' attitudes about their job and behaviors. *Job satisfaction* was evaluated using four items that were borrowed from the studies of Andrews and Withey (1976) and Brayfield and Rothe (1951). *Prosocial behavior* was measured using thirteen items from Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) study. Prosocial behavior was conceptualized as being comprised of three dimensions: role-prescribed customer service, extra-role customer service, and cooperation. *Extra-role customer service* was measured using five items, and both *role-prescribed customer service* and *cooperation* were measured using four items each. All items were measured by using a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

The fourth section was to ascertain situational strength in the workplace. *Role clarity* and *role consistency* were evaluated with three items each from the study by Meyer et al. (2014). All items were measured by using a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

The fifth section was included to look at the measurement of social desirability from the Social Desirability Scale (SDS) to control for self-flattering responses. SDS, developed by Crowne and Marlowe (1960), measured a preference to make a good impression on others (Sodowsky, Kuo-Jackson, Richardson, & Corey, 1998), and it has become one of the most commonly used scales in psychological assessment (Stöber, 2001). Social desirability was measured using six items selected from the original SDS and contained a forced-choice answer format (where 1=True and 2=False).

The last section was to collect not only employees' demographic information, which consists of gender, age group, ethnicity, marital status, education level, and annual household income, but also their employment information, specifically, tenure, position, and employment status, that were considered to be relevant to this study.

All items and measurement scales, which are listed in Table 1, had been empirically supported in relation to the internal consistency and dimensionality of the scales.

Table 1. Proposed Measurement Items

Section 1. Three Types of Social Exchange Relationships Constructs (Total: 14 items)

Construct	Items	References
Customer-Employee Exchange	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Most of my customers are polite to me. 2. I feel my services are appreciated by my customers. 3. I feel my customers are satisfied with the services provided by me. 4. I feel my customers are happy to dine in my restaurants. 	Ma & Qu (2011)
Leader-Member Exchange	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. My supervisor understands the challenges associated with my positions. 2. My supervisor knows my potential. 3. My supervisor would protect me if needed. 4. I have a good working relationship with my supervisor. 5. I know how satisfied my supervisor is with my performance. 	Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995)
Coworker Exchange	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. My coworkers will help me when needed. 2. My coworkers care about my well-being. 3. My coworkers are willing to assist me to perform better. 4. My coworkers care about my opinions. 5. My coworkers will compliment my accomplishments at work. 	Ladd & Henry (2000)

Section 2. Employees' Psychological States (Total: 10 items)

Construct	Items	References
Customer Orientation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I enjoy remembering my customers' names. 2. I enjoy responding quickly to my customers' request. 3. I really enjoy serving my customers. 4. I achieve my own goals by satisfying customers. 5. I get customers to talk about their service needs with me. 6. I am able to answer a customer's question correctly. 	Brown, Mowen, Donavan, & Licata (2002)
Organization-Based Self-Esteem	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I am a valuable part of my restaurant. 2. I am an efficient worker in my restaurant. 3. I am an important part of my restaurant. 4. I am cooperative in my restaurant. 	Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham's (1989)

Section 3. Employees' Work Attitude (Total: 17 items)

Construct	Items	References
Job Satisfaction	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I am satisfied with my present job. 2. I am enthusiastic about my job. 3. I consider my job to be pleasant. 4. I find real enjoyment in my job. 	Andrew & Withey (1976); Brayfield & Rothe (1951)
Role-Prescribed Customer Service	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I perform all those tasks for customers that are required of me. 2. I meet formal performance requirements when serving customers. 3. I fulfill responsibilities to customers as specified in the job description. 4. I adequately complete all expected customer-service behaviors. 	

Prosocial Behavior	Extra-Role Customer Service	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 5. I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond my job requirements. 6. I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required in my job. 7. I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers. 8. I willingly go out of my way to make customers satisfied. 9. I frequently go out the way to help customers. 	Bettencourt & Brown (1997)
	Cooperation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 10. I help other employees who have heavy workloads. 11. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to the employees around me. 12. I voluntarily give my time to help other employees. 13. I willingly help others who have work related problems. 	

Section 4. Situational Strength (Total: 6 items)

Construct	Items	References
Role Clarity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Specific information about work-related responsibility is provided. 2. Easy-to-understand information is provided about my work requirements. 3. I am told exactly what is expected from me at work. 	Meyer et al., (2014)
Role Consistency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Different sources of work information are always consistent with each other. 2. Supervisor instructions match the restaurant's policies. 3. Information provided is generally the same, no matter who provides it. 	

Section 5. Social Desirability Scale (Total: 6 items)

Construct	Items	References
Social Desirability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I am always careful about my manner of dress. 2. I have never been bothered when people expressed ideas very different from my own. 3. I am always willing to admit when I make a mistake. 4. I have never deliberately said something that hurts someone's feelings. 5. I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble. 6. No matter whom I am talking to, I am always a good listener. 	Crowne & Marlowe (1960)

Common Method Variance

Self-reported quantitative survey data has a specific problem — common method variance (CMV), since questionnaires can cause a systematic bias that can artificially deflate or inflate correlations. CMV indicates that the study itself, rather than the reality of the situation,

leads to the measured difference (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). To address CMV, respondents were assured of the confidentiality and anonymity of the study. In addition, Harman's single-factor test, a common method used to measure CMV, was conducted (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Pilot Test

Before the main survey, a pilot test was conducted in March 2017 to measure the reliability of the instrument using employees in the restaurant industry who were conveniently selected through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Thirty responses were analyzed using SPSS 23 to test the reliability of the instrument. To measure a construct with multiple items, Cronbach's alpha was used to test the internal consistency of the measurement (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). A Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 or higher is considered good in social science research (Hair et al., 2006; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The results revealed that the Cronbach's alphas of the constructs ranged from .610 to .921. One item "I am able to answer a customer's question correctly" (for customer orientation) showed the Cronbach's alphas value of .601. A Cronbach's alpha score of 0.60 is generally acceptable although it is not as rigorous as the more commonly known 0.70 threshold (Hair et al., 2006). The results of the pilot test indicated that the reliability of the instruments was good; thus, this questionnaire was used for the actual survey.

Sampling Plan

Target Population

The target population of this study was frontline employees who were working in the full-service restaurant segment in the United States at the time of the survey. Full-service

restaurants include family, upscale, casual, and fine dining restaurants, and they provide waited table service for customers. More specifically, they not only greet and seat customers but also take and deliver orders to the customers (Spears & Gregoire, 2007). Given this explanation, full-service restaurants serve both food and service experiences to their customers (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2002). Thus, individuals can experience food, a relatively high level of services, and interaction with employees (Han, Back, & Barrett, 2010; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2002).

Sample Size

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was applied to analyze the data, and SEM has requirements on sample size. The sample size justification is based on the basic measurement model characteristics and model complexity (Hair et al., 2006). Even though there are not absolute standards in the literature, researchers suggest some recommendations in determining the sample size for SEM.

Stevens (1996) recommended that 15 observations to one observed variable are required. According to Hair et al. (2006), more than 500 samples are required when the number of factors is greater than six, multiple low communalities are present, and some constructs use fewer than three measured items as indicators. Other researchers suggested that a certain number of samples are required per estimated parameter. Each estimated parameter should have 10 respondents, and at least five respondents were required for each estimated parameter (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Kline, 2005).

To analyze a complex model, generally more respondents are required than in a simpler model since it has more parameters than a simpler model. Models with more parameters require more estimates, so larger samples are needed for the results to be reasonably stable. Given these guidelines suggested by previous researchers and the difficulty in collecting responses from restaurant employees, this study applied Bentler and Chow's (1987) approach, requiring five

respondents for each estimated parameter. There were 96 parameters in this study; thus, the expected minimum sample size was 480.

Sampling Approach

A self-selected convenience sampling method was utilized to draw samples from frontline employees who were working in the full-service restaurant segment in the United States and had MTurk accounts. The convenience sampling method has been used by a few social science researchers to test the theoretical relationships with new measures in new settings, rather than to generalize findings (Lucas, 2003). The purpose of this current study was to build and test a theoretical model on the psychological mechanisms underlying the social exchange process. Generalization was not the purpose of the study. Thus, the convenience sampling method was proper method for this study.

To collect data, an online survey with MTurk, a crowdsourcing website, was used. There are several advantages of using an online survey over a paper-based survey: (a) a geographically unlimited sample; (b) easy implementation; (c) a short response time; and (d) low costs (Koh & Kim, 2004). A crowdsourcing website is operationally conceptualized as “the paid recruitment of an online, independent workforce for the objective of working on a particularly defined task” (Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011, p. 801). The key features of this conceptualization are that (a) workers can be recruited online from various geographic locations, (b) they are paid, and (c) they are recruited only to complete a defined task (Behrend et al., 2011). The questionnaire was posted on MTurk, which coordinates the demand and supply of tasks that require human intelligence (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). MTurk is more demographically diverse than other typical online samples (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012). Moreover, previous research argued that the quality of data gained from MTurk was as reliable as the quality from conventional sampling methods (Behrend et al., 2011). Thus, researchers highly recommended using MTurk for studies because of its heterogeneity of participants, speed of data

collection, low cost, and reliability (Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013). Many hospitality researchers used MTurk to recruit restaurants or hotel employee samples (e.g., Orłowski, Murphy, & Severs, 2016).

Data Analysis

The collected data was analyzed using several steps.

First, the data screening procedure was employed to test whether the data had missing values and outliers, and whether it met the assumptions for further data analysis (Hair et al., 2006). In addition, multivariate assumptions were checked. The histograms and scatterplot were checked to see the central tendency and the dispersion of items. Linear relationships between metric variables, outliers, and the homogeneity of variance were detected through this process. The Mahalanobis D^2 test was also performed by assessing the distance between a case and the multidimensional mean of a distribution for checking multivariate outliers (Kline, 2011). For checking the normality of the data, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, skewness values, and kurtosis values were also checked. Cronbach's alpha and the composite reliability of each construct were analyzed to measure the reliability of each construct. If each construct presented the minimum Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 or the composite reliability of 0.70, they were considered to have reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). To check the relationships between variables, the correlation coefficient with correlation analysis was measured. In addition, multicollinearity issues were checked with the tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values.

Second, Harman's single-factor test was conducted to address common method variance (CMV).

Third, descriptive statistics were performed to detect respondents' demographic profiles and their work-related information.

Fourth, a two-stage procedure was used to test the overall model. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test measurement reliability, followed by SEM. In the first stage, CFA was applied to confirm that the measurement theory specifies a series of relationships. These relationships express how measured indicators represent a latent construct that is not measured directly. To check the model fit, various goodness-of-fit indices were reviewed (e.g., Chi-square (χ^2), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI), standardized root mean square (SRMR), and root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)) and then the construct validity was examined by assessing convergent validity and discriminant validity.

Convergent validity means how much variance proportion a specific construct's indicators share or converge with a variance in common (Hair et al., 2006). To measure convergent validity, the coefficient alpha, construct reliability (CR), factor loadings, and average variance extracted (AVE) values were checked. To indicate good reliability, the coefficient alpha and CR should show a 0.7 or higher value. In addition, standardized factor loading estimates of 0.5 or above and an AVE of 0.5 or higher are considered a sufficient convergence (Hair et al., 2006).

Discriminant validity means the extent to which a construct is distinct from other constructs (Hair et al., 2006). The best test to assess discriminant validity is to compare the square of the correlation estimate between any two constructs with the variance-extracted percentages for these two constructs. The variance-extracted estimates have to be greater than the squared correlation estimates to prove discriminant validity.

In the second stage, the structural model was tested to measure the relationships among all latent variables and the path analysis of the model. SEM is an advanced technique that can measure multivariate relationships simultaneously (Kline, 2005). Moreover, SEM allows for measurement error by using multiple observed variables to represent unobserved latent variables (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, SEM has been widely applied in empirical model testing and theory building in marketing, management, and hospitality literature. This study used AMOS 20 and

SPSS 23 software to analyze data. Various fit indices were used to check the overall fit as well as the statistical significance of each path. For testing a full structural model, SEM involves the six-stage procedures outlined by Hair et al., (2006). The procedures for using SEM are described in Figure 4.

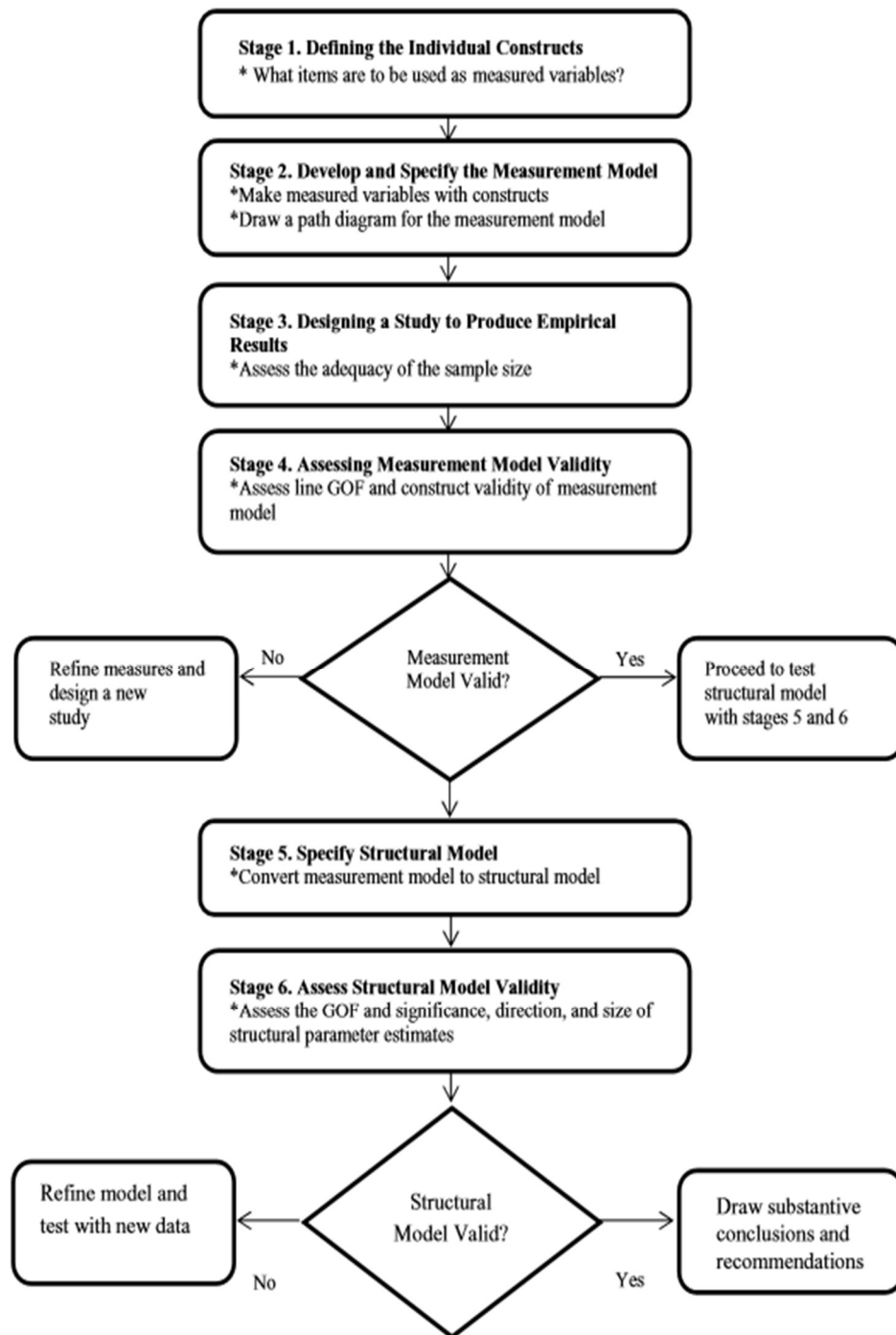


Figure 4. Six-Stage Procedures for Structural Equation Modeling

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Stage 1: Defining the Individual Constructs

The first stage is to define and operationalize the constructs by choosing the measurement scale types and items. The constructs in the model were identified based on previous literature, and two types of constructs, exogenous and endogenous, were applied. Exogenous constructs are the latent and equivalent to independent variables and are determined by factors outside of the model. Endogenous constructs are the latent and equivalent to dependent variables, and are determined by factors within the model. In this study, there were three exogenous variables in the proposed model: customer-employee exchange (ζ_1), leader-member exchange (ζ_2), and coworker exchange (ζ_3). The proposed model also consisted of six endogenous variables: customer orientation (η_1), organization-based self-esteem (η_2), job satisfaction (η_3), role-prescribed customer service (η_4), extra-role customer service (η_5), and cooperation (η_6).

Stage 2: Develop and Specify the Measurement Model

The second stage is to specify the measurement model by identifying the number of indicators (items) per construct based on previous literature. All observed variables in the model should represent unidimensionality, which means they should be free to load on only one construct. Moreover, latent constructs should be indicated by a minimum of three indicators, and preferably four or more. This is because the number of indicators is related to identification issues that address whether there is enough information to identify a solution to structural equations (Hair et al., 2006). In this study, for the three exogenous variables, customer-employee exchange (ζ_1) had four indicators, and leader-member exchange (ζ_2) and coworker exchange (ζ_3) had five indicators, respectively. For the six endogenous variables, customer orientation (η_1) had six indicators and organization-based self-esteem (η_2) had four indicators. Job satisfaction (η_3) had four indicators. Role-prescribed customer service (η_4) had four indicators, extra-role customer service (η_5) had five indicators, and cooperation (η_6) had four indicators.

Stage 3: Designing a Study to Produce Empirical Results

The third stage is to design and execute the study to collect data for measuring the measurement model. The assumptions of SEM are the random sampling of respondents, the independence of observation, and the linearity of all relations. If the purpose of the study is to test a theory and validate causal relationships among the constructs, the variance-covariance matrix is appropriate to use (Hair et al., 2006).

Stage 4: Assessing the Measurement Model Validity

Construct validity needs to be investigated to measure the model fit through various empirical measures, for example, (a) exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and reliability analysis (i.e., testing Cronbach’s alpha), (b) overall model fit of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and (c) measuring average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR). The EFA and reliability analysis were conducted to prove the reliability and unidimensionality of the constructs. CFA was applied to assess the validity of the measurement model, and it was determined by the goodness-of-fit (GOF). GOF refers to the extent to which the specified model reproduces the covariance matrix among the indicators (Hair et al., 2006). The fit indices and acceptable range of the fit indices are summarized in Table 2 (Hair et al., 2006).

Table 2. Goodness-of-Fit Indices and Acceptable Range

Fit Indices		Acceptable Range (N>250, m≥30)
Basics of GOF	Chi-square (χ^2)	Significant <i>p</i> -values can be expected.
Incremental fit indices	Comparative fit index (CFI)	≥ 0.9
	Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	≥ 0.9
Absolute fit indices	Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)	< 0.07 (with CFI above 0.90 or higher)
	Standardized root mean square (SRMR)	< 0.08 (with CFI above 0.92)

N applies to number of observations per group when applying CFA to multiple groups at the same time.; m = number of observed variables

Sources: Hair et al. (2006)

AVE and CR were calculated to address reliability and validity issues. AVE specifies how much the indicators truly represent the latent construct, and a 0.5 or higher value is recommended. CR indicates the reliability of a measure of each construct in the measurement model, and a 0.7 or higher value is required (Hair et al., 2006).

Stage 5: Specify the Structural Model

The fifth stage is to specify the structural model by investigating relationships among the constructs based on the proposed model (Hair et al., 2006). As Figure 2 showed, there were twelve paths that tested the causal relationship between constructs.

Stage 6: Assess the Structural Model Validity

The last stage is to evaluate the validity of the structural model and the hypothesized relationships. The overall fit of the structural model was assessed with the goodness-of-fit indices, as shown in Table 2. If the structural model has an acceptable overall model fit, the nested model approach needs to be applied. A nested model means the model including the same number of variables. It can be formed by changing some path relationships such as adding paths or deleting paths from the proposed model. When theories can be justified and the changes are deemed to be empirically significant, modifications can be made. The proposed model can be compared to an alternative model. To test the statistical significance of the improvement or the worsening in fit, the chi-square difference statistic was applied (Hair et al., 2006).

Moderating Effects Testing

When a third independent variable makes changes in the relationship between two variable pairs, there is believed to be a significant moderating effect. Various approaches can be used to measure the significance of a moderating effect. When the independent variables are categorical or continuous, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis is generally applied to assess

for an interaction effect (Kim, 2013). Thus, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was adopted to test the moderating effects of role clarity and role consistency on the relationships between psychological states (customer orientation and organization-based self-esteem) and job satisfaction. Steps were taken to test a moderating effect using a hierarchical multiple regression analysis. First, the independent variable (customer orientation and organization-based self-esteem) and the moderator (role clarity and role consistency) were entered into the model to predict the dependent variable (job satisfaction). Second, an interaction term, which, in this case is the product of the independent and moderator variables, was entered into the model. If the interaction term presented a statistical significance on the dependent variable, it indicated there was a moderating effect. This means the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable depends on the value of the moderator variable.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Initial Data Screening

A total of 638 responses were collected and several data screening procedures were performed. First, respondents who were not working in the full-service restaurant segment at the time of the survey were excluded. Based on their answers to the screening questions, 86 respondents were ruled out for further data analyses. In addition, two responses containing incomplete answers were eliminated. To check the univariate outliers, z-scores for all variables were calculated, and the z-score value of 4.0 was used as a cutoff (Hair et al., 2006). Histograms and scatterplot matrices were examined to check outliers, linear relationships, and normalities. The Mahalanobis D^2 test was also conducted to measure the distances between each case and the multidimensional mean of a distribution so that multivariate outliers could be detected (Kline, 2011). As a result, 51 extreme outliers were removed from further data analyses. For detecting normal distribution of data, skewness and kurtosis values were checked. All skewness values (from -1.202 to -0.582) and kurtosis values (from -0.731 to 1.932) were less than 3, indicating data had a normal distribution (Kline, 2011). The linear relationships between variables and the homogeneous variance throughout the range of all variables were checked by producing a scatterplot matrix.

Consequently, none of the relationships in the scatterplot matrix presented serious problems with linearity or homoscedasticity. After the data screening procedure was completed, 499 responses were retained for further data analyses.

Demographic Information

Table 3 shows the demographic information of the respondents. There were more male respondents (56.9%) than female respondents (43.1%). The majority of the respondents were between 25 and 34 years old (56.3%), Caucasian (76.4%), and single (61.3%). Regarding the education level, most respondents (63.1%) had either a bachelor's or an associate degree, and 30.4% of the respondents had only earned a high school diploma. Regarding the annual household income, 12.0% of respondents had less than \$20,000, 55.2% from \$20,000 to \$59,999, and 16.2% from \$60,000 to \$79,999. As for the participants' careers in the hospitality industry, those who had been working more than one year to three years represented 46.1%. In terms of the participants' careers at the current restaurant, 52.7% of the respondents had been working more than one year to three years. Regarding the working position, the majority of the respondents were frontline staff (80.4%) and permanent employees (76%).

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Respondents' Characteristics (N=499)

Categories	Frequency	Valid %
Gender		
Male	284	56.9
Female	215	43.1
Age		
18-24	77	15.4
25-34	281	56.3
35-44	104	20.8
45-54	27	5.4
55 years or older	10	2.0
Ethnicity		
White/Caucasian	381	76.4
African American	43	8.6
Native American or American Indian	6	1.2

Hispanic or Latino	21	4.2
Asian	35	7.0
Pacific Islander	1	0.2
Other	12	2.4
Marital status		
Single	306	61.3
Married	193	38.7
Education		
Less education than high school	1	0.2
High school diploma	152	30.4
Associate degree	112	22.4
Bachelor's degree	203	40.7
Graduate degree	31	6.2
Annual Household Income		
Less than \$20,000	60	12.0
\$20,000 - \$ 39,999	143	28.7
\$40,000 - \$ 59,999	132	26.5
\$60,000 - \$ 79,999	81	16.2
\$80,000 - \$ 99,999	35	7.0
\$100,000 or more	48	9.6
Industry Tenure		
Less than 1 year	102	20.4
1 – 3 years	230	46.1
4 – 6 years	107	21.4
7 – 10 years	38	7.6
More than 10 years	22	4.4
Tenure at the current restaurant		
Less than 1 year	153	30.7
1 – 3 years	263	52.7
4 – 6 years	61	12.2
7 – 10 years	15	3.0
More than 10 years	7	1.4
Position		
Frontline staff	401	80.4
Supervisor	47	9.4
Manager	51	10.2
Employment Status		
Permanent employee	379	76.0
Temporary full-time employee	47	9.4
Temporary part-time employee	73	14.6

Measurement Model

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to validate the measurement model (Hair et al., 2006). For CFA, 41 items were used: customer-employee exchange (4 items), leader-member exchange (5 items), coworker exchange (5 items), customer orientation (6 items),

organization-based self-esteem (4 items), job satisfaction (4 items), role-prescribed customer service (4 items), extra-role customer service (5 items), and cooperation (4 items).

A total of 499 observations was analyzed using the maximum likelihood method estimation. The overall model fit was checked, and then the path estimates, standardized residuals, and modification indices were also assessed for diagnosing the measurement model (Hair et al., 2006). The model fit for the measurement model was acceptable ($df = 728$, $\chi^2 = 1659.186$, $\chi^2/df = 2.279$ ($p < 0.001$), comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.947, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = 0.941, root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.051, and standardized root mean square (SRMR) = 0.048). All path estimates were significant, and the standardized factor loadings ranged from .622 to .902, surpassing the minimum value of .5 (Hair et al., 2006). Based on the recommendation of Hair et al. (2006), the standardized residuals were examined. Standardized residuals higher than $|2.5|$ deserve researcher's attention, and residuals higher than $|4.0|$ indicate a potentially unacceptable degree of error (Hair et al., 2006). The results presented that the item "I am able to answer a customer's question correctly" (for customer orientation) was problematic. This item was related to five residuals exceeding $|2.5|$ (+2.545, +2.698, +2.773, +3.254, and +3.351, respectively). Moreover, this item was subjected to modification indices ranging from 5.337 to 32.424 with other items, surpassing the minimum value of 4 (Hair et al., 2006). With this diagnostic information, this item was excluded from the further data analysis.

After deleting the item, another CFA was conducted to reassess the measurement model. The model fit was improved ($df = 689$, $\chi^2 = 1408.805$, $\chi^2/df = 2.045$ ($p < 0.001$), CFI = 0.958, TLI = 0.952, RMSEA = 0.046, and SRMR = 0.047). The means and standard deviations of the constructs, and correlations among constructs are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Construct	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Customer-Employee Exchange	5.77	.80	1.00								
2. Leader-Member Exchange	5.49	1.01	.653	1.00							
3. Coworker Exchange	5.55	.94	.607	.578	1.00						
4. Customer Orientation	5.66	.88	.677	.641	.627	1.00					
5. Organization-Based Self-Esteem	6.02	.82	.666	.584	.595	.707	1.00				
6. Job Satisfaction	5.30	1.16	.534	.631	.549	.665	.533	1.00			
7. Role-Prescribed Customer Service	5.99	.88	.683	.470	.478	.626	.720	.405	1.00		
8. Extra-Role Customer Service	5.61	1.01	.565	.478	.488	.674	.603	.519	.665	1.00	
9. Cooperation	5.62	1.01	.578	.472	.624	.608	.665	.443	.643	.674	1.00

N = 499. All correlation values are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Once the measurement model was evaluated, each of the constructs was assessed for reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Reliability was examined with the revised standardized factor loadings, Cronbach's alpha, and composite reliability (CR) after removing the item. As Table 5 presents, the standardized factor loadings were greater than the minimum value of .50. In addition, Cronbach's alpha and CR for the constructs were greater than the minimum value of .70 (Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, the instrument had adequate reliability.

Convergent validity was measured to evaluate whether the indicators of a latent construct measured the same construct. Convergent validity was tested with average variance extracted (AVE) values and the CR. AVE values should exceed .50, and CR should be greater than the level of .70 to achieve convergent validity (Bagozzi, 1980; Hair et al., 2006). According to the recommendations of Bagozzi (1980) and Hair et al. (2006), the convergent validity of the constructs in this study was supported for the measurement model. The standardized factor loadings, CR, and AVE values are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. The Results of the Measurement Model

Construct and Indicators	Std. loading	CR	α	AVE
Customer-Employee Exchange		.882	.871	.653
Most of my customers are polite to me.	.796			
I feel my services are appreciated by my customers.	.705			
I feel my customers are satisfied with the services provided by me.	.871			
I feel my customers are happy to dine in my restaurants.	.850			
Leader-Member Exchange		.900	.903	.643
My supervisor understands the challenges associated with my positions.	.766			
My supervisor knows my potential.	.833			
My supervisor would protect me if needed.	.772			
I have a good working relationship with my supervisor.	.821			
I know how satisfied my supervisor is with my performance.	.816			
Coworker Exchange		.906	.903	.659
My coworkers will help me when needed.	.785			
My coworkers care about my well-being.	.840			
My coworkers are willing to assist me to perform better.	.861			
My coworkers care about my opinions.	.836			
My coworkers will compliment my accomplishments at work.	.731			
Customer Orientation		.873	.860	.580
I enjoy remembering my customers' names.	.649			
I enjoy responding quickly to my customers' request.	.805			
I really enjoy serving my customers.	.822			
I achieve my own goals by satisfying customers.	.793			
I get customers to talk about their service needs with me.	.724			
Organization-Based Self-Esteem		.898	.901	.688
I am a valuable part of my restaurant.	.813			
I am an efficient worker in my restaurant.	.854			
I am an important part of my restaurant.	.813			
I am cooperative in my restaurant.	.836			
Job Satisfaction		.930	.930	.770
I am satisfied with my present job.	.858			
I am enthusiastic about my job.	.879			
I consider my job to be pleasant.	.892			
I find real enjoyment in my job.	.880			
Role-Prescribed Customer Service		.923	.922	.749
I perform all those tasks for customers that are required of me.	.847			
I meet formal performance requirements when serving customers.	.873			
I fulfill responsibilities to customers as specified in the job description.	.858			
I adequately complete all expected customer-service behaviors.	.884			
Extra-Role Customer Service		.935	.940	.742

I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond my job requirements.	.833			
I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required in my job.	.829			
I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.	.873			
I willingly go out of my way to make customers satisfied.	.901			
I frequently go out the way to help customers.	.868			
Cooperation		.921	.924	.746
I help other employees who have heavy workloads.	.869			
I am always ready to lend a helping hand to the employees around me.	.896			
I voluntarily give my time to help other employees.	.840			
I willingly help others who have work related problems.	.848			

All indicator standardized factor loadings are significant at the 0.01 level; Std. loading = standardized factor loadings; CR = composite reliability; α = Cronbach's alpha; AVE = average variance extracted

In order to have discriminant validity, the AVE of each construct should be greater than the squared correlations between the constructs (Hair et al., 2006). As shown in Table 6, all the AVE values were higher than the squared correlations between two constructs. This indicates that the discriminant validity was supported for the measurement model.

Table 6. Discriminant Validity among the Constructs

Construct	AVE	Squared Correlation								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Customer- Employee Exchange	.653	1								
2. Leader-Member Exchange	.643	.426	1							
3. Coworker Exchange	.659	.368	.334	1						
4. Customer Orientation	.580	.458	.411	.393	1					
5. Organization- Based Self-Esteem	.688	.443	.341	.354	.537	1				
6. Job Satisfaction	.770	.285	.398	.301	.442	.284	1			
7. Role-Prescribed Customer Service	.749	.466	.220	.228	.392	.518	.164	1		
8. Extra-Role Customer Service	.742	.319	.228	.238	.454	.364	.269	.442	1	
9. Cooperation	.746	.334	.223	.389	.370	.442	.196	.413	.454	1

All correlation values are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); AVE = Average Variance Extracted

To detect multicollinearity issues, the variance inflation factor (VIF) values were checked. If the independent variables are highly correlated with each other, there are multicollinearity issues. A multiple regression analysis was performed to calculate the VIF. The VIF values ranged between 1.742 and 2.023. This indicated the data did not have a multicollinearity problem since the values were less than 10 (O'Brien, 2007).

For assessing the common method variance (CMV), Harman's single-factor tests with the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) approach and CFA approach were used since they were the most commonly used methods to examine CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003). At first, a single-factor EFA with an unrotated solution was conducted to check whether a single factor explains the majority (50% or more) of the total variance. As a result, the single factor explained 48% of total variance and thus, the majority of the total variance could not account for any single factor. Second, a common latent factor was added to all measures in the CFA model of this study by assuming that all loadings from the common latent factor were equal. Consequently, the single factor model did not fit well ($df = 739$, $\chi^2 = 6823.679$, $\chi^2/df = 9.234$ ($p < 0.001$), CFI = 0.645, TLI = 0.625, RMSEA = 0.129, and SRMR = 0.115). Therefore, the CMV was not an issue in this study.

Structural Model

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to empirically test the relationships among constructs, including three exogenous variables (customer-employee exchange, leader-member exchange, and coworker exchange) and six endogenous variables (customer orientation, organization-based self-esteem, job satisfaction, role-prescribed customer service, extra-role customer service, and cooperation).

Organizational behavior measures tend to be susceptible to social desirability bias, especially when the data are self-reported (Ma & Qu, 2011; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Testa,

2009). The social desirability bias can happen when an individual feels pressure to answer in a way that makes others view the individual in a more positive manner. It causes spurious correlations and skewed responses (Ganster, Hennessey, & Luthans, 1983). Thus, this study employed a strategy for controlling social desirability by including an instrument to preclude socially desirable responding. This strategy has been applied to exclude the intrusion of variation because of social desirability in data collected on self-report (Paulhus, 1981). In addition, the use of the forced-choice format is considered as the most effective format to exclude social desirability effects (Christie & Geis, 1970). In this study, social desirability was treated as an independent variable affecting the other measured variables at the construct level.

The structural model presented a good level of fit ($df = 712$, $\chi^2 = 2074.786$, $\chi^2/df = 2.914$ ($p < 0.001$), CFI = 0.921, TLI = 0.909, RMSEA = 0.062, and SRMR = 0.074). Among 11 hypotheses, 10 paths were significant at $p < .001$, and one was significant at $p < .01$. The direction of all paths was consistent with the hypothesized relationships.

Table 7 presents the path estimates and their statistical significance.

Table 7. The Structural Path Estimates

Structural Path	Standardized Estimate	t-value
H ₁₋₁ . Customer-employee exchange → customer orientation	0.43	6.96***
H ₁₋₂ . Leader-member exchange → customer orientation	0.32	5.76***
H ₁₋₃ . Coworker exchange → customer orientation	0.23	4.78***
H ₂₋₁ . Customer-employee exchange → organization-based self-esteem	0.48	7.02***
H ₂₋₂ . Leader-member exchange → organization-based self-esteem	0.20	3.27**
H ₂₋₃ . Coworker exchange → organization-based self-esteem	0.21	3.93***
H ₃₋₁ . Customer orientation → job satisfaction	0.73	11.25***
H ₃₋₂ . Organization-based self-esteem → job satisfaction	0.27	6.01***
H ₄₋₁ . Job satisfaction → role-prescribed customer service	0.83	13.68***
H ₄₋₂ . Job satisfaction → extra-role customer service	0.78	13.70***
H ₄₋₃ . Job satisfaction → cooperation	0.78	13.73***

** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

H₁ and H₂ were to test the positive relationships between the interpersonal characteristics of work design and psychological states. First, H₁₋₁, H₁₋₂, and H₁₋₃ postulated the positive effects

of employees' interpersonal relationships with customers, supervisors, and coworkers on employees' customer orientation. The results indicated that employees' exchange relationships with customers, supervisors, and coworkers positively influenced customer orientation. Customer-employee exchange ($\gamma = .43, p < 0.001$), leader-member exchange ($\gamma = .32, p < 0.001$), and coworker exchange ($\gamma = .23, p < 0.001$) all had significant effects on customer orientation. Therefore, H₁₋₁, H₁₋₂, and H₁₋₃ were supported. The more employees have exchange relationships with customers, supervisors, and coworkers at work, the more they tend to be customer oriented. Among three interpersonal relationships, customer-employee exchange exerted the strongest influence on customer orientation. Thus, the exchange relationship with customers turned out to be the major direct determinant of employees' customer orientation.

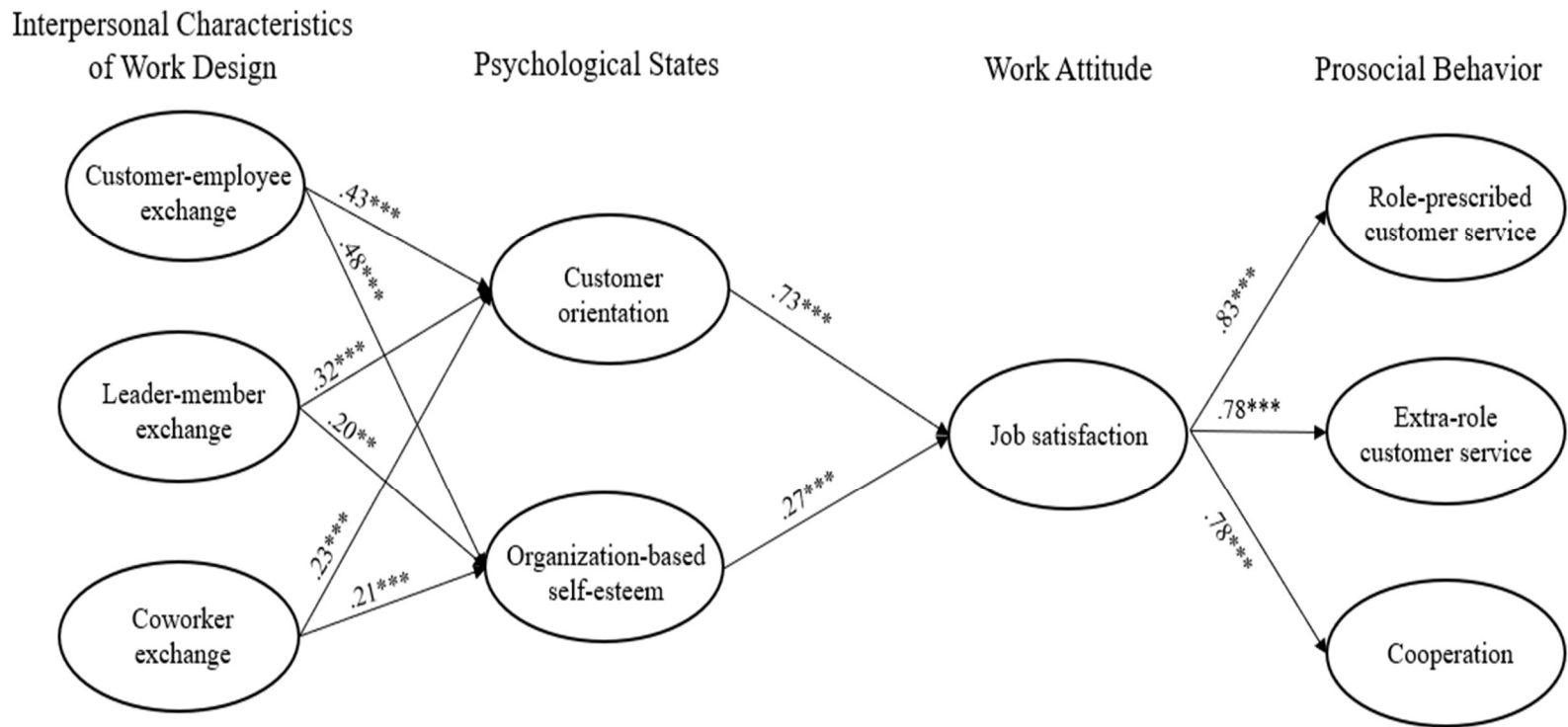
Second, H₂₋₁, H₂₋₂, and H₂₋₃ postulated the positive influences of employees' interpersonal relationships with customers, supervisors, and coworkers on employees' OBSE. The results presented that employees' exchange relationships with customers, supervisors, and coworkers also positively influenced OBSE. Customer-employee exchange ($\gamma = .48, p < 0.001$), leader-member exchange ($\gamma = .20, p < 0.01$), and coworker exchange ($\gamma = .21, p < 0.001$) all had significant effects on OBSE. Therefore, H₂₋₁, H₂₋₂, and H₂₋₃ were supported. When employees have exchange relationships with customers, supervisors, and coworkers at work, they are more likely to believe in their self-worth and competence as members of the organization. Customer-employee exchange had a relatively stronger effect on OBSE. It indicated that the exchange relationship with customers was the most direct predictor to employees' OBSE. According to the results of H₁ and H₂, interpersonal relationships with customers exerted the strongest effect on employees' psychological states, including customer orientation and OBSE.

Third, H₃ was to investigate job satisfaction, which is the positive association between employees' psychological states and their work attitude. More specifically, H₃₋₁ and H₃₋₂ postulated the positive effects of employees' customer orientation and OBSE on job satisfaction. Both customer orientation ($\beta = .73, p < 0.001$) and OBSE ($\beta = .27, p < 0.001$) positively affected

job satisfaction, supporting H₃₋₁ and H₃₋₂. If employees are more customer oriented and have more belief in their competence at work, they tend to be more satisfied with their job. Customer orientation exerted a much stronger effect on job satisfaction than OBSE did. This means that customer orientation was the major determinant of job satisfaction.

Last, H₄ was to test the positive relationship between employees' work attitude and their prosocial behavior at work. H₄₋₁, H₄₋₂, and H₄₋₃ postulated the positive influence of employees' job satisfaction on role-prescribed customer service, extra-role customer service, and cooperation. The results showed that job satisfaction positively influenced role-prescribed customer service ($\beta = .83, p < 0.001$), extra-role customer service ($\beta = .78, p < 0.001$), and cooperation ($\beta = .78, p < 0.001$). Thus, H₄₋₁, H₄₋₂, and H₄₋₃ were supported. If employees are more satisfied with their jobs, they are more willing to not only provide services to customers within and beyond their role requirements but also to cooperate with others in their organization. Job satisfaction exerted a relatively stronger influence on role-prescribed customer service than it did on both extra-role customer service and cooperation. In other words, satisfaction with jobs triggered more of the customer service behaviors described in job descriptions than extra-role customer service or cooperation with coworkers did.

As a result, all hypotheses predicting the direct relationships among constructs were supported. Figure 5 shows the hypothesized model with path estimates.



** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Figure 5. Hypothesized Model with Path Estimates

Competing Model

The competing model strategy is especially relevant in SEM since a model can be presented only to have acceptable fit. Acceptable fit alone cannot guarantee that there are no models that fit better or equally well (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, the competing model strategy is to determine the best fitting model. A nested model means that it contains the same number of variables. It can be formed by altering path relationships such as deleting or adding paths. Competing models could be alternative formulations of the underlying theory (Hair et al., 2006). The chi-square (χ^2) difference test is applied to test the statistical significance of the difference in estimated construct covariances explained by the two structural models.

In this study, the original model was compared with a nested model. Its purpose, based on the JCM, was to investigate the indirect effects of the interpersonal characteristics of work design (customer-employee exchange, leader-member exchange, and coworker exchange) and job satisfaction through psychological states. According to the JCM, psychological states play full mediating roles to link core job characteristics and employees' work outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980).

An alternative model included three additional paths from interpersonal characteristics of work design to job satisfaction that were based on suggestions from previous research (e.g., Bailey, Gremler, & McCollough, 2001; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2009; Sherony & Green, 2002). Empirical research presented that emotional value at the service encounter directly resulted in service employees' job satisfaction (e.g., Bailey, Gremler, & McCollough, 2001). In addition, little empirical research in the psychology and leadership literature showed that both leader-member exchange and coworker exchange directly increased employees' job satisfaction (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2009; Sherony & Green, 2002). Thus, these direct paths from interpersonal characteristics of work design to job satisfaction were added in the alternative model (see Figure 6). The first alternative

model achieved an acceptable fit with the data ($df = 709$, $\chi^2 = 2072.798$, $\chi^2/df = 2.924$ ($p < 0.001$), CFI = 0.921, TLI = 0.908, RMSEA = 0.062, and SRMR = 0.074).

The chi-square (χ^2) difference test was performed to examine the statistical significance of the difference between the two models. If the results of the chi-square (χ^2) difference test show significance, the parsimony and the model fit of the alternative model are better than that of the initial model. Thus, the alternative model would be more desirable.

The results of the chi-square (χ^2) difference test presented that there were insignificant differences between the two models ($\Delta df = 3$, $\Delta \chi^2 = 1.988$, $p = 0.575$). In other words, adding paths did not bring a better fit over the initial model, indicating that the initial model was better and more parsimonious than the alternative model.

The alternative model is presented in Figure 6.

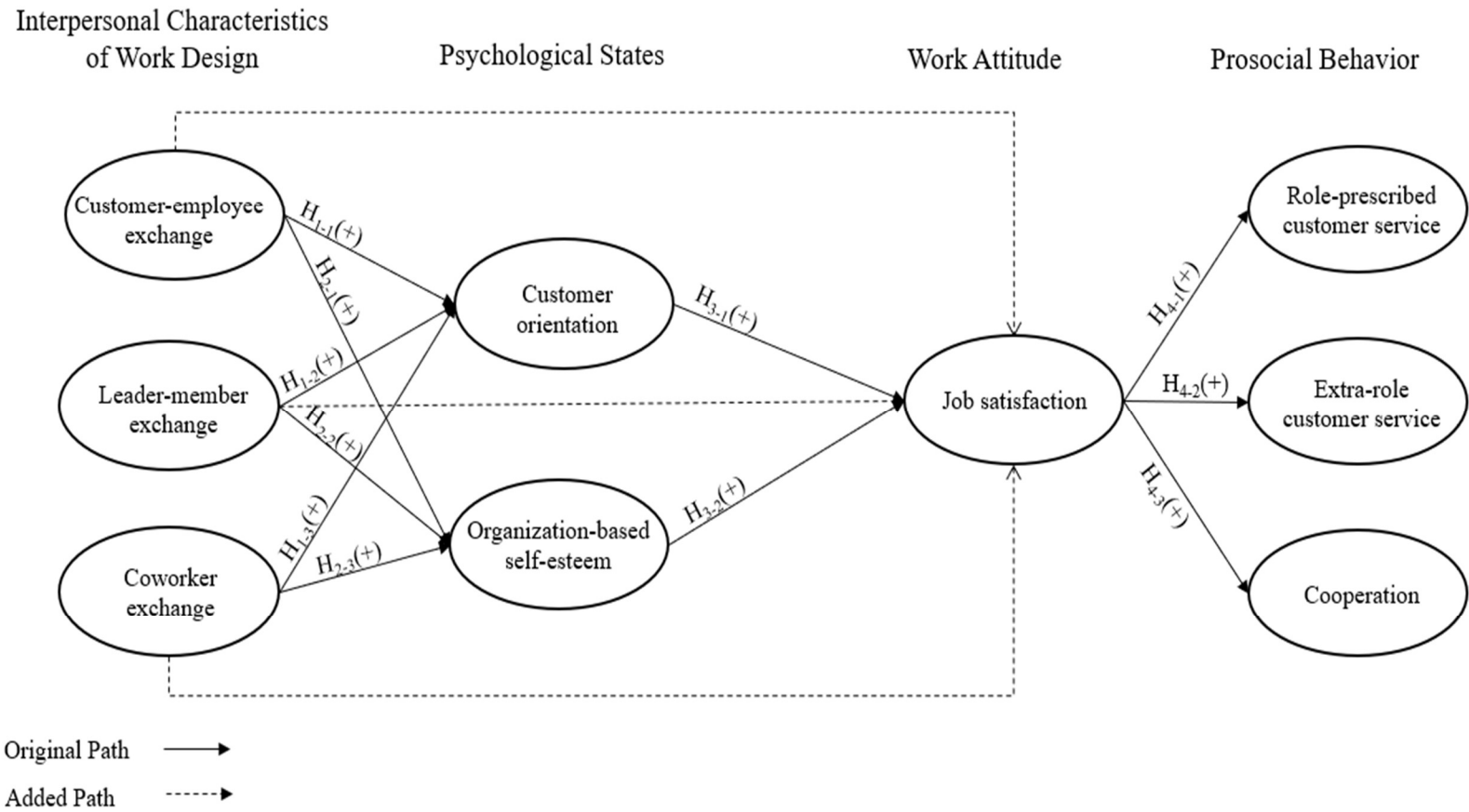


Figure 6. The Alternative Model 1

To test the significance of the indirect effects of interpersonal characteristics of work design on job satisfaction, bootstrapping was employed (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Bootstrapping is a nonparametric approach to effect-size estimation. It makes no assumptions other than that the sample distribution reflects the basic shape of the population distribution (Kline, 2011). Bootstrapping treats the sample as a pseudo-population and is accomplished by randomly selecting a large number of samples, usually the same size as the original, from the data with replacement to generate other data sets (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). This process is repeated at least 1,000 times, and then bootstrapping simulates random sampling with replacement. Afterward, the indirect effect and bootstrapped confidence intervals are computed in each sample (Kline, 2011; Preacher & Hayes, 2004). The upper and lower bounds of a 95% bootstrapped confidence interval correspond to the 97.5% and 2.5%, respectively, in the sorted distribution of 1,000 estimates (Taylor, MacKinnon, & Tein, 2008).

For the bootstrapping, 1,000 bootstrap samples were drawn from the original sample of this study. The indirect effect of customer-employee exchange was estimated to lie between 0.205 and 0.684 with 95% confidence. The indirect effects of LMX and coworker exchange were estimated to lie between 0.047 and 0.456, and between 0.044 and 0.347, respectively.

Table 8 presents the direct, indirect, and total effects of the interpersonal characteristics of work design on job satisfaction. The results showed that the indirect effects of the interpersonal characteristics of work design on job satisfaction were statistically significant.

Table 8. Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of Interpersonal Characteristics of Work Design on Job Satisfaction

	Job satisfaction		
	Direct	Indirect	Total
Customer-employee exchange	0.034 ($p = 0.818$)	0.398**	0.432**
Leader-member exchange	0.040 ($p = 0.519$)	0.250*	0.290*
Coworker exchange	0.059 ($p = 0.381$)	0.184**	0.244**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two tailed)

Based on the findings of empirical research (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Harris et al., 2009), the possibility of the direct effects of the interpersonal characteristics of work design on job satisfaction was suggested. However, the results of the chi-square (χ^2) difference test showed the original model was better than the alternative model. Moreover, there were no significant direct relationships between the interpersonal characteristics of work design and job satisfaction. Consequently, these results support the JCM, suggesting the full mediating roles of psychological states to link core job characteristics to employees' work outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980).

Moderating Effects of Situational Strength

The moderating effects of situational strength on the relationship between psychological states and job satisfaction were tested using a hierarchical multiple regression analysis. If independent and moderator variables are continuous variables, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis can be applied (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 1983). Thus, the moderating effects of two types of situational strength (role clarity and role consistency) on the relationship between two types of psychological states (customer orientation and OBSE) and job satisfaction were tested hierarchical multiple regression analyses. The main effects of the independent variables (customer orientation and OBSE) and the moderators (role clarity and role consistency) were entered first. An interaction term that is the product of the independent variable and the moderator variable was entered in the next step. To minimize the multicollinearity issue, all interaction variables were mean centered (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991). For determining a moderating effect, after the interaction effect was added into the regression, the change of R^2 was checked for statistical significance ($p < .001$) (Cohen et al., 1983).

Moderating Effect of Role Clarity

H₅₋₁ and H₅₋₂ proposed the moderating effect of role clarity on the relationships between psychological states (customer orientation and OBSE) and job satisfaction. For testing the moderating effect of role clarity on the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction, customer orientation and role clarity were entered into the model first. In the next step, the interaction term was added into the model. To measure the moderating effect of role clarity on the relationship between OBSE and job satisfaction, OBSE and role clarity were entered into the model first, and then the interaction term was added into the model. To test the multicollinearity issues between independent variables, the variance inflation factor (VIF) was used. If VIF values are greater than 10, it can be assumed that there is multicollinearity (Pedhazur, 1982). All VIF values were below 10, indicating multicollinearity is not an issue. Table 9 shows the summary of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses of role clarity.

Table 9. Moderating Effect of Role Clarity

Model	Variable Entered	ΔF	B	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	R ²	R ² _{adj.}	ΔR ²	VIF
1	Constant	209.889***	-0.007		-0.026	0.458	0.456	0.458	
	CO		0.762	0.581	14.649***				1.441
	RCL		0.178	0.152	3.829***				1.441
2	Constant	4.487*	-0.174		-0.627	0.463	0.460	0.005	
	CO		0.773	0.590	14.840***				1.456
	RCL		0.189	0.162	4.063***				1.461
	CO * RCL		0.079	0.072	2.118*				1.055
1	Constant	123.045***	0.233		0.708	0.332	0.329	0.332	
	OBSE		0.557	0.391	8.934***				1.420
	RCL		0.305	0.261	5.966***				1.420
2	Constant	4.779*	-0.029		-0.084	0.338	0.334	0.006	
	OBSE		0.595	0.417	9.226***				1.529
	RCL		0.303	0.259	5.943***				1.420
	OBSE *		0.108	0.084	2.186*				1.102
	RCL								

CO = Customer Orientation; RCL = Role Clarity; OBSE = Organization-Based Self-Esteem; VIF = Variance Inflation Factor; **p* < .05; ***p* < .01; ****p* < .001

The results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses showed that the moderating effect of role clarity was significant for all two-path relationships. The interaction term, the product of

customer orientation and role clarity, positively impacted job satisfaction ($\beta = .072, p < 0.05$). In addition, the interaction term, the product of OBSE and role clarity, also positively influenced job satisfaction ($\beta = .084, p < 0.05$). It indicated that between a situation with high-role clarity and a situation with low-role clarity, not only is the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction significantly different but so is the relationship between OBSE and job satisfaction. Thus, H₅₋₁ and H₅₋₂ were supported. The moderating effect of role clarity is presented graphically in Figure 7 and Figure 8 to show the pattern of interaction effects.

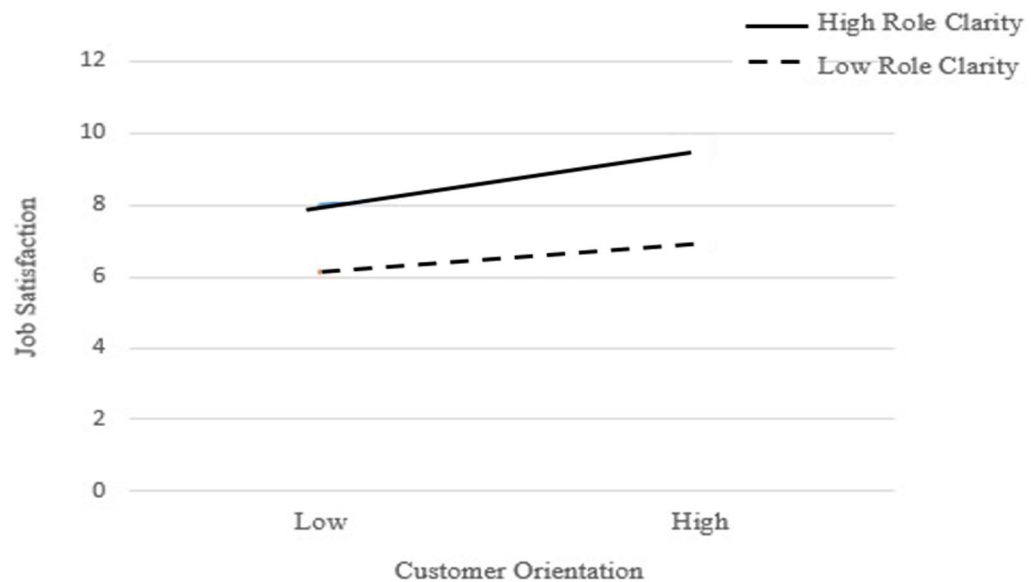


Figure 7. Interaction Effect of Customer Orientation and Role Clarity on Job Satisfaction

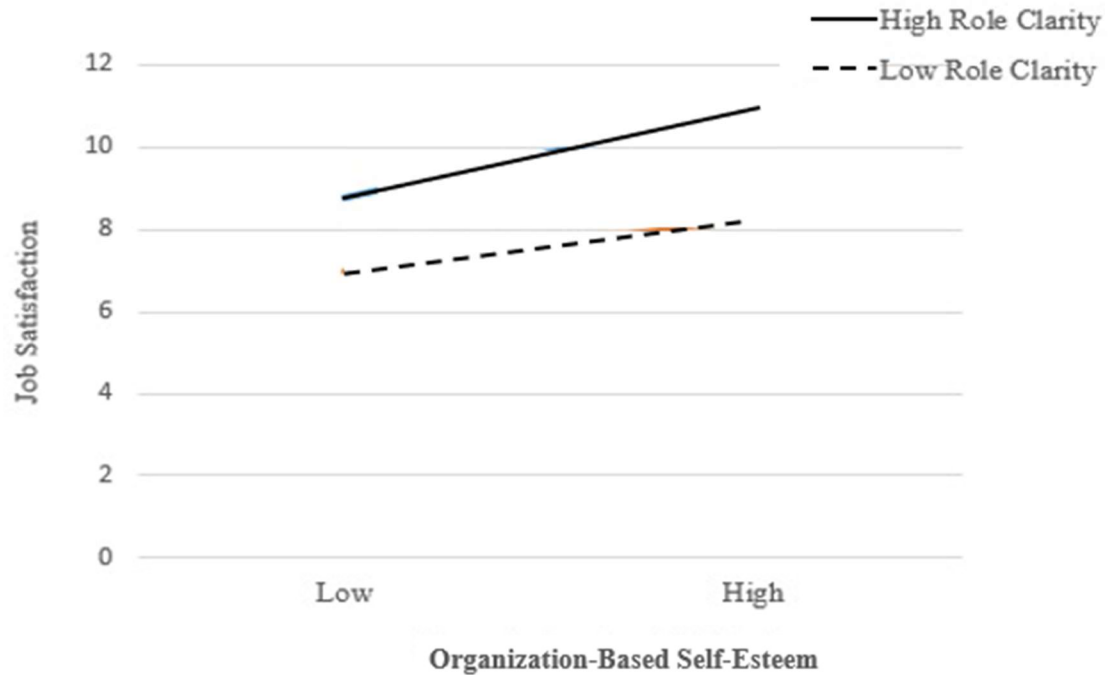


Figure 8. Interaction Effect of Organization-Based Self-Esteem and Role Clarity on Job Satisfaction

Simple slopes in Figure 7 and Figure 8 show the moderating effect of role clarity on the relationships not only between customer orientation and job satisfaction but also between OBSE and job satisfaction. More specifically, both customer orientation and OBSE were more strongly associated with job satisfaction when a situation with high-role clarity was presented.

Moderating Effect of Role Consistency

H₆₋₁ and H₆₋₂ proposed the moderating effect of role consistency on the relationships between psychological states (customer orientation and OBSE) and job satisfaction. To test the moderating effect of role consistency on the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction, customer orientation and role consistency were entered into the model first. In the next step, the interaction term was added into the model. For measuring the moderating effect of

role consistency on the relationship between OBSE and job satisfaction, OBSE and role consistency were entered into the model first, and then the interaction term was added into the model. All VIF values were below 10, indicating no multicollinearity issues. Table 10 shows the summary of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses of role consistency.

Table 10. Moderating Effect of Role Consistency

Model	Variable Entered	ΔF	B	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	R ²	R ² _{adj.}	ΔR^2	VIF
1	Constant	228.743***	-0.059		-0.233	0.480	0.478	0.480	
	CO		0.742	0.565	15.521***				1.265
	RCO		0.220	0.218	5.974***				1.265
2	Constant	0.910 (<i>p</i> = .341)	-0.111		-0.428	0.481	0.478	0.001	
	CO		0.749	0.571	15.459***				1.302
	RCO		0.219	0.216	5.937***				1.267
	CO * RCO		0.031	0.031	0.954 (<i>p</i> = .341)				1.031
1	Constant	133.286***	0.341		1.071	0.350	0.347	0.350	
	OBSE		0.565	0.396	9.662***				1.282
	RCO		0.294	0.291	7.089***				1.282
2	Constant	4.821*	0.123		0.369	0.356	0.352	0.006	
	OBSE		0.606	0.425	9.907***				1.413
	RCO		0.281	0.278	6.727***				1.309
	OBSE *		0.097	0.083	2.196*				1.102
	RCO								

CO = Customer Orientation; RCO = Role Consistency; OBSE = Organization-Based Self-Esteem; VIF = Variance Inflation Factor; **p* < .05; ***p* < .01; ****p* < .001

The results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses showed that the interaction term, the product of customer orientation and role consistency, did not significantly influence job satisfaction ($\beta = .031, p = 0.341$). On the other hand, the interaction term, the product of OBSE and role consistency, positively impacted job satisfaction ($\beta = .083, p < 0.05$). In other words, the moderating effect of role consistency was significant for the path relationship between OBSE and job satisfaction. However, role consistency did not moderate the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction. It meant that the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction was not significantly different between a situation with high role consistency and a situation with low role consistency. On the other hand, the relationship between OBSE and job

satisfaction was significantly different between a high role-consistency situation and a low role-consistency situation. As a result, H_{6-1} was not supported whereas H_{6-2} was. The significant moderating effect of role consistency is presented graphically in Figure 9 to show the pattern of interaction effects.

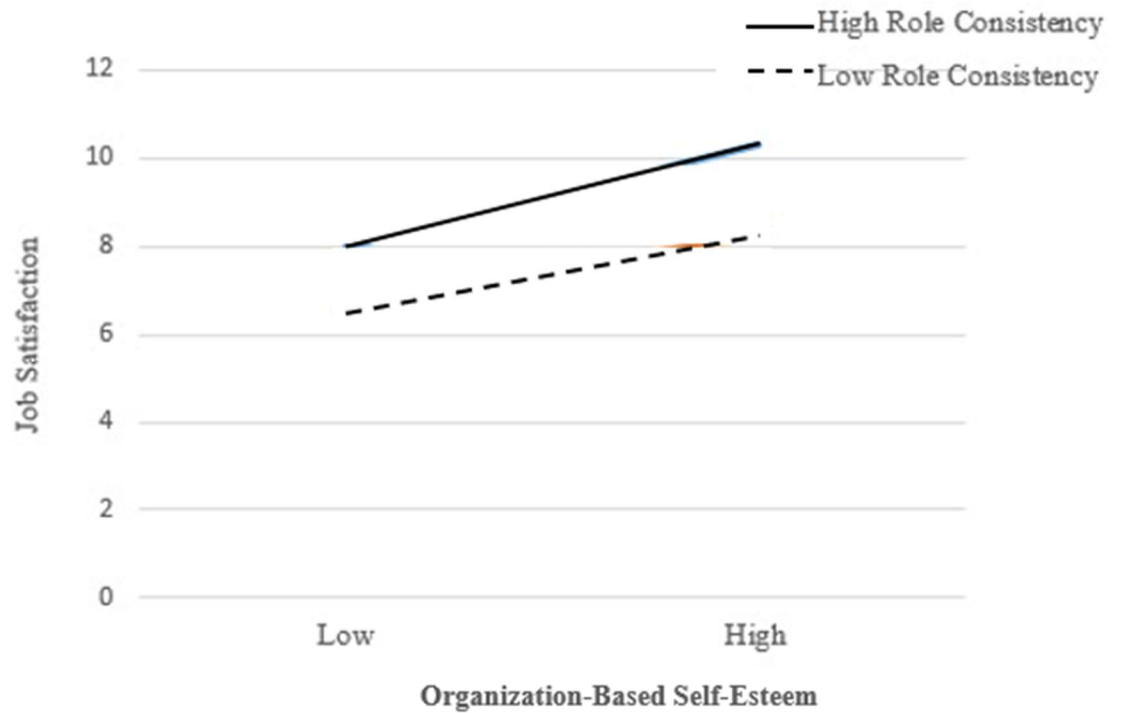


Figure 9. Interaction Effect of Organization-Based Self-Esteem and Role Consistency on Job Satisfaction

Simple slopes in Figure 9 present the moderating effect of role consistency on the relationship between OBSE and job satisfaction. OBSE was more strongly related to job satisfaction when a situation with high role consistency was provided.

Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

This study tested a total of fifteen hypotheses, and the results of SEM presented all hypotheses predicting the direct path relations among constructs were empirically supported. Moreover, the moderating effects of situational strength (role clarity and role consistency) on the relationship between psychological states (customer orientation and OBSE) and job satisfaction were tested by applying hierarchical multiple regression analyses. The results showed that there were moderating effects of both role clarity and role consistency between psychological states and job satisfaction, except for the moderating effect of role consistency between customer orientation and job satisfaction. The results of the hypotheses tests are summarized in Table 11. A further detailed discussion with both theoretical and practical implications of these results are presented in the next chapter.

Table 11. Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

Structural Path	Results
H ₁₋₁ . Customer-employee exchange → customer orientation	Supported***
H ₁₋₂ . Leader-member exchange → customer orientation	Supported***
H ₁₋₃ . Coworker exchange → customer orientation	Supported***
H ₂₋₁ . Customer-employee exchange → organization-based self-esteem	Supported***
H ₂₋₂ . Leader-member exchange → organization-based self-esteem	Supported**
H ₂₋₃ . Coworker exchange → organization-based self-esteem	Supported***
H ₃₋₁ . Customer orientation → job satisfaction	Supported***
H ₃₋₂ . Organization-based self-esteem → job satisfaction	Supported***
H ₄₋₁ . Job satisfaction → role-prescribed customer service	Supported***
H ₄₋₂ . Job satisfaction → extra-role customer service	Supported***
H ₄₋₃ . Job satisfaction → cooperation	Supported***
Moderating Effect	
H ₅₋₁ . Role clarity moderating customer orientation → job satisfaction	Supported*
H ₅₋₂ . Role clarity moderating organization-based self-esteem → job satisfaction	Supported*
H ₆₋₁ . Role consistency moderating customer orientation → job satisfaction	Not Supported
H ₆₋₂ . Role consistency moderating organization-based self-esteem → job satisfaction	Supported*

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Summary of Findings

The purpose of this study was to establish and empirically test a model describing the psychological mechanisms underlying employees' social exchange relationships in the workplace by applying both interpersonal characteristics and the job characteristics model (JCM). This study specifically aimed to extend the JCM by investigating not only the effects of interpersonal relationships with customers, supervisors, and coworkers on psychological states (customer orientation and organization-based self-esteem (OBSE)) but also the moderating effects of situational strength between psychological states and job satisfaction. In addition, this study aimed to contribute to the JCM by proposing a new theoretical perspective focused on the social components based on the social exchange theory. At the same time, this study sought to provide practical suggestions and implications for practitioners in the hospitality industry. This chapter summarizes the findings of the study and discusses the implications of the study. It also presents limitations of the study and suggests possible future research directions.

Interpersonal Characteristics of Work Design and Psychological States

The results of this study proved the significance of the interpersonal characteristics of work design as critical aspects of work to increase employees' psychological states, eventually triggering positive work attitudes and behaviors. It supported previous research that highlighted the importance of social interaction and interpersonal relationships in work design (e.g., Grant & Parker, 2009; Humphrey et al., 2007). Given that employees can have interpersonal relationships with three groups of people, customers, supervisors, and coworkers, in the hospitality setting, this study investigated three distinct social exchange relationships in the workplace.

The results of H₁₋₁, H₁₋₂, and H₁₋₃ presented that the interpersonal characteristics of work design, including customer-employee exchange, leader-member exchange, and coworker exchange, had positive influences on customer orientation. The positive influence of customer-employee exchange on customer orientation is consistent with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), positing that social exchange triggers feelings of gratitude and trust. Customers' polite attitudes and appreciation to employees for their service at the service encounter might arouse employees' feelings of gratitude and levels of trust in customers. At the same time, as the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001) posits, this positive emotion prompted the employees to gain capabilities to satisfy customer needs by discovering new thoughts or actions. Thus, the employees were more likely to enjoy serving customers and to try to satisfy them. This study also showed the positive influences of employees' interaction within the organization, including supervisors and coworkers, on customer orientation. The more employees experienced positive interactions with supervisors and coworkers, the higher the level of customer orientation they had. This result is in line with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). When employees experienced favorable interactions with their supervisors and coworkers, they were able to have a sense of obligation to reciprocate those favorable treatments toward the supervisor and the organization the supervisors and coworkers represented. Thus, as a few empirical research studies

proposed (e.g., Martin & Bush, 2003; Tsai et al., 2007), employees tended to be willing to view customers favorably and be customer oriented.

H₂₋₁, H₂₋₂, and H₂₋₃ predicted the positive influences of the interpersonal characteristics of work design, such as customer-employee exchange, leader-member exchange, and coworker exchange, on OBSE. Based on the results of this study, all three hypotheses were supported. As previous research stated (e.g., Pierce & Gardner, 2004; Pierce et al., 1989), OBSE was enhanced by environmental conditions since employees received cues about their values and competence from the environment. More specifically, in high customer-employee exchange relationships, customers could send positive messages, which might act as emotional support to employees. As the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) posited, these positive experiences helped employees believe in their self-worth and competence. As previous research presented (Heck et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2013), high exchange relationships with leaders increased employees' competence as members of the organization. This might be because that interaction with a leader enabled employees to recognize their values to the organization and conveyed to employees that they were competent. In addition to the interactions with a leader, exchange relationships with coworkers also enhanced employees' OBSE. This result supported previous studies' arguments that coworkers act as important others for employees due to the physical and psychological closeness (e.g., Turner et al., 2012).

Interestingly, among interpersonal exchange relationships with customers, supervisors, and coworkers, interaction with customers exerted the most influence on employees' psychological states such as customer orientation and OBSE. This indicated that social exchange with each group of people aroused a different magnitude of emotional results. More specifically, feelings of gratitude arousing from the positive interactions with customers had the strongest effect on employees' customer orientation. In addition, the interactions with customers were also the most influential in making employees believe themselves to have competence and value. Thus, among all of the interactions with customers, supervisors, and coworkers, customer

interaction proved to be the greatest influence on employees' psychological states in the service encounter.

Psychological States and Job Satisfaction

The results of H₃₋₁ and H₃₋₂ presented the significantly positive relationship between psychological states and job satisfaction. If employees had higher levels of customer orientation, they were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. This result agrees with previous research that proposes the effect of the P-J fit on job satisfaction (e.g., Pettijohn et al., 2002). Customer oriented employees were inclined to enjoy their work of serving customers and thus had a better fit within the service setting. This better fit resulted in more satisfaction with their jobs. In addition, employees with higher levels of OBSE showed more job satisfaction. This result is congruent with the self-consistency theory (Korman, 1970), which posits that people are motivated to keep a level of their self-esteem. Employees with a high level of self-esteem showed a high level of job satisfaction to maintain their self-perceptions. The influence of customer orientation was a lot greater than the effect of OBSE on job satisfaction. It indicated that, in the hospitality industry, when employees were predisposed to enjoy serving customers, they were much more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than in the situation where they had a high level of self-esteem.

Consequently, the results of H₁, H₂, and H₃ showed the mechanism underlying the relationship between the interpersonal characteristics of work design and job satisfaction, which was based on the JCM (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) and the social exchange theory. At the same time, as previous researchers proposed (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a), the results of this study presented the role of employees' personal resources to explain how individuals perceive and react differently to their jobs. This study proved that customer orientation and OBSE played significant roles as both psychological states and personal resources that linked the interpersonal characteristics of work design and job satisfaction in the hospitality industry. Moreover, the

indirect effects of the interpersonal characteristics of work design on job satisfaction through the effects of psychological states were statistically significant. Therefore, it showed how individual employees' exchange relationships with customers, supervisors, and coworkers aroused satisfaction with their jobs.

Job Satisfaction and Prosocial Behavior

The positive effect of job satisfaction on employees' prosocial behaviors was proved by testing H₄₋₁, H₄₋₂, and H₄₋₃. Once employees were satisfied with their jobs, they were more likely to exhibit prosocial behaviors. As the affective events theory (AET) posits (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), the results of this study showed that employees' affective reactions to the work caused affect-driven behaviors. More specifically, employees' job satisfaction played an important role to trigger their prosocial behaviors, including role-prescribed customer service, extra-role customer service, and cooperation with others. In other words, when employees are more satisfied with their jobs, they are more likely to provide services to customers both in organizationally consistent ways and beyond role requirements. At the same time, they are more willing to cooperate with other members of their organization. The significant influence of job satisfaction is consistent with not only the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), positing that individuals evaluating an object favorably are more likely to be involved in behaviors supporting it, but also with a few empirical research studies (e.g., Lee et al., 2006; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Scott et al., 2003). According to the results of this study, employees who are satisfied with their jobs exhibit relatively more service behaviors described on their job descriptions than service behaviors going beyond the formal role requirement or cooperation with other members of their organization.

Moderating Effects of Situational Strength

The results of H₅ and H₆ presented the moderating effects of situational strength, role clarity and role consistency on the relationship between psychological states and job satisfaction.

It presented that employees' work attitudes could be considered as a function of both individuals' dispositional and situational factors. Thus, as both the role theory (Nadler & Tushman, 1980; O'Reilly et al., 1991) and previous research demonstrated (Smith et al., 2011), the effect of dispositional factors on employees' work attitudes was dependent on situational factors. In addition, this study showed that role clarity and role consistency are fundamental situational factors to moderate the relationship between psychological states and job satisfaction in the hospitality industry.

Role clarity significantly moderated not only the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction but also the relationship between OBSE and job satisfaction. In a situation where responsibilities or requirements of work were more available and easier to understand, employees who were more customer oriented and had a higher level of OBSE were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs than they were in a situation where responsibilities or requirements were less available and ambiguous. These significant joint effects of role clarity and personal factors on job satisfaction were in line with the findings of previous research (Lyons, 1971).

The results of this study partially supported the moderating effect of role consistency. The moderating effect of role consistency on the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction was not statistically significant whereas it was significant on the relationship between OBSE and job satisfaction. Regardless of the level of role consistency, employees who were more customer oriented showed more job satisfaction than those who were less customer oriented. This result is inconsistent with previous researchers' arguments that in order to comprehensively understand employees' work attitudes, both personal dispositional factors and situational factors should be investigated (e.g., Gerhart & Fang, 2005; Parker et al., 2003). One possible explanation for the insignificant moderating effect of role consistency on the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction is due to the attribute of customer orientation in the hospitality context. In the hospitality industry, customer-oriented employees tend to view the

work environment and people around them with a customer focus (Kim et al., 2005). A strong predisposition to enjoy serving customers as a personal resource of service employees gives employees the ability to sense what needs to be done in potential role conflicts with customers, coworkers, or supervisors in the workplace (Babakus et al., 2009). Therefore, the positive relationship between employees' customer orientation and job satisfaction was not significantly affected by the level of role consistency.

On the other hand, the level of role consistency significantly influenced the positive relationship between OBSE and job satisfaction. When work-related responsibilities or requirements were compatible with each other, employees with a higher level of OBSE had a higher level of job satisfaction than they had when responsibilities or requirements were in conflict with each other. This result supported previous researchers' arguments that in order to understand work attitude, the joint effect of personal difference and the level of role consistency should be assessed (Gregson & Wendell, 1994).

Theoretical Implications

This study proposed and measured the psychological mechanisms of employees' social exchange relationships in the workplace by adapting the JCM (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) and the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). By investigating the effects of interpersonal relationships with three groups of people, customers, supervisors, and coworkers, this study provided enhanced insight into how exchange relationships triggered employees' positive work attitudes and prosocial behaviors.

First, this study extended the JCM by incorporating the interpersonal characteristics of work design as new core dimensions of work. More specifically, this study incorporates the interpersonal characteristics of work design as antecedents of employees' psychological states. Even though interpersonal and interdependent characteristics are distinct and significant

components of work (Grant, 2007; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006), they have been excluded from the main stream of work design theories (Grant & Parker, 2009). The hospitality industry, especially, is a people industry, which means the job requires customer contact as an employees' core job responsibility (Kim et al., 2007). Thus, based on the social exchange theory, customers' responses and attitudes in the service encounters as well as those of supervisors and coworkers could influence employees' perceptions and attitudes (Blau, 1964; Ma & Qu, 2011). The significance of interpersonal relationships with people at work in enabling employees to perceive their jobs as meaningful and important, especially in the hospitality context, has been proposed in previous research (e.g., Ozturk et al., 2014; Susskind et al., 2007; Tutuncu & Kozak, 2007). Thus, this study investigated the interpersonal characteristics of work design and conceptualized three types of interpersonal relationships in the hospitality setting based on the target group. These types of interpersonal relationships are customer-employee exchange, leader-member exchange, coworker exchange. According to the JCM, the relationship between the core dimensions of work and employees' work outcomes is mediated by psychological states. Thus, this study incorporated customer orientation and OBSE as psychological states. Based on the JCM, this study tested and presented that interpersonal relationships with customers, supervisors, and coworkers significantly increased employees' psychological states such as customer orientation and OBSE. More importantly, this study presented the relative importance of each exchange relationship by assessing three distinctive exchange relationships simultaneously. The exchange relationship with customers exerted the strongest influence on psychological states. This result showed that the customer-employee exchange at the service encounter was the most influential interpersonal relationship to trigger positive psychological states from employees in the hospitality industry.

Second, this study contributed to the JCM by measuring the moderating effect of situational strength on the relationship between psychological states and work attitude. The JCM proposed only the moderating boundary conditions of individual differences. However, it was suggested that to understand employees' work attitudes comprehensively, the joint effect of

individual and situational factors should be considered (Cohrs et al., 2006; Gerhart & Fang, 2005). According to previous research (e.g., Meyer et al., 2010), situational strength, including role clarity and role consistency, was the most important situational variable. This study presented the significant moderating effects of role clarity and role consistency on the relationship between psychological states and job satisfaction. Thus, the results of this study presented that the interaction of situational and individual factors showed a better understanding and prediction of employees' work attitudes. However, this study found that role consistency did not significantly moderate the association between customer orientation and job satisfaction. The insignificant result suggested that in the hospitality industry, employees who are more customer oriented tend to be satisfied with their jobs more, regardless of the level of role consistency.

Lastly, this study contributed to the JCM by incorporating social outcomes, for example, role-prescribed customer service, extra-role customer service, and cooperation as outcomes of employees' job satisfaction. According to the results of this study, employees' job satisfaction links psychological states and their prosocial behaviors. Therefore, this study showed how employees' interpersonal relationships with others eventually trigger their proactive work behaviors in the workplace through the effects of psychological states and job satisfaction. Previous research suggested that social dimensions, for example, social support and initiated interdependence, contributed to employee well-being, job performance, satisfaction, and turnover intention (Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). However, researchers have not studied the effects of social dimensions on outcomes associated with social components. The interpersonal characteristics of work design were the main focus of this study as they become new "core" dimensions of work. According to the study of Oldham and Hackman (2010), who developed the JCM, if research focuses on outcomes related to social components, the social dimensions of work need to take on the status of core characteristics. Moreover, this approach gives rise to a new theoretical perspective that is distinct from other existing frameworks (Oldham & Hackman, 2010; Parker et al., 2001).

Practical Implications

The results of this study can be used by practitioners in the hospitality industry to better understand the psychological mechanisms underlying employees' social exchange in the workplace. The findings propose that employees' social exchanges with people at work (customers, supervisors, and coworkers) trigger their positive psychological states. In addition, these psychological states as personal resources in the workplace lead to satisfaction with their jobs, and thus they exhibit more prosocial customer service behaviors. Moreover, when they perceive a high level of role clarity and role consistency, the triggering effects of psychological states on job satisfaction are strengthened. From these findings, the managerial implications are summarized.

First, organizations are recommended to facilitate employees' interpersonal communication with customers. The importance of positive interactions between customers and employees at the service encounter has been highlighted because it triggers customer satisfaction and eventually benefits hospitality businesses. The findings of this study also bring attention to the customer and employee interactions since it significantly increases employees' psychological states. Consequently, it is important to aid customers in having positive emotions and attitudes toward employees at the service encounter so that they can have positive exchange relationships with employees. Organizations could provide education programs and workshops for employees to enhance their service quality and thus increase customer satisfaction. At the same time, it is recommended that managers utilize various channels and tools for customers to have more opportunities to express their appreciation and satisfaction with the service they receive and the employees providing the service to them. Preparing a customer comment card and utilizing a social media platform for collecting customers' comments and feedback could be ways for employees to perceive that both they and their service are appreciated by customers. It is also recommended for organizations to have enough number of employees at work to serve customers.

It can give more time for each employee to focus on taking care of their customers and have more interactions with them. As a result, it will benefit the business by increasing customer satisfaction.

Second, organizations need to promote employees' interpersonal relationships with people: supervisors and coworkers within the organization. In order to have more and better relationships with supervisors, employees could have regular meetings with supervisors to communicate with them. Regular performance appraisals, such as twice a year or more, could be a way to give employees feedback on a regular basis. The implementation of an open-door policy is also encouraged to show supervisors' openness and transparency with employees. This might help employees feel comfortable asking questions and discussing personal issues with their supervisors. At the same time, organizations need to provide employees more opportunities to interact with coworkers so that they can have camaraderie in the workplace. Creating a teamwork environment is fundamental to encourage employees to work together harmoniously. The buddy system, for example, enables employees to work together and help each other. As unofficial supports, managers could hold social functions or events, such as outings for employees, to give them more opportunities to socialize with each other. These strategies eventually can encourage employees to engage in more prosocial behaviors at work such as cooperation with coworkers to provide better service to customers.

Third, employees' satisfaction with their jobs is suggested as a necessary factor to help them provide exceptional service to customers. According to the findings of this study, employees who are customer oriented and have a high level of OBSE tend to be more satisfied with their jobs. In addition to the efforts to increase employees' interpersonal relationships with people at work, organizations need to implement interventions to improve employees' customer orientation and OBSE since personality trait could be improved by proper intervention (Babakus et al., 2009). As an example, creating an organizational culture that encourages and values customer service helps employees to increase the level of customer orientation by enjoying

serving customers and providing quality service to them. In addition, managers could give employees empowerment to handle customers' various needs at the service encounter in a timely manner. It is also recommended that managers implement employee recognition programs to recognize and reward employees' works and contributions so that employees can perceive their values in their organization. These organizational interventions can increase employees' satisfaction with their jobs and, ultimately encourage employees' prosocial behaviors toward customers at work within or beyond their role requirements.

Last, managers need to provide not only clear but also consistent work responsibilities and requirements to employees. Their work responsibilities on job descriptions should be clearly described and easy to be understood. Managers also need to communicate their expectations at work to their employees. In addition, work responsibilities and expectations from employees need to be consistent. Communicating and sharing information with each other in the organization are keys to prevent role conflict. Establishing a strong culture could act as the glue that holds an organization together; this could give employees a sense of purpose because there are shared values and beliefs among employees within a strong culture. Developing a strong service culture that supports customer service through policies and procedures might encourage employees to have positive attitudes toward customers and reduce employees' perceived role conflicts between what customers expect and what the organization expects from them.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

There are a few limitations that suggest potential avenues for future research. First, a generalization of the findings of this study should be done cautiously for two reasons. This study used a self-selected convenience sampling method to collect data. Thus, the study could have a biased sample with a nonprobability sampling. Those who were willing to participate could have different perceptions and characteristics from those who were not willing to participate. In

addition, the online survey approach might create another concern in terms of generalization because only employees with internet access and MTurk accounts were invited. This may raise a question about whether this data set could represent general restaurant employees in the United States. Thus, it would be beneficial for future research to use more comprehensive databases representing general restaurant employees or to conduct a survey in restaurants so that the findings of the research can be generalized.

Second, the data was obtained from a Western cultural population. Employees' perceptions of their jobs could be affected by their culture. Employees working in Western countries could have different perspectives on their jobs from those in Asian countries (e.g., Korea) where strong interpersonal bonds exist within an organization (Yoon and Lim, 1999). Thus, the magnitude of the effects of the interpersonal relationships in each group of people at work on employees' work attitudes and behaviors could be different from what this study found. Therefore, interesting findings would be presented by applying the model in different cultural contexts and by conducting a comparison study (i.e., Western culture versus Eastern culture).

Third, this study only conducted the analyses based on self-reported data. Future research could obtain data from experimental research to strengthen the casual interpretation of employees' social exchange in the workplace.

Fourth, employees' experiences and perceptions at work could vary depending on their organizational level: non-supervisory versus supervisory (Kim et al., 2009). Supervisory employees, for example, could have better social relationships with customers at work since they have more resources to fulfill diverse requests from customers (Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). Thus, conducting multi-level study based on the organizational level could present interesting findings.

Fifth, this study applied a quantitative cross-sectional survey approach to collect the data. To have an in-depth understanding in the psychological mechanisms underlying employees' social exchange in the workplace, a qualitative research design using personal and group interviews or field observation could be employed in future research. It is also recommended for

future research to use a mixed method research design or to employ a multi-wave longitudinal research approach to control factors that fluctuate over time.

Last, this study focused on presenting how social job dimensions contribute to employees' social outcomes, such as prosocial behaviors, while previous research showed the contribution of motivational job dimensions to employees' work outcomes such as job satisfaction and commitment (e.g., Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). According to the findings of this current study, employees' job satisfaction boosts their prosocial behaviors. Thus, the social job dimensions as well as the motivational job dimensions can lead to employees' social outcomes by increasing their job satisfaction. Therefore, it is recommended for future research on job design to investigate how the social and motivational characteristics of jobs, in interaction and separately, influence employees' work behaviors.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SURVEY PERMISSION LETTER

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date: Tuesday, March 28, 2017
IRB Application No HE1723
Proposal Title: AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF INTERPERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS
AND PSYCHOLOGICAL STATES TOWARD EMPLOYEES' WORK
OUTCOMES
Reviewed and Exempt
Processed as:

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 3/27/2020

Principal Investigator(s):
Haemi Kim Hailin Qu
148 HES
Stillwater, OK 74078 Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

- 1Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval. Protocol modifications requiring approval may include changes to the title, PI advisor, funding status or sponsor, subject population composition or size, recruitment, inclusion/exclusion criteria, research site, research procedures and consent/assent process or forms.
- 2Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
- 3Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of the research; and
- 4Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Dawnett Watkins 219 Scott Hall (phone: 405-744-5700, dawnett.watkins@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,



Hugh Crethar, Chair
Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX B

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Screening Question: Do you have **regular customer interaction** at a restaurant?

_____ **If yes, please continue the survey.**

Please explain what kind of customer interaction you have at a restaurant.

Which types of restaurant are you working at now?

1) Family or casual restaurant (e.g., Applebee's, Outback Steakhouse, Olive Garden, and Chili's,)

2) Fine dining or upscale restaurant (e.g., Ruth's Chris Steak House, The Capital Grill, and Morton's The Steakhouse)

_____ **If no, thank you. You may exit the survey.**

Section 1. Please indicate the level of your agreement with the following statements **regarding your feelings and perceptions of the working environment.**

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
Most of my customers are polite to me.							
I feel my services are appreciated by my customers.							
I feel my customers are satisfied with the services provided by me.							
I feel my customers are happy to dine in my restaurant.							

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
My supervisor understands the challenges associated with my position.							
My supervisor knows my potential.							
My supervisor would protect me if needed.							
I have a good working relationship with my supervisor.							
I know how satisfied my supervisor is with my performance.							

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
My coworkers will help me when needed.							
My coworkers care about my well-being.							
My coworkers are willing to assist me to perform better.							
My coworkers care about my opinions.							
My coworkers will compliment my accomplishments at work.							

Section 2. Please indicate the level of your agreement with the following statements regarding your values and feelings about the working environment.

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
I enjoy remembering my customers' names.							
I enjoy responding quickly to my customers' requests.							
I really enjoy serving my customers.							
I achieve my own goals by satisfying customers.							
I get customers to talk about their service needs with me.							
I am able to answer customer's questions correctly.							

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
I am a valuable part of my restaurant.							
I am an efficient worker in my restaurant.							
I am an important part of my restaurant.							
I am cooperative in my restaurant.							

Section 3. Please indicate the level of your agreement with the following statements regarding your attitude about your work.

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
I am satisfied with my present job.							
I am enthusiastic about my job.							
I consider my job to be pleasant.							
I find real enjoyment in my job.							

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
I feel a strong sense of belonging to my restaurant.							
I feel personally attached to my restaurant.							
Working at my restaurant has a great deal of personal meaning to me.							
I really feel that problems faced by my restaurant are also my problems.							

Section 4. Please indicate the level of your agreement with the following statements regarding your work behaviors.

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond my job requirements.							
I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required in my job.							
I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.							
I willingly go out of my way to make customers satisfied.							
I frequently go out the way to help customers.							
I perform all the tasks for customers that are required of me.							
I meet formal performance requirements when serving customers.							
I fulfill responsibilities to customers as specified in the job description.							
I adequately complete all expected customer-service behaviors.							
I help other employees who have heavy workloads.							
I am always ready to lend a helping hand to the employees around me.							
I voluntarily give my time to help other employees.							
I willingly help others who have work-related problems.							

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
I often think of quitting.							
I am looking for a new job next year, probably.							
I am leaving the job next year.							

Section 5. Please indicate the level of your agreement with the following statements regarding your perception and experiences at work.

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
Specific information about my work-related responsibilities is provided.							
Easy-to-understand information is provided about my work requirements.							
Precise information is provided about how to properly do my job.							
I am told exactly what is expected from me at work.							
Different sources of work information are always consistent with each other.							
All requirements are compatible with each other.							
Supervisor instructions match the restaurant's policies.							
Information provided is generally the same, no matter who provides it.							
I am prevented from making my own decisions.							
Constraints prevent me from doing things in my own way.							
I am prevented from choosing how to do things.							
Procedures prevent me from working in my own way.							
Sometimes my decisions have important consequences for other people.							
Sometimes my errors cause serious consequences.							
Sometimes my actions influence important outcomes.							
There are consequences if I deviate from what is expected.							

Section 6. Please indicate the level of your agreement with the following statements regarding your thoughts at work.

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
I feel thankful to customers.							
I feel grateful to customers.							
I feel appreciative of customers.							

	1 Strongly disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7 Strongly agree
I feel a personal obligation to do whatever I can to help the restaurant achieve its goals.							
I feel obligated to give my full energy to achieve the restaurant's goals.							

5. What is your highest level of education?

- 1) Less than high school diploma 2) High school diploma 3) Associate's degree
4) Bachelor's degree 5) Graduate degree

6. What is your annual household income?

- 1) Less than \$20,000 2) \$20,000 - \$39,999 3) \$40,000 - \$59,999
4) \$60,000 - \$79,999 5) \$80,000 - \$99,999 6) \$100,000 or more

7. How long (months) have you been working in the hotel and/or restaurant industry?

8. How long (months) have you been working at the current restaurant?

9. What is your current position at the restaurant?

- 1) Frontline staff 2) Supervisor 3) Manager

10. What is your current employment status at the restaurant?

- 1) Permanent employee 2) Temporary full-time employee 3) Temporary part-time employee

APPENDIX C

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION
OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY

Title: An integrated model of interpersonal characteristics and psychological states toward employees' work outcomes

Investigator(s): Haemi Kim

Purpose: The primary purpose of this study is to establish and empirically test a model that describes the psychological mechanisms underlying employees' social exchange relationships in the workplace by applying both interpersonal characteristics and job characteristics model. The specific objectives of the study are as follows: 1) To examine the relationships between the three types of social exchange relationships (customers, leaders, and coworkers) and the two types of psychological states (customer orientation and organization-based self-esteem); 2) To test the mediating effect of gratitude and felt obligation on the relationship between social exchange relationships and psychological states; 3) To assess the relationships between two types of psychological states and employees' work attitudes (job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment); 4) To investigate the effects of job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment on prosocial behavior and turnover intention; 5) To test the moderating effect of situational strength on the relationship between psychological states and work attitudes; and 6) To provide suggestions for hospitality practitioners to increase employees' positive work attitudes and behaviors.

What to Expect: This research study is administered online. Participation in this research will involve completion of 88 questionnaires in total. You will be asked for not only your perceptions and experiences at work including interactions with customers, leaders, and coworkers but also your work attitude and behaviors. The last part of the survey will ask for your personal information such as gender and age. You may skip any questions that you do not wish to answer. You will be expected to complete the questionnaire once. It should take you about fifteen minutes to complete.

Risks: There are no risks associated with this project which are expected to be greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.

Benefits: There are no direct benefits to you. However, you may gain an appreciation and understanding of how research is conducted.

Compensation: You will receive \$1.00 for your participation.

Your Rights: Your participation in this research is voluntary. There is no penalty for refusal to participate, and you are free to withdraw your consent and participation in this project at any time.

Confidentiality: The record of this study will be kept private. Any written results will discuss group findings and will not include information that will identify you. Research records will be stored on a password protected computer in a locked office and only researchers and individuals



responsible for research oversight will have access to the records. Data will be destroyed three years after the study has been completed.

Contacts: You may contact the researcher at the following address and phone number, should you desire to discuss your participation in the study and/or request information about the results of the study: Haemi Kim, 365 Human Sciences, School of Hotel & Restaurant Administration, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078, 918 -352-0481 or haemi.kim@okstate.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research volunteer, you may contact the IRB Office at 223 Scott Hall, Stillwater, OK 74078, 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu

If you choose to participate: Please, click “yes” if you choose to participate. By clicking “yes” you are indicating that you freely and voluntarily and agree to participate in this study and you also acknowledge that you are at least 18 years of age. If you do not wish to take the survey, please click “no” and you will be exited from the survey. It is recommended that you print a copy of this consent page for your records before you begin the study by clicking below.



APPENDIX D

RECRUITMENT SCRIPT

Recruitment Script

Dear Participant,

This research is being conducted by Haemi Kim, a Ph.D. student at Oklahoma State University. The purpose of the research is to test the effect of interpersonal relationships with customers, coworkers, and supervisors in the restaurant industry. The target for this research is an employee who is working at restaurants in the United States.

If you choose to participate, the 88-question survey will be provided and take approximately 15 minutes for you to complete. Compensation for successfully completing the survey is \$1.00. Please acknowledge that your answers are checked for accuracy before compensation is awarded.

All information about your responses will be completely anonymous. Any written results will discuss group findings and will not include information that will identify you.

If you have any questions or concerns, please contact the researcher directly.

Haemi Kim (haemi.kim@okstate.edu)



VITA

Haemi Kim

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF INTERPERSONAL
CHARACTERISTICS AND PSYCHOLOGICAL STATES TOWARD
EMPLOYEES' WORK OUTCOMES

Major Field: Human Science

Biographical:

Education:

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Human Science at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in May, 2018.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Science in Hospitality Administration at Sejong University, Seoul, South Korea in 2012.

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Science in Business Administration at Aju University, Suwon, South Korea in 2007.

Experience:

Graduate Instructor – School of Hospitality and Tourism Management,
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, August 2016 –
December 2016.

Research Assistant – School of Hospitality and Tourism Management,
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, August 2015 – May
2017.

Teaching Assistant – School of Hospitality and Tourism Management,
Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, August 2013 – May
2015.

Graduate Assistant – Global Education Institute, Sejong University, Seoul,
South Korea, October 2010 – February 2011

Professional Memberships:

The Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education (CHRIE);
The Honor Society of PHI KAPPA PHI