

# **Occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty in hospitality industry: a comparative case study of two hotels in Russia**

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Master of Science

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Submitted to Dr. Florian Aubke

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## AFFIDAVIT

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## **ABSTRACT**

The modern rhythm of life is increasingly demanding for many people. Considering that most people are spending a significant amount of time at work, their working conditions and their general physical and mental state at the workplace are playing an increasingly important role. Thus, work-related stress has become a significant and relevant problem for the employees, causing physiological, psychological, or even mental health problems. Occupational stress among employees can also negatively affect their efficiency, productivity, and increase turnover rates, which in turn will imply costs for the company. Nevertheless, occupational stress is a complex and multifaceted concept and it needs to be investigated not only as such, but also in relation to other important factors influencing job conditions, such as job satisfaction and employee loyalty.

Hospitality industry as a workplace has higher risks of occupational stress due to the nature of the service sector and the emotional labour. At the same time, people are one of the most valuable assets in the hotels, which makes it even more crucial to address the issue.

While there is a variety of a research about occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty in the hospitality industry as such, the potential differences in these factors between chain and independent hotels are insufficiently studied. Therefore, the current research is aiming to address this understudied issue. A comparative case study analysis of two hotels in Russia has been conducted. One of the main findings was that there is a significant difference in occupational stress and employee loyalty between the two hotels. More precisely, independent hotel employees have higher stress levels and lower loyalty. These findings indicate that further research in this field is needed.



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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

GAS – General Adaptation Syndrom

GJSQ – Generic Job Stress Questionnaire

NIOSH – National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health

SPSS – Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

WHO – World Health Organization



# 1 INTRODUCTION

The current study is aiming to investigate such important workplace related aspects and issues as occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty with regards to differences between chain and independent hotels. This chapter gives an introduction to the context of the study, previous research, formulates the aims and objectives of the research, and defines the research questions as well as hypotheses that should be addressed.

## 1.1 Context and previous research

Wellbeing and health represent an important part of our lives. Medical and scientific breakthroughs made it possible to cure many serious diseases, however nowadays people are facing new challenges of mental and physical welfare. Modern rhythm of life, characterized by such phenomena as globalization, urbanization, intense technological developments, is particularly demanding for many people. Considering that most people are spending a significant amount of time at work, their working conditions and their general physical and mental state at workplace are playing an increasingly important role.

Stress at work has become a significant and relevant problem in the modern world. It can affect employees' health and wellbeing, causing not only physiological, but also psychological, emotional and even mental problems. Moreover, occupational stress can negatively influence their work efficiency, performance, and service quality, and boost turnover rates; hence incrementing costs for both the employee and the company (Villanueva & Djurkovich, 2009; O'Neill & Davis, 2009). However, occupational stress is a complicated and multifaceted concept; thus it needs to be investigated not only as such, but also in relation to the other factors influencing the job situation of an individual. Evidence shows that there is strong negative relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction (Richardson & Burke, 1991; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Rizwan et al., 2014), which in turn can influence employee's loyalty in a positive way (LaLopa, 1997).

People working in hospitality industry are also at a higher risk of occupational stress due to the nature of the service sector, where employees have direct interaction with the customers and play an important role in the production and consumption of a service. Often being an intermediary between the conflicting demands of the company, management, and customers, employees are facing dissonance (Ruyter et al., 2001). Moreover, hotel business is operating twenty-four hours, seven days a week, and that dictates some special job aspects, such as shift work or irregular working hours. At the same time, employees are one of the most valuable assets in the hospitality industry; thus understanding the nature of occupational stress and

associated factors will allow either to prevent the potential negative consequences or to manage them properly.

Occupational stress, job satisfaction and employee loyalty, as well as their nature, consequences, and strategies for managing them have been of interest for many researchers during the last decades. However, these important factors influencing employees in various ways in the hotel industry are still remaining understudied. Moreover, the research on these topics in terms of differences among various types of hotels is evidently lacking and needs further development.

## **1.2 Research aims and objectives**

The aim of this paper is to investigate the differences between chain and independent hotels in terms of occupational stress, job satisfaction and loyalty of their employees. Both types of the hotels are continuously examined and compared in terms of their competitiveness or revenues. However, there is a marked lack of the literature and research aimed at studying whether different ownership types in the hospitality industry can significantly influence the above-mentioned job-related factors. Understanding of those is crucial for efficient and effective management of the most valuable asset in the industry – the people. Moreover, conceptualization of the differences between chain and independent hotels in terms of the special aspects of workplaces and, most importantly, their potential effect on employees' health and satisfaction can be extremely useful and valuable for the prospective employees.

Scientific evidence shows that occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty have certain degree of interrelation (Chandraiah et al., 2003, Kim et al., 2009; Abdullah et al., 2009). Different job stressors, as well as the occupational stress as a whole, were proved to significantly influence job satisfaction in a negative way (House & Rizzo, 1972; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2009; Luthans, 2011). However, one has to admit that certain challenge stressors have a positive impact on the job satisfaction (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Karatepe et al., 2014). Job satisfaction, in turn, has a strong positive relationship with employee loyalty (Jawahar, 2006; Wan, 2012). Moreover, Wan (2012) argues that employee loyalty actually arises from the job satisfaction. Unfortunately, there is not much literature on the correlation between employee loyalty and occupational stress, but it has been proved that stressed employees are more likely to leave the company (Porter & Steers, 1973). As turnover intentions are strongly and negatively correlated with the employee loyalty (Bhatnagar, 2012; Mohsin et al., 2015), it can be expected that employee loyalty will also have negative relationship with work-related stress. The current research is therefore also aiming to examine these above-mentioned relations with respect to the two case study hotels.

Additionally, the moderating roles of demographic factors on these variables have very often been of interest for the researchers. However, the existing studies have identified quite con-

tradicting results. Thus, it has been found that if there is a significant difference due to the gender of respondents, then women tend to experience more stress (Almedia & Kessler, 1998), be more satisfied with their jobs (Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010), and express higher loyalty (ManpowerGroup, 2002). In terms of age, it can be assumed based on previous research that the younger employees are experiencing more stress (Chandraiah et al., 2003), report less job satisfaction (Chandraiah et al., 2003; Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010), and tend to be less loyal than the older ones (Taylor, 2006). Education seems to result in more stress for the employees (Doughty, 2013), but at the same time in higher job satisfaction levels (Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010). However, influence of the level of education on employee loyalty was not found to be significant (Sheikhy & Khademi, 2015).

Marital status has been proved to have certain effects on job situation as such. Thus, some researchers have found that married employees are experiencing more stress than unmarried ones (Kessler, 1979). However, results on how marriage influences the job satisfaction of the employees are contradictive. Some studies suggest that married employees are more satisfied with their jobs (Saner and Eyüpoğlu, 2013), while the others are not finding any significant differences (Azim et al., 2013). Being a parent can also have certain effects on different aspects of the work, yet the researchers have not come to a consensus in this topic. Several researchers have concluded that employees with children are suffering from work stress more than the ones without kids (Lamanna & Riedmann, 2012; Hobart, 2015). Nevertheless, some investigations have found no differences between parents and non-parents in terms of occupational stress (O'Neill & Davis, 2009). Job satisfaction was proved to be lower with the increasing number of children (Bilgic, 1998). However, other studies have not found any significant influence (Forgionne & Peeters, 1982, cited by Bilgic, 1998). Employee loyalty with respect to parenthood is not studied well, yet there is evidence that employees with children tend to stay at their job longer (Sibbald et al., 2003).

Based on the above-mentioned aims and objectives, as well as on the existing literature, the following research questions are addressed in this study:

1. What are the relationships between occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty in chain hotel and independent hotel?
2. Which demographic characteristics are playing moderating roles in occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty in chain hotel and independent hotel?
3. Are there any differences in occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty between chain and independent hotels?

Based on the research questions and the associated literature, the following hypotheses were developed in order to guide the analysis of the data collected.

### **1.2.1 Occupational stress and Job satisfaction**

The previous studies have shown that stress at work has a strong and negative correlation with job satisfaction (Richardson & Burke, 1991; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Rizwan et al., 2014). Research observing the same relationship in the hospitality sector has found only one job stressor, namely interpersonal tensions, to have a significant negative correlation with job satisfaction. Role ambiguity was proved to have a significantly negative relation to the general work stress as well (Yang, 2010). The following null hypothesis is formulated to investigate the patterns in the two case study hotels:

**H1: Occupational stress is not correlated with job satisfaction.**

### **1.2.2 Occupational stress and Employee loyalty**

There has been evidence in previous research that job stress has a negative correlation with organizational commitment (Garg & Dhar, 2014). Besides, it has been proven that more stressed employee tend to have increased intention to leave the company (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Bhatti et al., 2010). The null hypothesis is offered for testing this relationship:

**H2: Occupational stress is not correlated with employee loyalty.**

### **1.2.3 Job satisfaction and employee loyalty**

According to LaLopa (1997), employees who are satisfied with their job tend to be committed to the employer and stay in their job for a longer period of time. Abdullah et al. (2009) have supported the evidence of a positive correlation between job satisfaction and employee loyalty. Following null hypothesis is formulated:

**H3: Job satisfaction is not correlated with employee loyalty.**

### **1.2.4 Moderating role of gender**

Several research papers have presented evidence that women tend to experience more stress than men, both general daily stress (Almedia & Kessler, 1998), and work-related stress (Michael et al., 2009). Research by Burke et al. (2008) reported that female managers are experiencing more stress than male ones due to the family-work conflict. However, research done by O'Neill and Davis (2009; 2011) in the hotel industry has not shown any significant differences in occupational stress among men and women. In order to have consistency over the hypotheses, the following null hypothesis is proposed:

**H4a: There are no significant differences in occupational stress due to the gender.**

Similar to occupational stress and gender, the evidence on gender influencing job satisfaction is controversial. Many researchers have not found the differences to be significant between men and women (Burke et al., 2008; Civilidag & Sargin, 2013; Civilidag, 2014). However, there was some evidence that women reported overall higher job satisfaction than men (Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010). Thus the proposed hypothesis is:

**H4b: There are no significant differences in job satisfaction due to the gender.**

Empirical research has indicated that women tend to show more loyalty towards the job than men (ManpowerGroup, 2002). However, the null hypothesis is offered for testing:

**H4c: There are no significant differences in employee loyalty due to the gender.**

### **1.2.5 Moderating role of marital status**

Previous research has evidenced that married employees tend to be more exposed to stress than their unmarried colleagues (Kessler, 1979). The following hypothesis is going to be tested:

**H5a: There are no significant differences in occupational stress due to the marital status.**

Scientific evidence showed controversial results in terms of influence that marital status has on the job satisfaction of employees. Thus, some studies have found that married employees tend to be more satisfied than unmarried ones (Saner and Eyüpoğlu, 2013), whereas other research indicated no significant difference due to the marital status (Azim et al., 2013). The following hypotheses is formulated:

**H5b: There are no significant differences in job satisfaction due to the marital status.**

Even though the literature on effect of marital status on employees' loyalty is lacking, the following null hypothesis is offered for testing:

**H5c: There are no significant differences in employee loyalty due to the marital status.**

### **1.2.6 Moderating role of age**

The previous research has shown that young adults (25-35 years old) and early middle aged (36-45 years old) were experiencing more stress due to such job stressors as role overload, role ambiguity, and strenuous working conditions compared to late middle aged (46-60 years old) employees (Chandraiah et al., 2003). Thus, the hypothesis is made:

**H6a: There are no significant differences in occupational stress due to the age**

Age proved to be a significant moderating variable in terms of job satisfaction in some research. Thus, the middle-aged employees (36-45 years old) reported more job satisfaction than

the younger adults (Chandraiah et al., 2003). The employees younger than 25 years old tend to be the least satisfied with the job (Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010). The following null hypothesis is proposed:

**H6b: There are no significant differences in job satisfaction due to the age**

There has been evidence that older employees tend to stay with their current employer for a longer time (Taylor, 2006), thus it can be assumed that they have a higher level of loyalty towards their organization. The following null hypothesis is suggested for testing the relationship:

**H6c: There are no significant differences in employee loyalty due to the age**

### **1.2.7 Moderating role of education**

It has been found that more educated employees are more exposed to stress than the ones, who are less educated (Doughty, 2013). However, this relationship is not linear (Bartholome, 2007). Thus, the following hypothesis is offered:

**H7a: There are no significant differences in occupational stress due to education.**

Research has shown that more educated employees tend to be more satisfied with their jobs than less educated ones (Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010). Nevertheless, other findings suggested that education has negative relationship with job satisfaction (Rogers, 1991, cited by Bilgic, 1998), or no significant influence at all (Bilgic, 1998). Thus, the null hypothesis is offered to investigate the influence:

**H7b: There are no significant differences in job satisfaction due to education.**

Research conducted by Sheikhy and Khademi (2015) has not found any significant differences in employee loyalty due to their education. Thus, the following hypothesis is offered for testing:

**H7c: There are no significant differences in employee loyalty due to education.**

### **1.2.8 Moderating role of parenthood**

Research by O'Neill and Davis (2009) has not found any significant differences on stress levels between employees who had or did not have children. However, there have been several studies that have identified that parents were experiencing more stress than non-parents (Lamanana & Riedmann, 2012; Hobart, 2015). Thus, the following hypothesis is offered:

**H8a: There are no significant differences in occupational stress between parents and non-parents.**

In different studies the relationship between parenthood and job satisfaction has been found both not significant (Forgionne & Peeters, 1982, cited by Bilgic, 1998), and significant and negative (Bilgic, 1998). The null hypothesis is proposed as follows:

**H8b: There are no significant differences in job satisfaction between parents and non-parents.**

There is a lack of evidence about the moderating role of parenthood on employee loyalty. Sibbald et al. (2003), for instance, have indicated that employees with children tend to stay longer with the organization. However, this intention does not necessarily mean these employees are more loyal to the company. The following hypothesis is formulated in order to test the relationship:

**H8c: There are no significant differences in employee loyalty between parents and non-parents.**

### **1.2.9 Differences in Occupational stress, Job satisfaction, and Employee loyalty between independent and chain hotels**

The topic of differences between investigated variables in chain and independent hotels is highly understudied and therefore no assumptions can be made prior to the research. However, here are the null hypotheses proposed:

**H9: There is no significant difference between independent and chain hotel in Occupational stress**

**H10: There is no significant difference between independent and chain hotel in Job Satisfaction**

**H11: There is no significant difference between independent and chain hotel in Employee Loyalty**

## **1.3 Structure of thesis**

This research starts with the literature review of the existing studies and theories about different aspects of occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employees' loyalty. The certain characteristics of these theories with respect to the hospitality industry are examined as well. Then, an overview of the differences between chain and independent hotels is given. Further, the comparative case study methodology used in the current study, the research instruments and the data analysis are described. The occupational stress levels, job satisfaction, and loyalty of the employees are evaluated based on the case study of 2 hotels in Russia. Primary data is

collected using questionnaires and correlations are analysed with the help of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Then the results of the research and the discussion are presented. Finally, the conclusion is presented including implications and potential for the future research.

## 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter includes the literature review of the relevant topics. First, the theory of stress is discussed, and then the special aspects of occupational stress in general and in hospitality industry are covered. Further, literature on job satisfaction and employee loyalty is reviewed. Finally, the overview of the differences between chain and independent hotels is presented.

### 2.1 Stress

Stress is quite a difficult term to define due to its subjectivity and complexity. The fact that stress has been a topic of interest for researchers from four fairly different disciplines (medicine, sociology, management, and psychology) and that they proposed their own concepts and methodology, makes the topic even more complex and multifaceted (Cummings & Cooper, 1998, cited by Fevre et al., 2003). Term “stress” itself was first introduced by Hans Selye, a Hungarian endocrinologist, who is also known as the “father of stress” (Fink, 2009). Being a medical student, he has noted that patients with different illnesses had some common non-specific symptoms at the beginning of their illness. This observation has led to his further research of the body reaction to the stressful stimuli and development of the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) concept (Fink, 2009). Selye has introduced the term “stress” and has given the first and most generic definition: “Stress is the nonspecific response of the body to any demand” (Selye, 1976b). In his GAS theory, Selye has identified three stages: alarm, resistance, and exhaustion. At first stage, alarm, the body is responding to the stressors with the first signs of changes and the defence processes are activated (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1980). Later, if the stressor is not disappearing and adaptation is developed, the resistance phase is achieved. Longer stress can result in the third stage, exhaustion, and even lead to the death (Fink, 2009). This process is cyclical; therefore, if new demands are put on the body again, the alarm stage will reoccur. The consequences for the individuals can be sicknesses, fatigues, or decreased performance at work (Ivancevic & Matteson, 1980).

While initial research about stress has been done into the medical field, later on stress has been defined from the different points of view. Thus, behavioural sciences see stress as “perception of threat, with resulting anxiety discomfort, emotional tension, and difficulty in adjustment” (Selye, 1976a). Anbazhagan et al. (2013) mention a more detailed definition by Tobias Schafer: “Stress is an adaptive response, moderated by individual differences that are a consequence of any action, situation or event that places special demands on a person, which perceives an imbalance between the level of demand placed upon them and their capability to meet those demands”. In this case, stress can result in the psychological, physiological, or behavioural response of an individual, which eventually can result in the ill health (Palmer, 1989).

Several authors emphasize that stress should be defined as a perceptual phenomenon (Cox, 1978), meaning that stress appears from the perception of individuals as that they cannot handle the demands being made on them (Lazarus, 1966). Lazarus (1991) conducted an important research on the relationship between stress and emotions, also describing the coping processes. The researcher has created a “Cognitive-Motivational-Relational Theory of Emotion”, where he highly emphasized that stress as well as emotions are not caused by external factors, but rather by person-environment relationships, which can differ over time or due to circumstances. Therefore, discrepancies can be found between the one’s reaction to the situation and the objective reality of it (Lazarus, 1991).

Another important theory in the history of stress-related research is the “Theory of stress, appraisal, and coping”, introduced by Lazarus and Folkman (1984). It states that stress arises from the appraisal of certain environmental demands to attack individual resources and therefore threaten the well-being (Holroyd & Lazarus, 1982, cited by Dewe et al., 2012). Lazarus distinguishes between two types of appraisal: primary and secondary. Primary appraisal represents the person’s evaluation of the situation or encounter and its personal meaning, whereas secondary appraisal focuses on the measures that can be taken to deal with the situation and the personal resources needed for that (Dewe et al., 2012). This is when the process of coping with the stress starts, that is, efforts made by an individual to manage the stress. The researchers have differentiated two coping approaches: emotion-focused and problem-focused coping. Emotion-focused coping is focused on dealing with unpleasant emotions caused by stress, while problem-focused coping is dealing with the problem solving (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Generally, stress can have some significant effects on the individual’s physical, psychological, and emotional health. Stress can weaken the immune system, which can lead to increased risks of contracting illnesses and infections, cause cardiovascular (e.g. high blood pressure and heart diseases), musculoskeletal (e.g. headaches and back pain), and gastrointestinal system problems (e.g. diarrhea) (Luthans, 2011). Consequences of stress on mental health are often disregarded, yet still it can trigger anger, anxiety, depression, nervousness, tension, and boredom (Luthans, 2011).

### **2.1.1 Classifications of stress**

Since the term stress is not an easy one to describe and there is no one certain definition of it, it is no wonder that several classifications of the stress have been proposed by different research. Levi (1971, cited by Szabo et al., 2012) was the first one to identify the difference between “positive” and “negative” stress. Later, Selye (1974) introduced the appropriate terms for these kinds of stress: “eustress” for a positive stress, and “distress” for a negative one. Selye also noticed that people are qualifying the stressor to be distress or eustress individually. This decision is dependent not only on an actual amount of demand perceived by the individu-

al, but also on other characteristics, such as the timing, the perception of the desirability of the demand, if it is beneficial, whether the demand is self-imposed or imposed externally, and if imposed externally, where exactly it came from (a friend, a manager, a police, etc.) (Fevre et al., 2003). Selye (1974, cited by Szabo, 2012) has underlined in his works, that “stress is not what happens to you, but how you react to it”. However, some common examples of distress and eustress can be found in the relevant literature. Thus, typical types of distress are: divorce, punishment, injury, negative feelings, financial problems, work difficulties (The American Institute of Stress, 2016a), death of a family member, conflict in interpersonal relationships, legal problems, etc. (Mills et al., 2008). Eustress can be caused by marriage, promotion, winning money, establishing new relationships and making new friends, graduation (The American Institute of Stress, 2016a), having a child, taking a vacation, retiring, learning a new hobby, etc. (Mills et al., 2008). Eustress can have such positive impacts as increased motivation, focused energy, feeling of excitement, or improved performance. Distress, however, can lead to anxiety, decreased performance, mental or physical problems (Mills et al., 2008).

Lazarus (1966) has specified three kinds of stress: harm, threat, and challenge. Harm is the psychological damage that has already occurred and cannot be change; threat is the anticipation of harm that has not happened yet, but might already be unavoidable; and challenge comes from the difficult demands that one feels confident to meet by mobilizing own resources (Lazarus, 1993). These types of stress are caused by different preceding events, not only in an environment, but also within the person, and can lead to various consequences. Thus, state of threat can cause serious problems with mental operations and weaken functioning, whereas challenge can have very positive effects, such as improved performance and increased motivation (Lazarus, 1993).

Dr. Albrecht defined four common types of emotionally induced stress. These are: time stress, anticipatory stress, situational stress, and encounter stress (Albrecht, 1979). Time stress is anxious response to the concept of time, for instance a strong feeling of the need to do something within a certain time period. People experiencing time stress can feel “desperate, trapped, miserable, and often rather helpless” (Albrecht, 1979, p.89). Anticipatory kind of stress, also sometimes generally referred to as a “worry” or fear of the future, is a state of anxiety about some independent occasion with little or no reason underlining. This type of stress is experienced by almost everyone at least once to a certain extent and can be explained as a common worry that something will go wrong (Albrecht, 1979). Situational stress is a state of anxiety due to a situation in which one feels threatened, has little or no control over the situation and is afraid to “lose face” in the eyes of the others or to be physically injured. Encounter stress is a fear of having to deal with a person or group of people who one does not like or would not be willing to deal with at the certain moment. Encounter stress can also be a result of getting tired of interacting with too many people (Albrecht, 1979).

Other well-known types of stress are acute, episodic acute, and chronic stress. Acute stress, also known as ‘fight or flight’ response, is the most common kind of stress that every person experiences many times throughout life. Usually, acute stress is caused by certain events in the recent past or by the anticipation of something in the nearest future (American Psychological Association, 2016b). Acute stress tends to be short-term, and after the response to it is over, it takes about 90 minutes for the metabolism to get normal again (The American Institute of Stress, 2016a). The common symptoms of acute stress are: emotional distress, muscular problems, stomach, gut and bowel problems, as well as increased blood pressure, sweaty palms, dizziness, cold hands or feet, shortness of breath, etc. (American Psychological Association, 2016b). Acute stress as such is not dangerous and can be successfully treated and managed.

Episodic acute stress is a more serious type of stress, which occurs when a person is experiencing acute stress more frequently and does not get adequate relief. In contrast to the acute stress, which is rather short-term, episodic acute stress is usually happening on the daily basis. This kind of stress is characterized with the symptoms of extensive arousal, such as permanent headaches, migraines, hypertension, and heart diseases (American Psychological Association, 2016b).

Chronic stress is the most harmful and dangerous type of stress. It arises when one is feeling trapped in a certain stressful situation and does not see any possible solution. This type of stress can be a result of a Post Traumatic Stress Disorder or childhood experience, but also it can come from the untreated and uncontrolled everyday stress (Portolese Dias, 2012). Chronic stress is long-term and the fact that people can get used to it makes the diagnostic even more difficult (American Psychological Association, 2016b). Chronic stress can have such serious physical and psychological consequences as anxiety, insomnia, muscle pain, high blood pressure, weakened immune system, etc. (American Psychological Association, 2016c). Apart from being a primary cause for such problems, chronic stress can strongly contribute to the development of other health problems: heart diseases, depression, or obesity (American Psychological Association, 2016c).

In order to describe how performance is affected throughout the different stress stages, Dr. Nixon has developed a ‘Human Function Curve’ (see Figure 1). As it can be seen, at the drone zone there is not enough positive stress to have an impressive performance, thus one can feel bored and not motivated. During primary stages of arousal, namely healthy tension, the performance is increasing together with the amount of stress. In the C’Zone the performance is reaching one of the highest levels due to eustress (Portolese Dias, 2012). Healthy tension represents the perfect state for not only top performance, but also for the sustainable success and personal well being (Holden, 2008, p.295). At this stage one feels mentally and physically healthy, motivated and balanced (Holden, 2008). However, once the peak is passed, and stress is getting chronic, one is entering the fatigue zone (Portolese Dias, 2012). At this stage not only does the performance decrease, but also the danger of negative consequences increases. It is

important to recognize the signs of chronic stress early enough in order to minimize the harmful effects (Holden, 2008). If this is not done properly, the zone of exhaustion is entered, which can lead to serious consequences, such as ill health or burnout, and dramatically decreased performance.

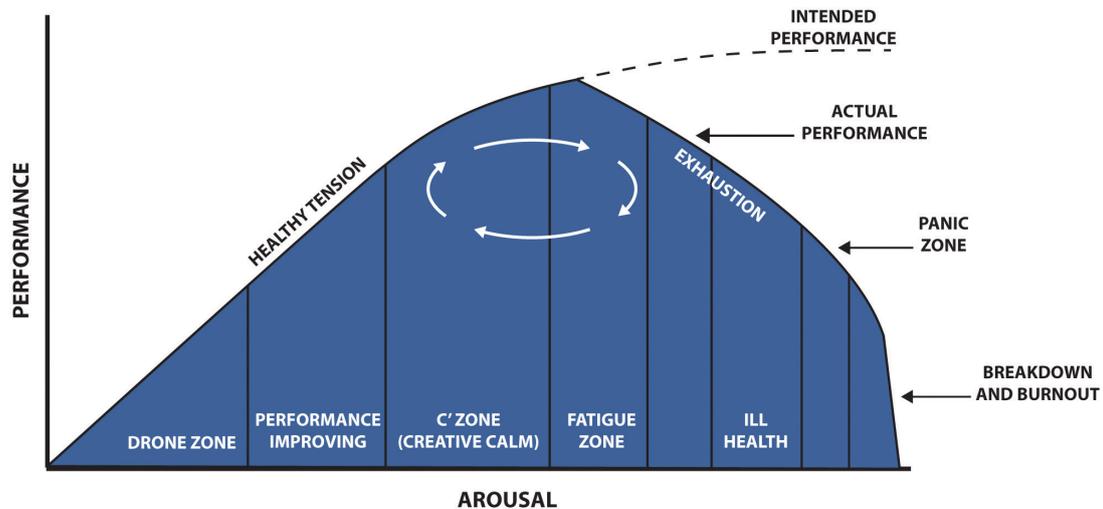


FIGURE 1 THE HUMAN FUNCTION CURVE (PORTOLESE DIAS, 2012)

When talking about the classification of stress, it is important to always remember that it highly depends on a personality and the perception can dramatically differ from person to person. For instance, the same event can be considered by one person as a positive one, and therefore result in eustress, and for another one it might result in acute stress with negative feelings and consequences. However, there are some common characteristics of stress in terms of reaction and consequences. Some of those, mostly from physical and psychological perspective, were discussed before in this section. However, as one can see from above, there are also other important aspects that can be strongly affected, such as individual and group performance, decision-making processes, or perception (Kavanagh, 2005).

### 2.1.2 Stressors

The term “stressor” itself was introduced by Selye (1956) to define “the external force or influence acting on the individual” (cited by Fevre et al., 2003). However, even though this is a most common terminology, certain researchers have been using different definitions. For instance, some authors, like Edwards (1998), were using the term “stress” to define these external forces, and “strain” for the resulting action (Fevre et al., 2003).

So, generally speaking, stressors are the sources of stress that can be both internal and external. Similarly with the stress itself, there are various classifications of stressors offered by different researchers. They can differ in terms of their origin, clarity, duration, choice, level of induced stress and if the stressor arises alone or together with the other ones (Weber, 2011).

One of the common classifications offers a logical division of stressors into four categories: environmental, organizational, group, and individual stressors (Anbazzhagan et al., 2013).

Environmental stressors include several social and technical influencing factors, such as “technological change, family demands and obligations, economic and financial conditions, race, caste, class, ethnic identity, relocation and transfers” (Anbazzhagan et al., 2013). More generally, environmental stressors have been divided into 4 categories: cataclysmic events, stressful life events, daily hassles, and ambient stressors. Cataclysmic events include the ones that are usually affecting the whole community, such as catastrophes, natural and technological disasters, and wars, but also imprisonment (Evans & Cohen, 1987). Stressful life events are usually the significant ones that require some kind of personal or social adaptation, such as, for instance, marital status, social or economic condition changes. Whereas daily hassles are the situations that everyone is experiencing on a daily-basis and that are usually causing short-term stress. These daily hassles include problems at work or in the family, or environmental conditions, such as noise, crowding, or weather. ‘Ambient stressors’ is the term developed by Campbell (1983) to describe the stressors that are often represented as background permanent conditions that have negative impacts and can be physically perceptible and hardly manageable. One of the examples of ambient stressors would be living in an area with heavy air pollution (Evans & Cohen, 1987).

Organizational stressors are emerging from within the organization, for instance policies, strategies, structure and design, processes organization and working conditions (Anbazzhagan et al., 2013). Cooper and Marshall (1976) have introduced five main categories of work stressors: ones intrinsic to the job, role in the organization, career development, relationship at work, and organizational structure and climate. Organizational stressors will be discussed in more details further in this paper.

Group stressors are the ones that occur within the formal and informal groups, to which one belongs. Examples of such stressors are: lack of group cohesiveness, lack of social support, interpersonal and inter group conflict. Individual stressors are considered to be the internal ones, for instance, role conflict and ambiguity, personality traits, life and career changes (Anbazzhagan et al., 2013).

Another widespread classification of stressors introduced by Hill (1949, cited by Weber, 2011) distinguishes between internal and external stressors, based on their origin. Internal stressors originate within a person and represent stress-inducing thoughts or behaviour, personal perceptions, and expectations. Common internal stressors are pessimism, putting pressure on oneself to be perfect, negative self-talk, perfectionism, unrealistic expectations, and lack of assertiveness (Greene, 2013). External stressors are all that are not self-induced, they are coming from outside. One can argue that for some people coping with external stressors is more challenging as they are usually out of individual’s control (Weber, 2011). The examples of ex-

ternal stressors are major life changes, work, financial problems, relationship and family issues (Greene, 2013).

As it was already discussed above, some types of stress (eustress) can have positive effects on individuals, whilst other might have negative consequences (distress). The similar classification was used in the research about stressors behind positive and negative stress, which were named challenge and hindrance stressors accordingly. Thus, hindrance stressors are the demands that are perceived by an individual as obstructive the progress toward personal accomplishments or goal attainment (Colquitt et al., 2010), whilst challenge stressors are the demands perceived as opportunities for development, improving knowledge, and goal achievements (Colquitt et al., 2010). Many studies have been conducted with the focus on work-related hindrance and challenge stressors (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Bingham, Boswell, & Boudreau, 2005). Cavanaugh et al. (2000), for instance, have found that hindrance-related stress had negative correlation with job satisfaction and positive one with job search and turnover, whereas challenge-related stress showed positive effects on managers' motivation and job satisfaction.

Patterson (1988) has studied the stress experienced by the families and therefore classified stressors behind it based on their origin: individual, family, and community stressors. Individual stressors in this case are, for example, illness or loss of job; family stressors include divorce, sexual abuse, having a child; and community stressors are external ones, like natural disasters, taxes, bank failures, etc. (Weber, 2011).

Another stressor classification within the family stress framework offered by Boss (1988, cited by Weber, 2011) differentiates volitional and nonvolitional stressors. The volitional stressors are the ones coming from voluntary induced events, such as wanted pregnancy, career change, or start of education (Weber, 2011). Nonvolitional stressors are ones "that are not sought out but just happen, such as being laid off or the sudden loss of someone loved" (Boss, 1988, p. 40). Apparently coping with nonvolitional stressors is more difficult than with volitional due to lack of control and suddenness of the incident (Weber, 2011).

As it can be seen, there is the whole variety of classifications of stressors based on diverse criteria. Many of the stressor types intersect, which makes distinctive and clear classification not possible. However, understanding the nature of stressors, and consequently of stress origins, can help not only managing the existing stress better, but also avoiding stress in the future.

## **2.2 Occupational Stress**

Occupational stress as a widespread phenomenon nowadays has been investigated and categorized by several authors. Several research are proving that stress at work is the leading

source of stress among American adults and that it has dramatically increased during the last decades (The American Institute of Stress, 2016b). A survey conducted in Canada reports that 38.8% of Canadians between the ages of 15 and 75 are experiencing slight stress at work, 25% are relatively stressed, and 5.4% of respondents are extremely stressed (Statistics Canada, 2002 – updated in September 2004, cited by Brun & Lamarche, 2006). The rising interest in this topic can be explained by some very significant consequences associated with the occupational stress for both employees and employers (Watkins, 2003; Brun & Lamarche, 2006). In order to be able to analyse all aspect of the occupation stress, it is first necessary to understand the nature and the foundations of the occupational stress.

Just as with the general stress term discussed above, there is no particular, agreed upon definition of the occupational stress, which is also sometimes called job or work stress. Ross (1997, p.42) states that occupational stress is “the form of physiological and emotional arousal” experienced by the employee when exposed to the threatening situation or a conflict with another staff member or a client. According to the Leka et al. (2004), “work-related stress is the response people may have when presented with work demands and pressures that are not matched to their knowledge and abilities and which challenge their ability to cope”. It is important to understand, that pressure at work by itself cannot be totally avoided in a modern business world and is not necessarily destructive. On the contrary, when a worker is experiencing an adequate and manageable amount of pressure, he or she might feel alert and inspired to do the job and to learn. Nevertheless, the perception of an acceptable amount of pressure is very individual and once the limit is exceeded the consequences on employee’s health and performance can be dramatic (WHO, 2016). According to several research papers, the most stressful types of work are the ones where demands and pressures towards the employees are not matching their abilities and knowledge, where workers do not get an opportunity to make choices or to have any control, and where support from others is lacking (Leka et al., 2004).

At first, most of the research on occupational stress and its nature were focused within psychological and medical field, thus, putting emphasis on the individual behaviours, personality qualities and coping mechanisms initiated and managed by the individuals themselves (Lo & Lamm, 2005). However, more recent studies have acknowledged the need to have a more multifaceted view on the problem and to include the important environmental factors contributing to the stress. Thus, such factors as employment (e.g. salaries, company rules and policies, working conditions), and roles played by other parties (e.g. employers, trade unions, or government agents) were recognized to be significant in understanding the nature of the work-related stress (Lo & Lamm, 2005). Furthermore, many other aspects were accepted as being influential on stress levels: for instance, poor work organization, poor work design, poor management, unsatisfactory working conditions, and lack of support from colleagues and supervisors (Leka et al., 2004).

Cooper, Dewe and O’Driscoll (2001) have argued that occupational stress sources can be divided into three groups: job-specific, organizational and individual sources. First two sources are considered to be external or environmental. The investigation of these environmental sources was of a great interest for many researchers. Thus, Cooper and Marshall (1976) in their Occupational Stress Model have distinguished five sources of work stress: intrinsic to job, role in the organization, career development, relationships at work, and organizational structure and climate. Table 1 gives an overview of these sources with some examples of possible stressors.

<b>Environmental sources</b>	<b>Stressors</b>
Intrinsic to Job	Poor physical working conditions Work overload Time pressures Physical danger, etc.
Role in Organization	Role ambiguity Role conflict Responsibility for people Conflicts are organizational boundaries (internal & external), etc.
Career Development	Overpromotion Underpromotion Lack of job security Thwarted ambition, etc.
Relationships at Work	Poor relations with boss, subordinates, or colleagues Difficulties in delegating responsibility, etc.
Organizational Structure and Climate	Little or no participation in decision-making Restrictions on behavior (budgets, etc.) Office politics Lack of effective consultation, etc.

TABLE 1 SOURCES OF STRESS AT WORK (COOPER & MARSHALL, 1976)

Cartwright and Cooper (1997) further developed the above-mentioned model and added another environmental factor, namely the home-work interface. It has been acknowledged that work and family life are interconnected and can have high impact on each other (Huang et al., 2004, cited by Zhao et al., 2011). According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985, p. 77, cited by Zhao et al., 2011) work-family conflict is “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect”. Later on, this aspect also became one of the points of interest for many researchers investigating occupational stress, job satisfaction, and other work-related issues (Chiang et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2011).

Ivancevich and Matteson (1980) have offered to differentiate between extraorganizational and intraorganizational job stressors. Extraorganizational stressors include such factors as financial stability, family, health, and other stressors that appear outside the work life. Intraorganizational stressors can be divided into four categories: individual, group, organizational, and physical environment. Schuler (1982) distinguishes seven types of work stressors: job qualities, relationships, organizational structure, physical qualities, career development, change and role in the organization.

Role conflict and role ambiguity are the job stress antecedents that have been used by numerous researchers to analyse and measure the occupational stress (Rizwan et al., 2014; Sheraz et al., 2014; Ram et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2009). Role conflict definitions vary among the researchers. Kahn et al. (1964) have stated that role conflict occurs when workers are required to have two or more contradictory behaviours. The authors are distinguishing five types of role conflict: intersender conflict (when expectations of two people are not meeting each other), intrasender conflict (mismatch between individual’s expectations and the role), inter-role conflict (when demands from two different positions are mismatching), person-role conflict (when there is discrepancy between an individual and his/her role), and overload of roles (when there is not enough time to practise two or more roles that an individual has) (Kahn et al., 1964). Generally, role conflict is a result of the mismatch between the expectations of an individual and the actual perception of the role. Role conflict has proved to have some unpleasant consequences on the employees and the organization, such as poor job performance, job dissatisfaction, increased turnover (House & Rizzo, 1972; Bhatti et al., 2010), and psychological stress (Bekker et al., 2000).

Role ambiguity refers to the situation when employees have some uncertainty about how they should behave and what is expected of them (Kahn et al., 1964). House and Rizzo (1972, p. 474) defined role ambiguity as “the lack of clarity and predictability of the outcomes of one’s behaviour”. Role ambiguity occurs when employees do not have a structured and consistent job description, when there are no directions on how to meet the job requirements, or when their performance assessment is not well-defined (Sheraz et al., 2014). Employees experienc-

ing role ambiguity are more likely to avoid making decisions, to feel anxious and dissatisfied about their work (House & Rizzo, 1972).

Hart and Cooper (2001) have offered an organizational health approach to the occupational stress, which is illustrated in Figure 2. The authors believe that both individual and organizational factors have an influence on employee's well-being that is, in turn, affecting organizational performance. 'Individual characteristics' in this model represent personalities of the employees, their coping mechanisms, attitudes and behaviors, while 'organizational characteristics' include both objective qualities of the organization (e.g. resources and structure) and workers' subjective perceptions of those (e.g. organizational climate and work experiences) (Hart & Cooper, 2001). One of the strengths of this model is that it has not only acknowledged the interactions between individual and organizational aspects and their influence on employee's well-being, but also included a solid link to organizational performance (Lo & Lamm, 2005). Moreover, the macro level has also been included in the model, recognizing the influence of external factors, such as government policies and legislation, interactions with the customers and the partners, and demands from share holders (Lo & Lamm, 2005).

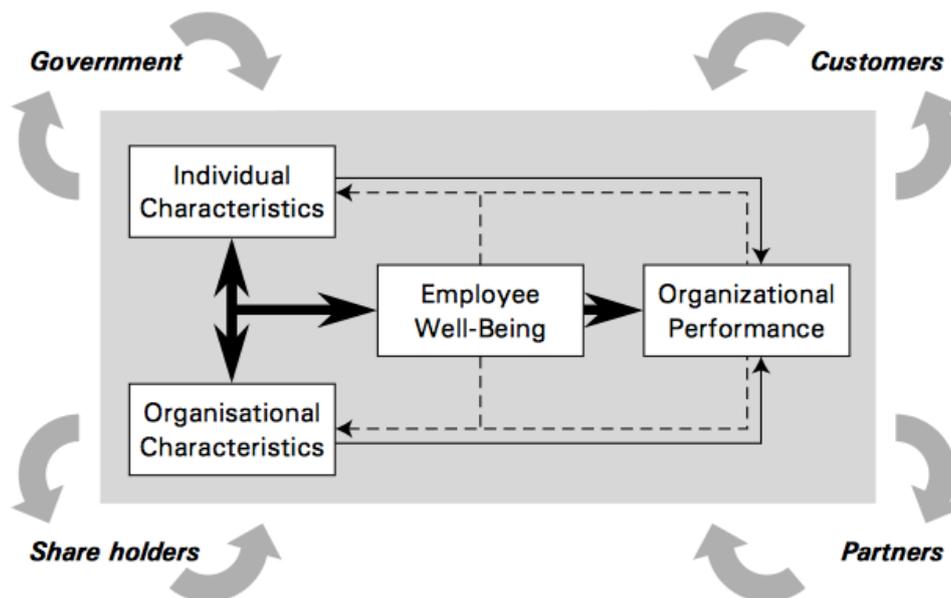


FIGURE 2 A HEURISTIC MODEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL HEALTH (HART & COOPER, 2001)

As already mentioned before, very often occupational stress is caused by the poor work design and management of the organization. Hazards related to work stress can also be divided into two categories: work content and work context (WHO, 2016). Literature on occupational stress usually distinguishes nine stress-related hazards, which are presented in the Table 1. However, it is important to remember that some hazards are not universal and some cultures might not find them harmful (Leka et al., 2004). As it can be seen in the Table 1, both categories have many risk factors, which should be addressed for both preventing and managing the work-stress level in the organizations.

Work content	Work context
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Job content               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Monotonous, under-stimulating, meaningless tasks</li> <li>⇒ Lack of variety</li> <li>⇒ Unpleasant tasks</li> <li>⇒ Aversive tasks</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Work load and work pace               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Having too much or too little to do</li> <li>⇒ Working under time pressures</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Working hours               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Strict or inflexible working schedules</li> <li>⇒ Long and unsocial hours</li> <li>⇒ Unpredictable working hours</li> <li>⇒ Badly designed shift systems</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Participation and control               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Lack of participation in decision-making</li> <li>⇒ Lack of control (e.g. over work methods, work pace, working hours, and the work environment)</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Career development, status and pay               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Job insecurity</li> <li>⇒ Lack of promotion prospects</li> <li>⇒ Under-promotion or over-promotion</li> <li>⇒ Work of “low social value”</li> <li>⇒ Piece rate payment schemes</li> <li>⇒ Unclear or unfair performance evaluation systems</li> <li>⇒ Being over-skilled or under-skilled for a job</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Role in the organization               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Unclear role</li> <li>⇒ Conflicting roles within the same job</li> <li>⇒ Responsibility for people</li> <li>⇒ Continuously dealing with other people and their problems</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Interpersonal relations               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Inadequate, inconsiderate or unsupportive supervision</li> <li>⇒ Poor relationships with co-workers</li> <li>⇒ Bullying, harassment and violence</li> <li>⇒ Isolated or solitary work</li> <li>⇒ No agreed procedures for dealing with problems or complaints</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Organizational culture               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Poor communication</li> <li>⇒ Poor leadership</li> <li>⇒ Lack of clarity about organizational objectives and structure</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Home-work interface               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>⇒ Conflicting demands of work and home</li> <li>⇒ Lack of support for domestic problems at work</li> <li>⇒ Lack of support for work problems at home</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

TABLE 2 STRESS-RELATED HAZARDS AT WORK (LEKA ET AL., 2004)

While organizational characteristics as well as environmental factors that can contribute to employees' well-being and stress levels have been already thoroughly discussed above, individual characteristics, touched upon in the Hart and Cooper's model, are worth mentioning in more details. There are many individual characteristics that can have influence on job stress, but this research will give an overview on some of them, namely job experience, Type A behavior pattern, and Big Five personality characteristics.

Some studies have established that the more experience the individual has, the less he or she is exposed to the occupational stress. This relationship can be explained by at least two theories. First, the idea of selective withdrawal, that states that people are more likely to voluntarily leave the job if they are experiencing more stress, which, in turn is caused by certain personal characteristics. Therefore, employees that tend to stay with the company for longer time are the ones who are more stress-resistant (Motowidlo et al., 1986). The other reason is adaptation. According to this concept, people tend to improve their coping mechanisms over the time, thus more experienced employees might become more stress-resistant (Motowidlo et al., 1986).

Type A behavior is a syndrome, which is characterized by aggressiveness, competitiveness, and impatience (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1984). People with Type A behavior tend to be continuously engaged in many activities that imply overcoming obstacles in a short amount of time (Rose, 1987). Thus, employees with such behavior are expected to be involved in more stressful events and perceive some situations as more stressful (Motowidlo et al., 1986).

Even though the role of the Big Five personality characteristics in the occupational stress is understudied, this topic is still of a substantial interest for the researchers and there is some evidence that supports the interrelations. The Big Five theory distinguishes between different personality characteristics, namely neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Costa & McCrae 1989, cited by Hart & Cooper, 2001). Neuroticism refers to a tendency of a person to concentrate on negative aspects of oneself and the environment and to experience negative emotions (Costa & McCrae 1989, cited by Hart & Cooper, 2001). This type of personality has been proved to have one of the strongest relationships with the stress levels (Hart & Cooper, 2001). Extraversion type of personality refers to the individuals, who are tending to be active, talkative, optimistic, affectionate, and person-oriented (Costa & McCrae 1989, cited by Hart & Cooper, 2001). Extraversion includes such aspect as gregariousness (the extent of social interaction of a person), empathy (the level of interpersonal warmth that one is predisposed to), and positive affectivity (the extent of individual's positive attitude to life). Scientific evidence shows that this personality trait is strongly linked with problem-focused coping, positive life experiences, and psychological health (Hart & Cooper, 2001). The three other personality types (openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) have not yet yielded any strong scientific evidence in terms of interconnection with the occupational stress, but one can argue about potential relations. Thus, agreeableness refers to people, who tend to be

compliant, helpful, and easygoing (Costa & McCrae 1989, cited by Hart & Cooper, 2001). These people might have better relationships with the colleagues and supervisors due to their calm and non-confrontational nature, and consequently lower levels of stress (Hart & Cooper, 2001). Openness type of personality represents people who are open to new ideas and experiences (Costa & McCrae 1989, cited by Hart & Cooper, 2001). This type of personality might have both negative and positive correlations with occupational stress. On the one hand, these people might be highly engaged and motivated, but on the other hand, they can be too creative and dreamy for some organizations, where this is not encouraged (Hart & Cooper, 2001). The last but not least personality type, conscientiousness, is characterized by the tendency to be devoted, respectful, and insistent (Costa & McCrae 1989, cited by Hart & Cooper, 2001). The workers having those personality traits can be expected to be more passionate and engaged in the job, which in turn may improve their well-being and decrease stress level (Hart & Cooper, 2001).

Apart from individual characteristics and environmental factors, stress levels were proved to vary among the different demographic groups. Thus, women tend to suffer more than men not only from general stress (Almedia & Kessler, 1998; Rosch, 2014), but also from the work-related stress (Michael et al., 2009). Research by Burke et al. (2008) reported that female managers are experiencing more stress than male ones due to the family-work conflict. Rosch (2014) explains this phenomenon by hormonal differences (women's hormone level is less stable than men's), or women's genetic predisposition for depression. Interestingly, the differences in stress can also be explained by the fact that women tend to consult a doctor more often than men, and thus are more likely to be diagnosed (Rosch, 2014). Possibly this is also one of the reasons why research done by O'Neill and Davis (2009; 2011) in the hotel industry has not shown any significant differences in occupational stress among men and women.

Some researchers have proved that marital status influences stress levels of the individuals. Thus, married employees tend to experience more stress than their unmarried colleagues (Kessler, 1979; Vanagas, 2004). Parveen (2009) has investigated the differences of occupational stress between married and unmarried women and has similarly supported the notion that married employees have experienced more stress than unmarried ones. These results might be explained by work-family pressures, obligations, and increased home stressors (Parveen, 2009; O'Neill & Davis, 2009).

Another potential factor influencing the stress levels of individuals is having children. As it was already mentioned before, having a child itself is considered to be a stressor. Thus, there is no surprise that parents are more exposed to the stress than non-parents, especially when they are employed (Lamanna & Riedmann, 2012; Hobart, 2015). However, the study by O'Neill and Davis (2009) has not found any significant differences in stress experienced by the employees who had or did not have children.

Age of individuals is another factor that can influence the level of stress. Research on the stress levels among Americans has shown, that individuals between 18 and 47 years old report higher stress levels than the older ones (American Psychological Association, 2016a). Another research has also found that young adults (25-35 years old) and early middle aged (36-45 years old) were experiencing more stress due to such job stressors as role overload, role ambiguity, and strenuous working conditions compared to late middle aged (46-60 years old) employees (Chandraiah et al., 2003). These results might reflect the differences in perception of certain stressors and the coping mechanisms that people have at different ages. Thus, many stressors, such as marriage, divorce, having children, or changes at work are more relevant for the younger adults, and the everyday hassles that influence the stress level are perceived as less stressful for older people (Aldwin et al., 1996).

Last but not least, the level of the education of the employees can also influence the occupational stress experienced by them. Thus, research has shown that better educated people tend to be more exposed to stress at work (Doughty, 2013). The reason underlying this phenomenon might be that individuals with higher qualifications and abilities have more demanding jobs and face more responsibilities (Doughty, 2013). However, the research among hospital nurses has shown contradicting results, indicating that nurses with secondary school education were feeling more stressful at work than the ones with a college degree (Golubic et al., 2009). The study on stress among police employees has found that the relationship between education and occupational stress is non-linear. The results indicated that the respondents with a high school diploma had the highest stress levels, whereas employees with master's degree suffered from stress least of all. But at the same time officers with bachelor's degree were less exposed to stress compared to college graduates (Bartholome, 2007).

### **2.2.1 Effects of Occupational Stress**

Stress at work can have impacts on both individuals and the organization. Individuals suffering from work stress can have various problems, such as inability to relax or to concentrate, difficulties with thinking logically and making decisions, feeling distressed and irritable. One can also have troubles with sleeping, feeling tired, depressed, or anxious, or even have serious physical problems, such as heart diseases, disorders of the digestive system, increases in blood pressure, headaches, or musculo-skeletal disorders (Leka et al., 2004). In extreme cases, when stress is left untreated and is not managed properly, the consequences may be as serious as psychiatric disorders and psychological problems (Leka et al., 2004). When workers are suffering from stress and not getting enough support, or simply are not aware of the ways to manage the stress, they might also get engaged in unhealthy activities, such as smoking, consuming alcohol or taking drugs (Leka et al., 2004).

Researchers have also found that stress can be one of the main factors in such aggressive actions as sabotage, interpersonal aggression, hostility, and complaints (Luthans, 2011). Moreo-

ver, these actions are proved to be significant for poor job performance, lowered self-esteem, resentment of supervision, inability to concentrate and make decisions, and job dissatisfaction (Luthans, 2011; O'Neill & Davis, 2009). All these consequences of stress are costly for the employer and, therefore, of course, unfavourable.

Other effects of occupational stress on the companies are sometimes more apparent, for instance the damage done to the organization's image both internally and externally, and consequently, increased complaints from customers and clients. Unsafe working environment and increased number of accidents at work can lead to direct costs for the organization in terms of insurance and legal claims (Luthans, 2011; Leka et al., 2004). Last but not least, stress can heavily increase not only employees' absenteeism, but also boost the turnover rates (Leka et al., 2004; O'Neill & Davis, 2009).

According to existing literature, there are four ways in which employees can react on the work stress and job dissatisfaction: exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect (Farrell, 1983, cited by Hon et al., 2013). Workers can chose to leave the organization (exit), they can prefer to stay and to be actively involved in seeking for improvements and reducing the sources of stress (voice), some might decide to stay in the company and accept the situation as it is without any attempts to improve it (loyalty), or they can remain and passively demonstrate withdrawal behaviours (neglect). According to Farrell (1983, cited by Hon, 2013), the exit ad voice reactions are constructive for the organization, while loyalty and neglect are destructive ones.

### **2.2.2 Managing Occupational Stress**

Managing stress at work is important due to the various consequences that were discussed above. Even though many of them are dealing with individuals, they all might result in negative counter-productive consequences for the organization (e.g. job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, increased turnover intention (Kim et al., 2009). Cooper and Payne (1998, cited by Ross, 1997) insist that preventative measures taken by the management of the organization can maximize the profit margins and ensure employees' productivity and satisfaction. Therefore, organizations should be concerned about and engaged in the actions and measures to not only prevent excessive occupational stress among the employees, but also to be able to properly manage it in order to minimize the negative effects.

According to the World Health Organization (1986, cited by Leka et al., 2004) health is not only the absence of disease, but a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being. Therefore, a healthy working environment does not only mean the absence of harmful conditions, but also actively promoting healthy ones (Leka et al., 2004). This could include such actions as "continuous assessment of risks to health, the provision of appropriate information and training on health issues and the availability of health promoting organizational support practices and structures" (Leka et al., 2004).

In order to minimize the occupational stress, employees should have the opportunity to control their work, be engaged, and receive enough support from the colleagues and the management (WHO, 2016). Research conducted by Hon et al. (2013) states that feedback from supervisors can encourage employees' creativity and thus help them to perceive stress as rather challenge-related and positive. Ross (1997) has found that clear and autonomous work role, improved communication among the employees and with the management, and more attention from the management to the needs of the workers and their families can contribute to the effective stress avoidance or minimization.

### **2.2.3 Occupational Stress in the Hospitality Industry**

The occupational stress in "low risk industries" that are employing emotional and aesthetic labour (Hannif et al., 2006) has already been discussed in several research papers. Even though hospitality industry belongs to those "less hazardous" industries, there are several important characteristics that make hotel business environment rather stressful for the employees. First of all, many hotel workers have to constantly be in a direct contact with customers, providing services in a friendly, positive, and empathetic way (Lo & Lamm, 2005). Moreover, employees in many customer-oriented industries are often more exposed to the work stress due to the conflicting demands from the company, the supervisors, and the clients (Ruyter et al., 2001, cited by O'Neill & Davis, 2009). Also the working conditions in hospitality industry are often characterised by low wages, irregular working hours, high work demands and intensive interactions with the clients (Lo & Lamm, 2005).

Some authors argue that hotel work environment is especially stressful due to the dichotomous nature of the hotel industry, meaning that the emphasis put on fluctuating financial profits and tight margins are going along with the necessity to deliver quality service (Lo & Lamm, 2005). Various studies have also proved occupational stress to have negative influence on providing quality customer service due to the increased exhaustion of the workers (Varca, 1999; O'Neill & Davis, 2009).

Studies about the work-related stress in hospitality industry have found the correlation between stress and the physiological symptoms the employees are facing, such as headaches, fatigue, indigestion, ulcers, blood pressure, heart attacks, and strokes (Krone et al., 1989). These consequences might decrease the efficiency of employees and increase health expenditures for the employer (O'Neill & Davis, 2009).

O'Neill and Davis (2011) in their research aimed to understand the nature and quantity of hospitality employee stress. The authors identified two most common stressors – interpersonal tensions and overloads, and came to a conclusion that hotel managers are feeling the most stressors. They also stated that job stress and health problems have positive correlation.

A study by Brymer et al. (1991) has investigated the perceived stress level of the hospitality managers by asking them to estimate their stress level on the scale from 1 (very low) to 10 (very high). The average response was 7.55, which demonstrated a relatively high level of stress among the managers (Brymer et al., 1991). Hannif et al. (2006) in their article "Occupational Stress In The Service Sector: A New Dimension" have studied how service sector employees perceive stress and manage it. They came to a conclusion that although employees perceive their stress level as low to moderate, absenteeism and staff turnover rates are high and increase. Anbazhagan et al. (2013) in their research paper have used Occupational Stress Index in order to measure occupational stress of hotel employees in Puducherry. The study showed that 93.33% of the employees are suffering from stress and moderate level of job stress is prevailing in the industry. Karatepe et al. (2014) have evidenced that challenge stressors can have positive influence on the job satisfaction and job outcomes in the hotel industry as well. The authors came to a conclusion that challenge stressors lead to work engagement that in turn enhances job performance (Karatepe et al., 2014).

### **2.3 Job satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is one of the important topics to study when it comes to human resources. The fact that in hotel business employees are constantly interacting directly with customers only proves how essential it is to know which factors can influence job satisfaction and what consequences there might be.

It is believed that the concept of job satisfaction was first introduced by Landsberger (1958, cited by Khuong & Tien, 2013). Although he did not mention job satisfaction as such, Landsberger introduced the basis for this term. His Hawthorne effect indicated that employees are working not only because they are paid for that. Further on, the concept was thoroughly investigated and the job satisfaction idea emerged. The most common definition of job satisfaction was offered by Locke (1969, p. 317), who defined job satisfaction as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating ones' job values". Many studies identify job satisfaction as "an affective or emotional response to the comparison between actual and desired job characteristics" (Edwards & Shipp, 2007, p. 220). Another definition offered by Brief (1998, p. 86) states that job satisfaction is "an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favour or disfavour". The latter definition denotes an important fact that job satisfaction consist of two components: an affective reaction (i.e., whether the employee likes or dislikes the job), and a cognitive appraisal (i.e., whether the job is valuable for the employee) (Locke, 1976). However, this dichotomous view on job satisfaction was found rather confusing and thus two solutions were offered. One way would be to define job satisfaction exclusively by cognitive component, that is as "a positive (or negative) evaluative judgement one makes

about one's job or job situation" (Weiss, 2002, p.175). The other option would be to concentrate on affective terms, and thus treat the cognitive appraisal as a separate factor (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

The antecedents of job satisfaction can be divided into two groups: the ones intrinsic to the job environment and related to the job itself, and the ones arising from the individual's characteristics and traits (Spector, 1997, cited by Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010). Armstrong (2003) offered a more detailed classification and distinguished between extrinsic factors, intrinsic factors, social relationships at work, individual's capabilities to do the job, and the quality of supervision.

The factors influencing the job satisfaction can be summarized along the following dimensions: the work itself, pay, promotions, supervision, work group and working conditions (Luthans, 2011). Thus, the interesting and challenging content of work, career development opportunities, and family-friendly job environment can positively influence the job satisfaction. Fair and competitive wages and salaries are highly contributing to the job satisfaction of an employee, also because the employees perceive pay as an indicator of how valuable they are for the organization (Luthans, 2011). Promotion opportunities have quite diverse outcomes in terms of job satisfaction. For instance, employees promoted on the basis of their performance are feeling more satisfied than the ones promoted on the basis of seniority. Supervision affects the job satisfaction in terms of personal interest of supervisors in the employee's life, and the opportunities for the employees to participate in the decisions that influence their jobs. Having a strong, friendly, effective, and cooperative team at work can positively influence the job satisfaction of the employees. However, having a "good" team at work is not crucial to be satisfied. But the negative influence of bad relationships in the group has much more significance for the lower job satisfaction. The same principle applies to the working conditions: if they are suitable, the effect on satisfaction is not significant, but having poor working conditions can heavily decrease job satisfaction (Luthans, 2011). Research has found that such indicators as salaries, relationships with colleagues and supervisors, and work itself are the most important for job satisfaction (Gallardo et al., 2010). HR management practices, job design and characteristics can also influence job satisfaction of employees (Kusluvan et al., 2010).

Study has shown that hygiene factors are the most relevant when defining the job satisfaction levels in the hospitality industry due to lower expectations of the employees in this sector (Mullins, 1998). These factors include working conditions, interpersonal relations, supervision, job security, benefits, company policies and management, and salary (Herzberg et al., 1959, cited by Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010). The motivational factors from the theory introduced by Herzberg et al. (1959, cited by Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010), namely recognition, advancement, achievement, autonomy, work itself and responsibility, were found to have significantly less impact on job satisfaction in tourism industry. Accordingly, several studies have already evidenced that, for instance, sales managers facing high job demands, work-family

conflict, and having low job control tend to have lower job and life satisfaction (Chiang et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2011).

Clearly, job satisfaction is an important aspect in the lives of employees and enhancing it can bring benefits for the company as well. For instance, job satisfaction can moderately increase job performance. Of course, job satisfaction alone will not make the employees stay in the company and remain loyal, but it can definitely help to avoid extremely high turnover rates and decrease absenteeism. Moreover, increasing job satisfaction of the employees can reduce occupational stress (Luthans, 2011). Thus, employers should rather be interested in how they can improve job satisfaction among their employees. For instance, having fair salaries and wages, benefits, and offering promotion opportunities have proved to be important factors enhancing job satisfaction (Luthans, 2011). According to Lam et al. (2001), one of the ways to increase job satisfaction among employees can be organizing training workshops and development plans, especially for new employees. Making jobs more fun can also decrease the chances that employees feel dissatisfied with their job (Luthans, 2011).

Differences in job satisfaction according to several demographic characteristics were of interest for several researchers. For instance, studies on the differences due to the gender of the respondents have yielded controversial results. Thus, many researchers have not found the differences to be significant between men and women (Burke et al., 2008; Civilidag & Sargin, 2013; Civilidag, 2014). However, there was some evidence that women reported overall higher job satisfaction than men (Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010).

Saner and Eyüpoğlu (2013) in their research on job satisfaction among academics have found that married respondents indicate higher satisfaction than unmarried ones. However, Azim et al. (2013) have not found any significant differences in job satisfaction due to the marital status.

Age proved to have significant influence on the job satisfaction in some research papers. Thus, middle-aged employees (36-45 years old) reported more job satisfaction than the younger adults (Chandraiah et al., 2003; Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010). The lowest job satisfaction levels were reported by the employees under 25 years old (Al-Ababneh & Lockwood, 2010).

In terms of education, a research by Al-Ababneh and Lockwood (2010) has found that employees holding a degree are significantly more satisfied with their job than the ones without a degree. However, there have been researchers, who found education to either have negative influence on the job satisfaction (Rogers, 1991, cited by Bilgic, 1998), or no significant influence at all (Bilgic, 1998).

Studies on effects of parenthood on job satisfaction of employees did not come to a common conclusion. Some researchers have found that having children does not affect job satisfaction

(Forgionne & Peeters, 1982, cited by Bilgic, 1998), while others have concluded that number of children negatively influences job satisfaction (Bilgic, 1998).

It has already been mentioned before, that job satisfaction can be influenced by the occupational stress. The interrelations between these two important aspects of work have been of a great interest of many scientists. Thus, it has been found that stress at work has strong and negative correlation with job satisfaction in different industries (Richardson & Burke, 1991; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Rizwan et al., 2014; Xiang et al., 2014). Research conducted in the hospitality sector has found such stressors as interpersonal tensions and role ambiguity to have significant negative correlation with job satisfaction (Yang, 2010).

## **2.4 Employee loyalty**

Employee loyalty can be defined as a “psychological attachment or commitment to the organization” (Wan, 2012, p. 2). It arises from the increased job satisfaction and further develops into the sense of commitment and emotional attitude towards the company. A loyal employee is more likely to work efficiently towards the organizational goals and demonstrate productivity and customer orientation (Wan, 2012).

However, the modern definition of employee loyalty is rather complex and has stepped away from the traditional understating of loyalty as a “lifetime relationship with a particular employer” (Wan, 2012, p. 3). Nowadays, a longer tenure with an employer does not necessarily mean employee loyalty. For instance, many employees claim that they are staying at current job because they feel obliged to stay (34%), they believe it would be difficult to leave (41%), or because they are afraid of not being able to find another job (27%) (Wan, 2012). The numbers indicate that a significant number of employees are staying with their current employer rather out of necessity than loyalty.

The latest investigations on employee loyalty around the world show contradicting results on the levels of employee loyalty. On the one hand, the international survey on employee loyalty conducted by ManpowerGroup (2002) confirms that the employee loyalty is growing all over the world, although it varies across geographical locations and demographic groups. For instance, the highest loyalty levels were observed in Mexico, the Netherlands and the United States, whereas the lowest loyalty levels were reported in Japan and Italy. In terms of demographic characteristics, it has been found that women (76%) are more loyal toward their employer than men (68%) (ManpowerGroup, 2002). On the other hand, research conducted by Next Generation Consulting, Inc. (2002, cited by Wan, 2012) suggests that job rotations have already become a norm and by the age of 32 employees have had on the average nine jobs.

The report of Walker Employee Relations Benchmark 1999 (Wan, 2012) has identified that 33% of employees are not committed to the company and are planning to leave within the next two years. The main reasons for decreased loyalty and intentions to leave the organization are “lack of meaning, lack of efficacy, lack of values, lack of personal growth and lack of community” (Wan, 2012, p. 4).

Employee loyalty is an important factor for the organizations, especially in the service industry. There has been scientific evidence that employee loyalty positively influences customer loyalty, which in turn increases revenues for the company (Rucci et al., 1998, cited by Wan, 2012). The service-profit chain concept, developed by Heskett et al. (1994), found the relationship between such factors as profitability, customer loyalty, and employee satisfaction, loyalty, and productivity. As it can be seen in Figure 3, in order to have satisfied, and thus loyal, customers, the value of the service provided should be meaningful. This can be achieved with the help of the satisfied and thus productive and loyal employees. This concept once again demonstrates that satisfaction of the employees is directly and strongly correlated with their loyalty (Heskett et al., 1994).

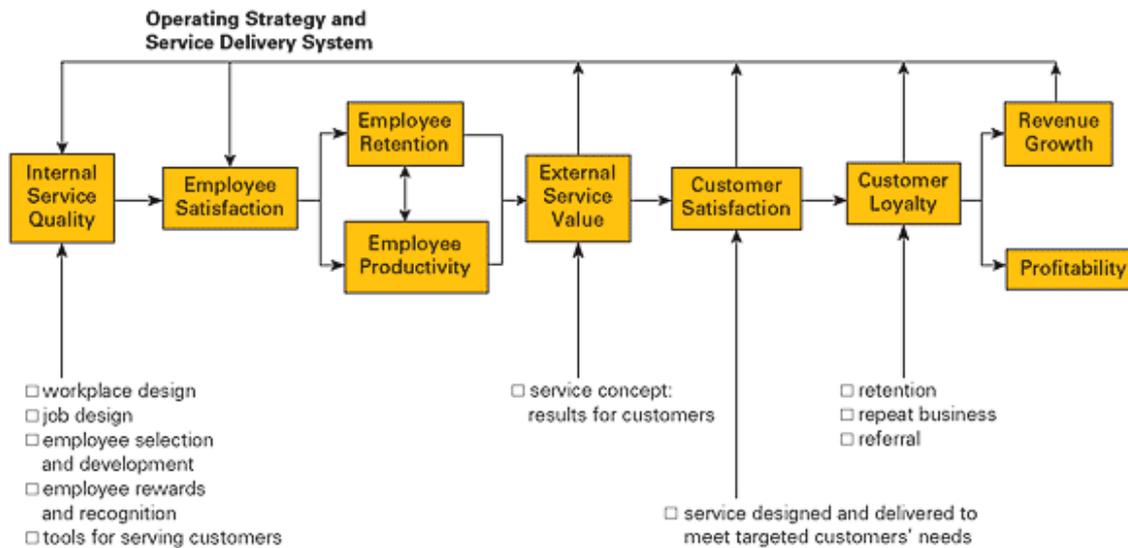


FIGURE 3 THE LINKS IN THE SERVICE-PROFIT CHAIN (HESKETT ET AL., 1994)

There have been many studies on the antecedents of the employee loyalty and organizational commitment. Of course, monetary rewards, sufficient and fair wages, and benefits are influencing loyalty of the employees. But it has been proved that there are other, non-monetary, factors that are more critical and should not be underestimated. For instance, work-family balance and management acknowledging the significance of personal and family life are some

of the essential factors contributing to employee loyalty (Wan, 2012). On the contrary, work-family conflict is a recognized problem that has been often proved to have high impact on employee turnover, poor morale, decreased performance and commitment (Zhao et al., 2011). Research conducted by Karatepe and Uludag (2008) similarly confirms the fact that frontline hotel employees' tendency to leave the job is significantly and positively correlated with the conflicts related to work and family imbalance.

Another important factor influencing employee loyalty mentioned in many studies is performance appraisal and feedback (Jawahar, 2006; Wan, 2012). Not only fair, objective, and clear evaluation of employee's performance can influence the loyalty (Wan, 2012), but it also plays a significant role in the relationship between employee loyalty and satisfaction (Jawahar, 2006). Furthermore, relationships with supervisors and managers are of importance for employee loyalty. Quality of support and supervision, strong leadership, effective management, appreciation and positive attitude from the supervisors lead to higher levels of employee loyalty (Locke, 1976; ManpowerGroup, 2002; Wan, 2012). Among other drivers for employee loyalty are the opportunities for personal growth, appropriate skills training, the organization satisfying the needs of the customers or the society (Wan, 2012), good teamwork, trustworthy brand, variety and personal interest in the job (ManpowerGroup, 2002).

Service sector employees reported 'open and honest communication' as one of the most important factors for their loyalty (ManpowerGroup 2002). Other reasons for higher staff turnover identified by the hotel employees in the study conducted by Fallon and Rutherford (2010, p. 454) are: "treatment by superiors, amount of work hours, job pressure, scheduling, training, fringe benefit packages, better opportunities elsewhere, and physical demand of the job".

Admittedly, there have not been many studies that explored the influence of demographical groups on the employee loyalty. However, several studies have included this aspect in the framework. Thus, as it was already mentioned above, women tend to show more loyalty towards the job than men (ManpowerGroup, 2002; Sheikhy & Khademi, 2015). Study conducted by Sheikhy and Khademi (2015) has not found any significant differences in the loyalty of the employees due to their education.

Another study has indicated that employees in the age from 55 to 64 are staying with their current employer for much longer period of time (median of 9.3 years) compared to the younger workers in the age from 25 to 34 (median of 2.9 years) (Taylor, 2006). However, longer tenure does not necessarily equal to higher employee loyalty. As it was discussed before, there might be other factors that can cause longer tenure.

The effects of having children on the loyalty of an employee are not sufficiently studied. The research by Sibbald et al. (2003) has indicated that employees with children under 18 years old

were less likely to leave the company. This might be explained by the bigger amount of responsibilities that parents have, however, does not necessarily mean that the loyalty is high.

More recent studies have also shown that organizational loyalty has very strong negative correlation with turnover intentions (Wright & Kehoe, 2009; Bhatnagar, 2012; Mohsin et al., 2015), meaning that engaged and loyal workers are more likely to be satisfied with their job and therefore less exposed to the problem of absenteeism and turnover. Thus, it is of importance and interest to have a closer look at the turnover issues.

Staff turnover has been a topic of interest for many researchers in recent years. Employees in the service industry are essential for the success of the company as they are directly involved in service delivery process and can affect customer satisfaction. However, staff turnover, especially in the hospitality industry has become exceptionally high in the last decades (Yang, 2010) and is often around 200% to 300% per year (Demir et al., 2007, p. 477). These aspects make it of a high interest and importance to investigate the reasons underlying the phenomena.

Turnover intention is a “conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organization” (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262) and it represents the individual’s own subjective possibility or probability to leave the job in the nearest future (Halawi, 2014). Mobley et al. (1979, cited by Halawi, 2014) distinguished four cognitive stages of turnover intention: (1) Thinking of quitting; (2) Planning to stay or leave; (3) Searching for alternative career; (4) A desire to leave current career.

Porter and Steers (1973) introduced one of the first models investigating the antecedents of turnover. They have grouped the factors affecting the turnover as follows: organization-wide, immediate work environment, job content, and personal factors. Organization-wide factors are pay and promotion, job security, and organizational size. While the impact of the first two factors on the turnover is rather clear and is represented by negative correlation, the third one, organizational size, did not show significant impact on staff turnover, however, absenteeism was considerably higher in larger companies (Porter & Steers, 1973). Immediate work environment factors include supervisory style, work unit size, and the nature of peer group interaction. Job content factors are represented by the general nature of work, job stress and repetitiveness, job autonomy and responsibility, and role ambiguity and conflict. The evidence showed that turnover has positive correlation with such factors as job dissatisfaction, job stress and repetitiveness, perceived lack of job autonomy or responsibility (Porter & Steers, 1973, Ahmad et al., 2012). Role ambiguity and role conflict can influence turnover in two ways: first, the clarity of the job requirements can help to hire people who are appropriate for the job and are aware of the expectation and the rewards in the first place, and secondly, precise role perceptions can help to adjust the expectations of existing employees to realistic levels. In both cases, the expectations of the employees are more likely to be met and therefore their satisfaction is expected to be higher and decrease the turnover intentions (Porter & Steers,

1973). Last but not least, personal factors that can affect staff turnover include age, tenure with the organization, similarity of job and vocational interest, personality traits, and family considerations. While age and the time spent in the organization are negatively correlated with the turnover, similarity between the actual job and the vocational interests has a positive relationship with employee's withdrawal intentions. According to the research, more extreme personality traits can lead to increased turnover. Marriage and family concerns effect on turnover differ by gender. Thus, women tend to withdraw due to family circumstances, while men do not show any tendency due to this factor (Porter & Steers, 1973).

There is a general notion that the longer a worker stays in the organization, the more valuable he or she becomes (Iqbal et al., 2015). However, there are certain researchers who point out the dichotomous understanding of the turnover process as such. Wood (1992, p.95) mentions that there are two opinions about the labour turnover: "The first sees labour turnover as problematic for the industry, the second regards high turnover as an unavoidable and even necessary and desirable feature of hotels and catering". Manley (1996) discusses both views on the turnover problem and stresses the need for better research and understanding of the topic in order to be able to manage the turnover issue appropriately.

One of the main arguments for the turnover having positive effects is the value of mobility for the staff (Bowey, 1976, cited by Deery & Shaw, 1997). Riley (1980) supports the idea that higher turnover facilitates the development of skills among the employees. However, it is important to understand that these arguments are coming from the employee's point of view rather than management's or organisation's. Sullivan (2009) conversely argues that there are positive effects of turnover on the organization as well. He distinguishes between three types of staff turnover in the organizations: desirable, neutral, and undesirable. Desirable turnover is referred to losing the employees with poor performance, irrelevant skills, or tendency to create problems. Neutral turnover might imply some replacement costs but is still considered to be acceptable. Examples of neutral turnover would be employees leaving the position that is not difficult to fill again, the ones who were hired for short-term in the first place, or workers quitting the job due to illness or other unpredictable causes. The worst type of turnover for the company is, of course, critical or undesirable turnover. This turnover includes top employees, who are critical for performing certain tasks, providing very specific knowledge or experience, leading or managing the team. If an employee has been an essential part of the succession plan or if he or she left the job to go to the direct competitor, the consequences for the organization can be severe (Sullivan, 2009).

Among other potential negative consequences for the organization caused by high turnover rates are decreased quality of services and goods, high replacement and recruitment costs, and reduced productivity and profitability (Johnson, 1981, cited by Deery & Shaw, 1997; Manley, 1996). Another effect of turnover that is particularly relevant for the hotel industry is that

loyal guests are not recognized by the new staff, and the risk of the guests following favorite staff to other hotels (Manley, 1996).

Previous research has also found evidence that job stress has negative correlation with organizational commitment (Garg & Dhar, 2014). Although more decent research on the interrelations between occupational stress and employee loyalty is lacking, there is sufficient evidence that employees experiencing more stress are also more likely to leave the organization (House & Rizzo, 1972; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Bhatti et al., 2010).

It can be concluded from the above that most of the antecedents are usually under control of the management, meaning that once the drivers for employee loyalty are understood, the appropriate strategies can help to increase loyalty and decrease the turnover in the organization. Wan (2012) has given a decent overview of the possible measures that can improve the loyalty of the employees. For example, creating dialogue with employees, listening to their needs, providing constructive feedback, advocating for them, and having the broader perspective of their lives will help to overcome communication and work-life balance issues. Establishing good working conditions, ensuring a competitive salary, providing proper training, empowering and engaging employees will certainly enhance their loyalty to the company (Wan, 2012). Nevertheless, the strategies should be chosen purposefully and must address clearly defined problems and objectives.

## **2.5 Chain vs independent hotels**

In order to be able to answer the research question of the current paper, it is also necessary to give an overview of what is meant by the independent and chain hotels and what are the differences between them. The distinction between chain and independent hotel is based on the principle of ownership and affiliation. Thus, independent hotel is managed individually and has no affiliation with other properties (Kasavana & Brooks, 2005, cited by Kapiki, 2013). Chain hotel is one belonging to a group of hotels with a shared common brand and a certain degree of common management (Becerra et al., 2016). Chain affiliation options include management contracts, franchises, and referral groups (Kasavana & Brooks, 2005, cited by Kapiki, 2013).

Belonging to a hotel chain can have certain benefits for the hotel. First of all, positive effects of belonging to the hotel chain are reflected in the financial performances and higher competitiveness in the market (Becerra et al., 2016). Research has shown that chain hotels have lower failure rates through economies of scale and transfer of knowledge within the chain (Ingram & Baum, 1997, cited by Becerra et al., 2016).

However, belonging to a chain can be very costly for a company, e.g. costs of maintaining a franchise represent 6-8% or more of the revenue (Kapiki, 2013). Besides, some studies have

not indicated significant differences in revenue or performance between independent and chain hotels (Becerra et al., 2016). Moreover, a study conducted by O'Neill and Carlbäck (2011) has stated that while chain hotels have higher occupancy rates, independent properties benefit from higher average daily rates and revenues per available room. A research conducted by Kapiki (2013) has concluded that, for instance, the independent hotels in Greece perform considerably better than the chain ones. So, for certain types of hotels, depending on their market positioning and segmentation, it is more advantageous to operate independently (Raleigh, 1999, cited by Kapiki, 2013).

Most of the studies conducted to compare the chain and independent hotels were focusing on their performance, revenues, or competition (Kapiki, 2013; Becerra et al., 2016). However, little research has been done to evaluate and compare two types of hotels in terms of rather human recourses and organizational behaviour issues, such as occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty. Although these topics are well covered by the studies with respect to the hospitality industry as a whole, there is a certain lack of comparative research done in this area. Lo and Lam (2005) in their study investigated the occupational stress from the employment relations perspective and did this by comparing an individual and a chain hotel. The results of the perceived occupational stress by the employees were quite similar, with chain hotel employees facing slightly higher levels of stress (Lo & Lamm, 2005). However, it cannot be reliably concluded that the differences between the two hotels are caused by the difference in the ownership. Consequently, further research on this particular topic is needed.

## **3 METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter describes the methodology that has been used for testing the hypotheses presented in the introduction. The aim of this paper is to analyse the differences between chain and independent hotels in the occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty. The investigation of these factors from different points of view is also one of the objectives of this research. The study addresses the correlations between occupational stress, job satisfaction and employee loyalty in both hotels. Further, all variables are also tested on the significant differences based on various demographic characteristics. Last but not least, the significant differences between the hotels are tested. Following sections give a more detailed overview on the methodology used in this research.

### **3.2 Selection of methodology**

Due to the exploratory nature of the current research, a quantitative comparative case study method is selected. Case study is a detailed analysis of specific social settings or its certain aspects (Black & Champion, 1976, cited by Pizam, 1994). Yin (2009) states that case study is an empirical method, which thoroughly analyses a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context. Case study methodology is widely used in tourism and hospitality related research (Beeton, 2005). Taking into consideration the complexity of this field, it is impossible to have one appropriate methodology for the research; therefore, the combinations of methods and different alternatives are sought for.

Case study method is chosen for the current research due to several reasons. One of the main advantages of the case study methodology is that it allows flexibility in using different kinds of data-collection (Black & Champion, 1976, cited by Pizam, 1994). Moreover, case study methodology allows not only to perform an exploratory part of the investigation, but also to include interpretation, reasoning and logic, and thus help to get place-specific conceptual visions that can be further tested for wider applicability either by doing additional case studies or by applying other types of methodology (Beeton, 2005). In other words, case studies can help to collect background information and to generate further hypotheses (Pizam, 1994). The comparative nature of the current case study method, therefore, gives an opportunity for educating and defining new dimensions and dissimilarities in the investigated topic.

As mentioned before, case study approaches are widely used in the tourism and hospitality research. Veal (1992) distinguishes between different types of case studies performed in the tourism sector. For instance, case studies can consist of single individuals (e.g. Rapoport &

Rapoport, 1975), whole countries (e.g. Williams & Shaw, 1988), or companies and organizations (e.g. Harris & Leiper, 1995). Lu et al. (2013) have conducted a case study research on the business hotel chains. Lo and Lamm (2005) in their research on occupational stress in the hospitality industry have chosen a comparative case study analysis, also comparing two types of hotels: chain and individually owned.

### **3.3 Research instrument**

A quantitative research method is used for primary data collection in this research. A paper-and-pencil self-administered questionnaire (Appendix 1) technique is chosen due to the nature of the research and the measurement scales chosen. In order to ensure anonymity and eliminate interviewer bias, standardized questions are designed.

The questionnaire is divided into 4 sections. The first one, Background Information part is designed in order to collect demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, marital status, education, number of children at home (if any), as well as the position of an employee in the hotel. The other three parts include questions from the scales that were chosen to measure three variables analyzed in the current study, namely occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty. The measurement scales are discussed in the following sections.

#### **3.3.1 Occupational stress**

Occupational stress is determined using the Generic Job Stress Questionnaire - GJSQ (NIOSH Generic Job Stress Questionnaire, n.d), which was developed within The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) and based on frameworks proposed by Caplan et al. (1975), Cooper and Marshall (1976), and House (1974) (Rationale for NIOSH Generic Job Stress Questionnaire, n.d.). The questionnaire is adapted to the current research goals and interests. The Questionnaire thoroughly covers various aspects of job, from which the following parts have been used: Conflict At Work; Job Requirements; Mental Demands; Workload and Responsibility; Your Job; Your Job Future (NIOSH Generic Job Stress Questionnaire, n.d).

The following eight occupational stressors are measured by means of adapted NIOSH Generic Job Stress Questionnaire (n.d.): role conflict (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.82$ ), role ambiguity (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.74$ );), intragroup conflict (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.86$ ), intergroup conflict (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.85$ ), job future ambiguity (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.65$ ), workload (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.85$ ), responsibility for people (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.62$ ), and mental demands (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.75$ ). As generally accepted level of the reliability of measurement scales, represented by Cronbach's  $\alpha$ , varies between 0.70 and 0.95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011), it can be that the all but one job stressor fulfil the criteria. In terms of validity, the scales included in the NIOSH GJSQ were already chosen with the condition of acceptable reliability and validity. Moreover, the NIOSH GJSQ itself was tested and proved to be reliable and valid (Kazronian et al., 2013).

All questions are measured on the basis of 5-point Likert scale to guarantee consistent results. The questions are designed in such a way, that after reversing necessary items, the average of all items was computed in order to present the overall stress level score for an individual. The higher the score, the higher is the stress level, with a minimum of 1 and a maximum of 5.

### **3.3.2 Job satisfaction**

In order to measure the job satisfaction, the questions covering this topic from the above-mentioned NIOSH Generic Stress Questionnaire (n.d.) are adapted. The measures were developed by Caplan et al. (1975) with Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.83$ , which represents the acceptable level of reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Again, after reversing the scores, the average score is computed, with the following meaning: the higher the score is, the higher the job satisfaction is, with a minimum of 1 and a maximum of 3.

### **3.3.3 Employee loyalty**

Employee loyalty is analysed using the Antecedents of Employee Loyalty Scale, developed by Chen and Wallace (2011) for investigating the factors influencing employee loyalty. This scale consists of 21 items in 5 various factors, which are measured on a 5-point Likert scale. The 5 factors represented are as follows: Commitment to Managers and Company (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.74$ ), Job Conditions (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.73$ ), Personal Benefits (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.70$ ), Service Element and Location (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.69$ ), and Career and Status (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.78$ ) (Chen & Wallace, 2011). Again, this measurement scale factors can be considered reliable, with only one alpha slightly lower than 0.70 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

## **3.4 Selection of study site**

The empirical data was collected in the late spring, simultaneously in both hotels in order to avoid potential bias due to the different occupancy. Moreover, since the high season for tourism was already starting, both hotels have indicated good occupancy rates, which means that the employees were already exposed to more demanding job conditions. The questionnaires were distributed among the employees from certain departments (Housekeeping, Front Office, Food & Beverage, Reservations, and Sales departments) in two hotels, which agreed to participate in the research. The hotels are both situated in one city center in Russia, belong to the same hotel category (four stars), however, there are certain differences in the organizational profile of the two hotels. Table 3 gives an overview of the important details about the two hotels involved in the current study. Hotel A is independently owned and operated, while Hotel B belongs to the international hotel chain. As it can be seen from Table 3, the hotels have notable difference in the number of rooms. However, the rooms to employee ratios are very similar, which gives some comparison base.

	<b>Hotel A</b>	<b>Hotel B</b>
<b>Type of business</b>	Independent hotel	Chain hotel
<b>Age of business</b>	10 years	2 years
<b>Number of rooms</b>	245	120
<b>Number of employees</b>	Total: 203	Total: 102
	Housekeeping 37	Housekeeping 20
	Front Office: 20	Front Office: 11
	Food & Beverage: 74	Food & Beverage: 47
	Reservations: 7	Reservations: 3
	Sales: 4	Sales: 4
<b>Rooms to employee ratio</b>	1.21	1.17
<b>Restaurant/Bar</b>	+/+	+/+
<b>Meeting facilities</b>	+	+

TABLE 3 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CASE STUDY HOTELS

### 3.5 Data analysis

The current study represents a correlational research method – the variables are measured in order to identify potential relationships between them. SPSS software, version 21 is used for identification of correlations. First, the datasets are examined using the histogram and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in order to evaluate the distribution on normality. If the normal distribution is proved, the t-test is used to measure the two parametric independent groups. However, if the normal distribution is violated, Mann-Whitney U-Test is chosen for the non-parametric independent groups comparison. If the comparison is done between more than two independent groups, then parametric ANOVA test or non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis H-test is used. Finally, the results with the respect to the significance and the direction of the correlations are analysed.

## 4 RESULTS

The empirical results of the present study are presented in this section. First, the general description of the sample is given, including response rate and demographic characteristics (Appendix 2). Further, the analysis of the hypotheses is demonstrated and discussed. The correlations and descriptive statistics are carried out using the SPSS software, version 21.

### 4.1 Description of the sample

As it was already mentioned before, the current study is focused on various analyses of occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty among employees from two hotels and from following departments: housekeeping, front office, food and beverage, reservations, and sales. In Hotel A the total of 142 questionnaires were distributed, and 97 of those were returned completed, resulting in a response rate of 68.3%. In Hotel B, 85 questionnaires were distributed, and 61 of those were completed and returned, giving a response rate of 71.8%.

As it can be seen from the Figure 4, female employees represent the majority of the sample in both hotels, although the proportions are similar across the two hotels. Thus, Hotel A has 70.1% of women and 29.9% of men, compared to 67.2% women and 32.8% men in Hotel B.

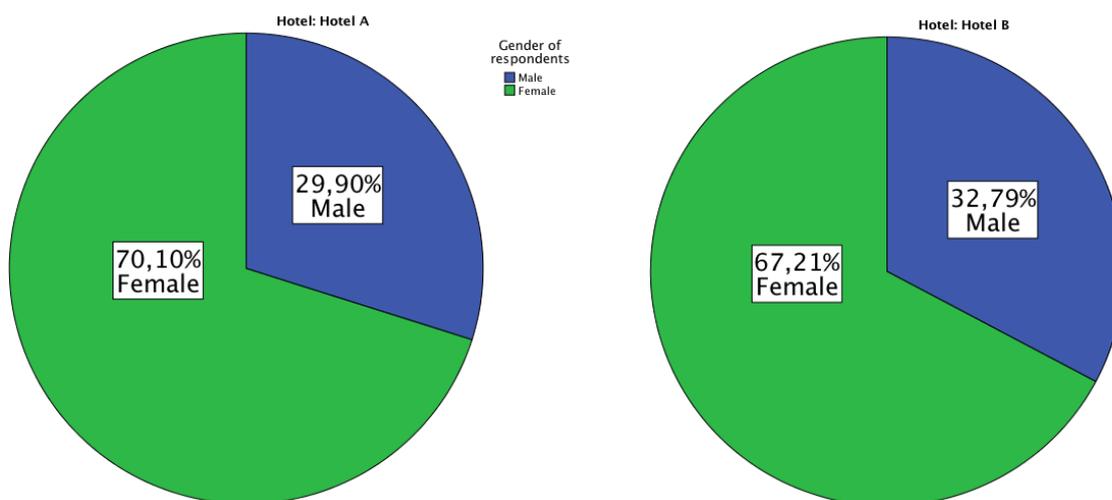


FIGURE 4 GENDER OF RESPONDENTS IN THE CASE HOTELS

In terms of age, as it can be seen from the Figure 5, the majority of respondents from both hotels are between 25 and 34 years old. However, Hotel A has a slightly bigger share of re-

spondents at this age. The other age groups are more equally distributed in Hotel B than in Hotel A.

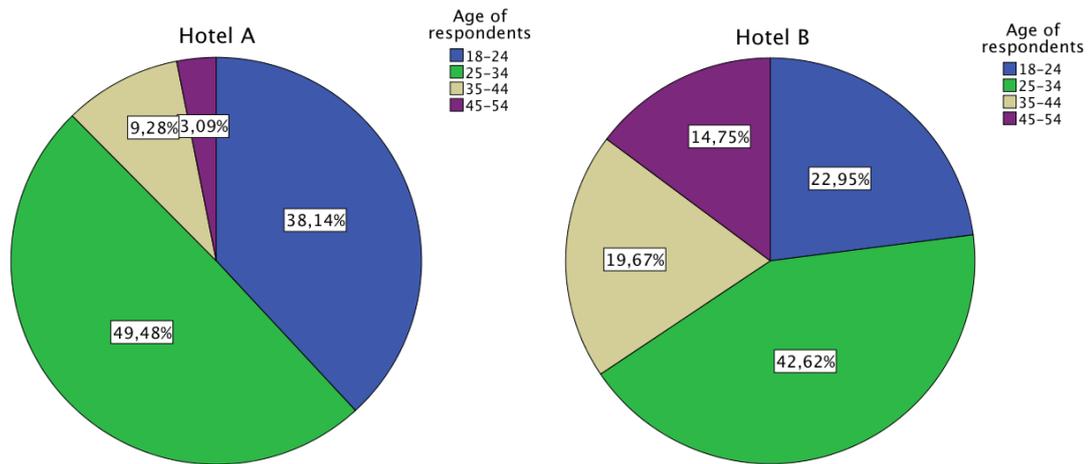


FIGURE 5 AGE OF RESPONDENTS IN THE CASE HOTELS

In terms of education, as it can be seen from Figure 6, the education level varies considerably between the two hotels. While in Hotel A the majority of respondents finished high school, in Hotel B slightly more employees from the sample graduated from college.

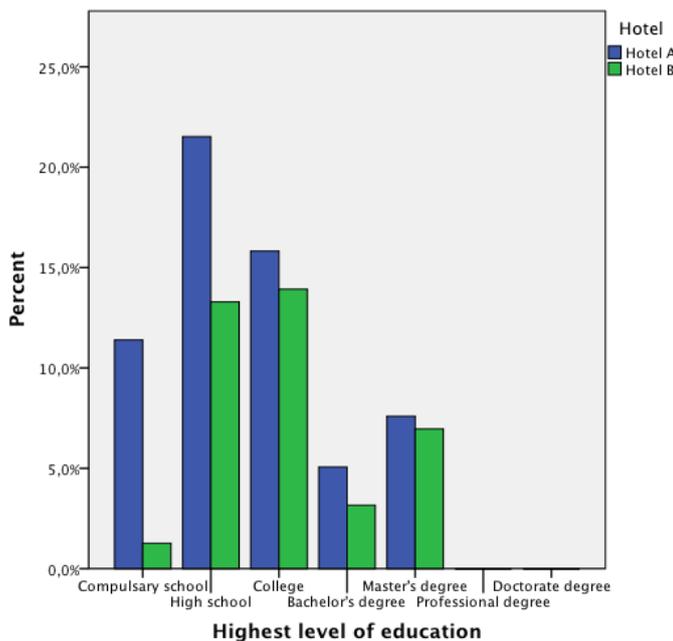


FIGURE 6 EMPLOYEES' EDUCATION IN THE CASE HOTELS

In terms of marital status, there are some noteworthy differences observed between the hotels as well. It can be seen in Figure 7, that while Hotel A has the biggest proportion of single employees (40.21%), most of the respondents from Hotel B are married (47.54%). A higher

proportion of younger respondents in Hotel A might explain such a difference: 87.62% of employees are under 34 years old, compared to 65.57% in the Hotel B.

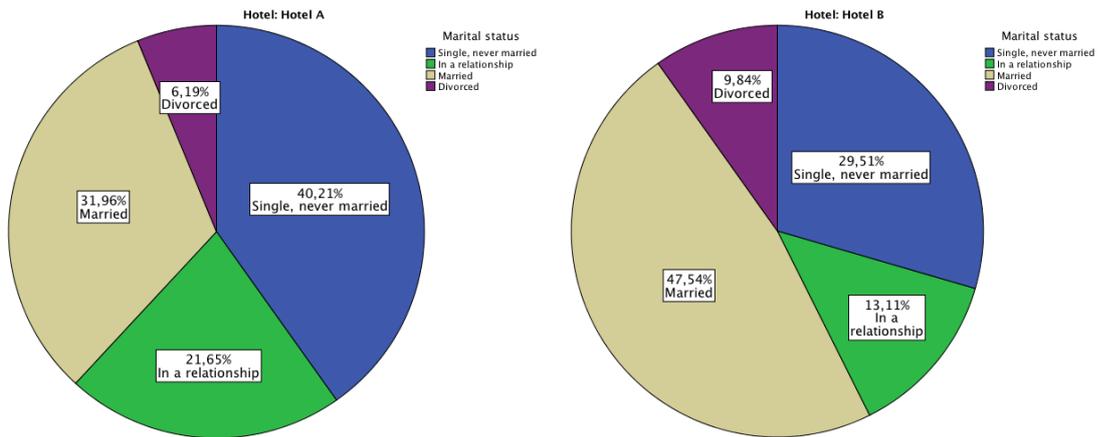


FIGURE 7 EMPLOYEES' MARITAL STATUS IN THE CASE HOTELS

Figure 8 demonstrates the percentages of employees in each hotel with respect to their parenthood status. Thus, it can be seen that the majority of the employees in Hotel A (59.79%) does not have children, while the majority of respondents in Hotel B (57.38%) has at least one child at home.

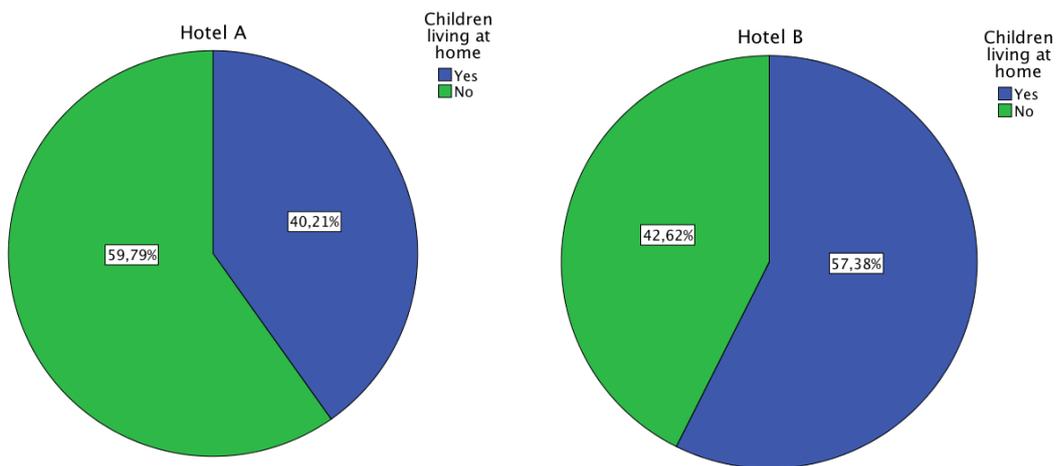


FIGURE 8 PARENTHOOD STATUSES OF EMPLOYEES IN THE CASE HOTELS

## 4.2 Testing the hypotheses

This section represents the analysis of the hypotheses that were proposed in the introduction. First, the correlations between occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty are analysed in each case hotel. Then, the same factors are examined in terms of differences due to the demographic groups in each of the hotels. Finally, the differences in occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty between the two case study hotels are investigated.

### 4.2.1 Correlations between occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty

Interestingly, the results of correlation analysis between the three variables were slightly different for the two hotels. Table 4 represents the results of the correlations among the variables in Hotel A, whereas Table 5 – in Hotel B. Findings rejected **H1** in both hotels, suggesting that there is a significant negative correlation between occupational stress and job satisfaction among employees. Thus, the higher occupational stress level is, the lower job satisfaction among employees. However, one has to admit that the strength of correlation in both hotels is rather weak (Hotel A: correlation coefficient = -0.303;  $p = 0.003 < 0.01$ ; Hotel B: correlation coefficient = -0.263,  $p = 0.041 < 0.05$ ). This finding supports the literature on the previous research papers that occupational stress negatively influences the job satisfaction (Richardson & Burke, 1991; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Rizwan et al., 2014).

**Correlations**

		Stress_level	Job_satisfac tion	Employee_loy alty
Stress_level	Pearson Correlation	1	-,303**	-,240*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,003	,018
	N	97	97	97
Job_satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-,303**	1	,173
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,003		,089
	N	97	97	97
Employee_loyalty	Pearson Correlation	-,240*	,173	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,018	,089	
	N	97	97	97

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 4 CORRELATIONS BETWEEN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND EMPLOYEE LOYALTY IN HOTEL A

Correlations

		Stress_level	Job_satisfac tion	Employee_loy alty
Stress_level	Pearson Correlation	1	-,263*	-,188
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,041	,147
	N	61	61	61
Job_satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-,263*	1	,550**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,041		,000
	N	61	61	61
Employee_loyalty	Pearson Correlation	-,188	,550**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,147	,000	
	N	61	61	61

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

\*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 5 CORRELATIONS BETWEEN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND EMPLOYEE LOYALTY IN HOTEL B

**H2** could only be rejected by the results form Hotel A, where stress level has rather weak, but significant negative correlation with employee loyalty (correlation coefficient = -0.240;  $p = 0.018 < 0.05$ ), meaning that the more stress is experienced by an employee, the lower his or her loyalty to the organization is. The results on this hypothesis in Hotel B are not significant ( $p = 0.147 > 0.05$ ). Thus, **H2** for Hotel B is supported.

Employee loyalty and job satisfaction variables have shown significant correlation only in the Hotel B, with a moderate positive relationship (correlation coefficient = 0.550;  $p = 0.000 < 0.01$ ). **H3** is therefore rejected, which means that the more satisfied the employees in Hotel B are, the more loyal they feel towards their job. However, **H3** for Hotel A has to be supported, as the correlation is not significant ( $p = 0.089 > 0.05$ ).

#### 4.2.2 Moderating role of gender

After running Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and observing the histograms, it can be concluded that the groups are not normally distributed; therefore, Mann-Whitney U-test is chosen. After testing all the variables with respect to the gender no significant difference was found between men and women in terms of occupational stress and job satisfaction in both hotels (Appendix 3). Thus, **H4a** and **H4b** are supported. However, **H4c** in Hotel A was rejected, meaning that there are significant differences ( $p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ) between men and women in terms of their employee loyalty in the independent hotel. As can be seen from the Table 6, mean rank is higher for male respondents (67.10), which means that male employees in Hotel A tend to be more loyal than female (41.28) employees.

**Ranks**

	Gender of respondents	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Stress_level	Male	29	47,59	1380,00
	Female	68	49,60	3373,00
	Total	97		
Employee_loyalty	Male	29	67,10	1946,00
	Female	68	41,28	2807,00
	Total	97		
Job_satisfaction	Male	29	53,03	1538,00
	Female	68	47,28	3215,00
	Total	97		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Stress_level	Employee_loyalty	Job_satisfaction
Mann-Whitney U	945,000	461,000	869,000
Wilcoxon W	1380,000	2807,000	3215,000
Z	-,323	-4,140	-,936
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,746	,000	,349

a. Grouping Variable: Gender of respondents

TABLE 6 DIFFERENCES IN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND EMPLOYEE LOYALTY BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN IN HOTEL A

### 4.2.3 Moderating role of marital status

Normal distribution is proved to be not possible according to histograms and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests, thus, Kruskal-Wallis H-test for non-parametric independent groups is chosen. There is no evidence of significant differences in occupational stress, job satisfaction, or employee loyalty due to marital status in both hotels (Appendix 3). Therefore, all three hypotheses, **H5a**, **H5b**, and **H5c** are supported.

### 4.2.4 Moderating role of age

Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests and histograms show that the groups are not normally distributed. Therefore, Kruskal-Wallis H-test for non-parametric groups is chosen. Kruskal-Wallis test has shown significant differences due to the age of respondents in occupational stress in Hotel A (Table 7). However, in order to find out which age groups significantly differ from each other, post-hoc test is done: pairwise Mann-Whitney tests with Bonferroni correction ( $0.05/6=0.00833$ ) for all 6 pairs. As all Mann-Whitney tests were not significant ( $p > 0.00833$ ), it can be concluded, that no significant differences exist across the age groups. Thus, **H6a** for the both hotels is supported.

**Ranks**

	Age of respondents	N	Mean Rank
Stress_level	18-24	37	44,58
	25-34	48	56,95
	35-44	9	38,00
	45-54	3	9,33
	Total	97	
Employee_loyalty	18-24	37	45,01
	25-34	48	52,31
	35-44	9	47,50
	45-54	3	49,67
	Total	97	
Job_satisfaction	18-24	37	49,51
	25-34	48	48,49
	35-44	9	54,11
	45-54	3	35,50
	Total	97	

**Test Statistics<sup>a,b</sup>**

	Stress_level	Employee_loyalty	Job_satisfaction
Chi-Square	12,090	1,437	1,046
df	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	,007	,697	,790

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Age of respondents

TABLE 7 DIFFERENCES IN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND EMPLOYEE LOYALTY DUE TO THE AGE IN HOTEL A (KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST)

Employee loyalty in Hotel B significantly differs dependent on the age of respondent ( $p=0.007 < 0.05$ ) according to the Kruskal-Wallis test (Table 8). Nevertheless, post-hoc test is needed, so pairwise Mann-Whitney tests with Bonferroni correction ( $0.05/6=0.00833$ ) for all 6 pairs are run. All these tests are not significant ( $p > 0.00833$ ), thus it can be concluded, that no significant differences in employee loyalty exist due to the age in Hotel B. Thus, **H6c** for both hotels is supported as well.

Job satisfaction does not differ with respect to the age of respondents in both hotels (Table 7; Table 8). Therefore, **H6b** is supported for both hotels.

**Ranks**

	Age of respondents	N	Mean Rank
Stress_level	18-24	14	34,96
	25-34	26	33,60
	35-44	12	29,00
	45-54	9	20,00
	Total	61	
Employee_loyalty	18-24	14	24,96
	25-34	26	34,77
	35-44	12	38,54
	45-54	9	19,44
	Total	61	
Job_satisfaction	18-24	14	23,86
	25-34	26	32,87
	35-44	12	39,08
	45-54	9	25,94
	Total	61	

**Test Statistics<sup>a,b</sup>**

	Stress_level	Employee_loyalty	Job_satisfaction
Chi-Square	4,872	8,786	5,976
df	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	,181	,032	,113

a. Kruskal Wallis Test  
 b. Grouping Variable: Age of respondents

TABLE 8 DIFFERENCES IN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND EMPLOYEE LOYALTY DUE TO THE AGE IN HOTEL B (KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST)

#### 4.2.5 Moderating role of education

Groups split by highest level of education are proved to not be normally distributed, thus Kruskal-Wallis test is chosen to analyze the moderating role of education in occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty. The results for Hotel A are not significant (Appendix 3). Thus **H7a**, **H7b**, and **H7c** are supported for the independent hotel.

However, Kruskal-Wallis test has shown significant results for all three variables in Hotel B ( $p < 0.05$ ), as it can be seen in Table 9. Yet, the post-hoc test is still needed. Pairwise Mann-Whitney tests with Bonferroni correction ( $0.05/10=0.005$ ) are run to verify the differences between all 5 groups.

**Ranks**

	Highest level of education	N	Mean Rank
Stress_level	Compulsary school	2	3,50
	High school	21	42,33
	College	22	28,82
	Bachelor's degree	5	15,20
	Master's degree	11	25,91
	Total	61	
Employee_loyalty	Compulsary school	2	38,75
	High school	21	22,69
	College	22	28,89
	Bachelor's degree	5	53,00
	Master's degree	11	39,68
	Total	61	
Job_satisfaction	Compulsary school	2	56,50
	High school	21	27,86
	College	22	25,98
	Bachelor's degree	5	51,60
	Master's degree	11	33,05
	Total	61	

**Test Statistics<sup>a,b</sup>**

	Stress_level	Employee_loyalty	Job_satisfaction
Chi-Square	18,592	15,634	13,901
df	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	,001	,004	,008

a. Kruskal Wallis Test  
 b. Grouping Variable: Highest level of education

TABLE 9 DIFFERENCES IN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND EMPLOYEE LOYALTY DUE TO THE EDUCATION IN HOTEL B (KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST)

The results indicate that certain significant differences between groups have been found. Thus, high school graduates (mean rank=15.62) are experiencing more work related stress than employees with a bachelor's degree (mean rank=4.60). As it can be seen in Table 10, this relationship is significant ( $p=0.004 < 0.005$ ).

**Ranks**

	Highest level of education	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Stress_level	High school	21	15,62	328,00
	Bachelor's degree	5	4,60	23,00
	Total	26		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Stress_level
Mann-Whitney U	8,000
Wilcoxon W	23,000
Z	-2,900
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,004
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	,002 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: Highest level of education  
 b. Not corrected for ties.

TABLE 10 OCCUPATIONAL STRESS DIFFERENCES BETWEEN HIGH SCHOOL AND BACHELOR GRADUATES IN HOTEL B

Respondents with Bachelor's degree are also significantly more loyal and more satisfied with their job than the College graduates. Table 11 illustrates the differences in loyalty ( $p=0.001 < 0.005$ ), whereas Table 12 demonstrates the dissimilarities in job satisfaction ( $p=0.004 < 0.005$ ).

The differences across other groups have not been proved significant. Thus, **H7a**, **H7b**, and **H7c** can be partially rejected for the Hotel B.

**Ranks**

Highest level of education		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Employee_loyalty	College	22	11,61	255,50
	Bachelor's degree	5	24,50	122,50
Total		27		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Employee_loyalty
Mann-Whitney U	2,500
Wilcoxon W	255,500
Z	-3,286
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,001
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	,000 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: Highest level of education  
 b. Not corrected for ties.

TABLE 11 EMPLOYEE LOYALTY DIFFERENCES BETWEEN COLLEGE AND BACHELOR GRADUATES IN HOTEL B

**Ranks**

Highest level of education		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Job_satisfaction	College	22	11,95	263,00
	Bachelor's degree	5	23,00	115,00
Total		27		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Job_satisfaction
Mann-Whitney U	10,000
Wilcoxon W	263,000
Z	-2,888
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,004
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	,003 <sup>b</sup>

a. Grouping Variable: Highest level of education  
 b. Not corrected for ties.

TABLE 12 JOB SATISFACTION DIFFERENCES BETWEEN COLLEGE AND BACHELOR GRADUATES IN HOTEL B

#### 4.2.6 Moderating role of parenthood

Normal distribution in the groups is proved to be not possible according to histograms and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests, thus, Mann-Whitney U-test for non-parametric independent groups is chosen. The differences in the three variables due to the parenthood status for both case study hotels have been found not significant (Appendix 3). Therefore, the **H8a**, **H8b**, and **H8c** are supported.

#### 4.2.7 Differences in occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty between independent and chain hotels

In order to have an overview on the general results from both hotels, descriptive statistics are used. Thus, Table 13 describes what are the mean, medians, maximum and minimum values of

respective variables are. When looking at the descriptive data, it is necessary to remember that stress and loyalty were measured on the 5-point Likert scale, therefore, 5 would be the maximum of stress as well as of loyalty. Whereas, the maximum value for job satisfaction is 3.

**Statistics**

Hotel			Stress_level	Employee_loyalty	Job_satisfaction
Hotel A	N	Valid	97	97	97
		Missing	0	0	0
	Mean		2,9784	3,5542	2,1804
	Median		3,0000	3,5714	2,2500
	Minimum		2,02	2,14	1,00
	Maximum		3,62	4,90	3,00
Hotel B	N	Valid	61	61	61
		Missing	0	0	0
	Mean		2,4961	3,9094	2,2992
	Median		2,4400	3,8571	2,2500
	Minimum		1,96	3,19	1,25
	Maximum		3,36	4,90	3,00

TABLE 13 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF OCCUPATIONAL STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND EMPLOYEE LOYALTY IN CASE STUDY HOTELS

First, the two hotels were tested on normal distribution with the help of histograms and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Occupational stress and employee loyalty variables seem to be both normally distributed in two hotels according to the histograms (Appendix 3). However, job satisfaction seems to be not normally distributed. In order to check the visual perception, Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests are run. The results are represented in Table 14. Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests do not show any violations of the normal distribution (Occupational stress:  $p=0.420 > 0.05$ ,  $p=0.158 > 0.05$ ; Employee loyalty:  $p=0.843 > 0.05$ ;  $p=0.894 > 0.05$ ). Thus, t-test for comparing parametric independent groups is chosen for these variables. Since normality assumption is significantly violated for job satisfaction ( $p=0.024 < 0.05$ ,  $p=0.033 < 0.05$ ), Mann-Whitney U-test is used.

**One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test**

Hotel			Stress_level	Employee_loyalty	Job_satisfaction
Hotel A	N		97	97	97
	Normal Parameters <sup>a,b</sup>	Mean	2,9784	3,5542	2,1804
		Std. Deviation	,32888	,60610	,53369
	Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	,089	,062	,151
		Positive	,045	,062	,117
		Negative	-,089	-,059	-,151
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		,880	,615	1,489	
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		,420	,843	,024	
Hotel B	N		61	61	61
	Normal Parameters <sup>a,b</sup>	Mean	2,4961	3,9094	2,2992
		Std. Deviation	,26500	,42260	,46283
	Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	,144	,074	,184
		Positive	,144	,074	,184
		Negative	-,082	-,060	-,130
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1,127	,577	1,434	
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		,158	,894	,033	

- a. Test distribution is Normal.
- b. Calculated from data.

TABLE 14 KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST RESULTS FOR OCCUPATIONAL STRESS, JOB SATISFACTION, AND EMPLOYEE LOYALTY ACROSS TWO CASE STUDY HOTELS

Table 15 represents the results of Mann-Whitney Test on differences in job satisfaction between hotels. It can be seen, that the outcome is not statistically significant ( $p=0.291 > 0.05$ ), meaning that there are no significant differences between job satisfaction reported by the employees. Thus, **H10** is supported

**Ranks**

	Hotel	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Job_satisfaction	Hotel A	97	76,50	7420,50
	Hotel B	61	84,27	5140,50
	Total	158		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Job_satisfaction
Mann-Whitney U	2667,500
Wilcoxon W	7420,500
Z	-1,056
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,291

- a. Grouping Variable: Hotel

TABLE 15 MANN-WHITNEY TEST RESULTS ON DIFFERENCES IN JOB SATISFACTON BETWEEN CASE STUDY HOTELS

However, the T-Tests for the other two variables have shown significant results. Table 16 indicates that according to the means, occupational stress level among employees in Hotel A is significantly higher than in Hotel B ( $p=0.000 < 0.05$ ). Therefore, **H9** is rejected.

	Hotel	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Stress_level	Hotel A	97	2,9784	,32888	,03339
	Hotel B	61	2,4961	,26500	,03393

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Stress_level	Equal variances assumed	2,097	,150	9,648	156	,000	,48228	,04999	,38355	,58102
	Equal variances not assumed			10,131	146,577	,000	,48228	,04761	,38820	,57637

TABLE 16 T-TEST RESULTS ON DIFFERENCES IN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS BETWEEN CASE STUDY HOTELS

As can be seen in Table 17, the extent of employees' loyalty significantly differs across the two hotels ( $p=0.000 < 0.05$ ). More precisely, according to the means, employees in Hotel B are more loyal than in Hotel A. Thus, **H11** is rejected.

	Hotel	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Employee_loyalty	Hotel A	97	3,5542	,60610	,06154
	Hotel B	61	3,9094	,42260	,05411

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Employee_loyalty	Equal variances assumed	5,406	,021	-4,004	156	,000	-,35520	,08872	-,53044	-,17996
	Equal variances not assumed			-4,335	154,279	,000	-,35520	,08194	-,51708	-,19332

TABLE 17 T-TEST RESULTS ON DIFFERENCES IN EMPLOYEE LOYALTY BETWEEN CASE STUDY HOTELS

### 4.3 Conclusion

This chapter presented the main results of the current research. The hypotheses formulated to address the research questions were tested and the relationships were pointed out. Table 18 gives an overview of the results on hypotheses, whether they have been rejected or supported for both case study hotels. Discussion of the results and the conclusions are presented in the next chapter.

	Hotel A		Hotel B	
	Supported	Rejected	Supported	Rejected
H1		X		X
H2		X	X	
H3	X			X
H4a	X		X	
H4b	X		X	
H4c		X	X	
H5a	X		X	
H5b	X		X	
H5c	X		X	
H6a	X		X	
H6b	X		X	
H6c	X		X	
H7a	X			X
H7b	X			X
H7c	X			X
H8a	X		X	
H8b	X		X	
H8c	X		X	
H9	Rejected			
H10	Supported			
H11	Rejected			

TABLE 18 RESULTS OF HYPOTHESES TESTING

## 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter is focused on the discussion of the empirical results of current study. Thus, research questions that were posed in the introduction are addressed once again to summarize the results and draw conclusions. Further, limitations to this study, potential further research and overall conclusion are presented.

### 5.1 Interpretation of results

This section discusses the empirical research results of the current study. This is done by grouping the outcomes according to the research questions posed in the beginning of the research. Results on hypotheses testing are discussed in corresponding research question section.

#### 5.1.1 RQ 1: What are the relationships between occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty in chain hotel and independent hotel?

The research question was addressed by the hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. Hypothesis 1 has been rejected, meaning that both case hotels presented weak, but significant negative correlations between the two variables. This outcome has supported the existing literature stating that there is a negative relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction (Richardson & Burke, 1991; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Rizwan et al., 2014). Indeed, negative consequences of hindrance-related occupational stress on the employee's physiological and psychological health cannot be underestimated (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Luthans, 2011). Job satisfaction, in turn, is a "pleasurable emotional state" (Locke, 1969, p. 317). Thus, it is not surprising that these two variables are negatively correlated. It is hard to imagine that an employee who is exposed to strong or continuous stress can feel satisfaction with his or her work.

Hypotheses 2 and 3 have been rejected based on the results from only one of the two hotels. Thus, the relationship between occupational stress and employee loyalty in Hotel A was significantly negative. There is lack of research supporting or contradicting this outcome, however, the evidence shows that stressed employees have stronger intention to leave the company (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Bhatti et al., 2010).

Hypothesis 3, stating that there is no significant correlation between employee loyalty and job satisfaction, has been rejected in the case of Hotel B. Thus, it can be concluded that more satisfied employees in Hotel B tend to be more loyal. This finding supports the existing literature that claims that job satisfaction and employee loyalty have a positive relationship (LaLopa, 1997; Abdullah et al., 2009). Moreover, it is argued that employee loyalty actually arises from the increased satisfaction (Wan, 2012). The fact that hypotheses 2 and 3 were only rejected by

one of the hotels might be attributed to the limitations of the study, i.e. rather small sample size.

### **5.1.2 RQ 2: Which demographic characteristics play moderating roles in occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty in chain hotel and independent hotel?**

As it can be seen from the literature review, researchers have not reached a consensus on how occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty differ among different demographic groups. Therefore, it was also interesting to examine the moderating roles of these groups on chain and independent hotels.

Moderating role of gender has been found to be not significant for almost all variables in both hotels, meaning that there was no significant difference in occupational stress, job satisfaction, or employee loyalty between men and women. The only exception was the loyalty of men in Hotel A, which was significantly higher than the one of women. However, this result contradicts previous research conducted by ManpowerGroup (2002). Nonetheless, it has to be admitted that the proportion of male and female respondents in the samples was not equal, with much higher representation of female employees. This fact might have been a predetermining factor for the outcome.

Marital status was found to have no significant moderating effect across all tested variables in both hotels. These results are quite contradicting to some of the previous studies. Thus, there is evidence that married employees are experiencing more stress (Kessler, 1979), but at the same time are more satisfied than unmarried workers (Saner and Eyüpoğlu, 2013). This is rather surprising and unexpected fact, since work stress and job satisfaction have been often proved to have a negative correlation (Richardson & Burke, 1991; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Rizwan et al., 2014). However, there have been research papers that have not detected any relationship between job satisfaction and marital status.

Moderating role of age has found little significant support in the current research. Thus, age was found to be significant moderator for occupational stress in the independent hotel, and for employee loyalty in the chain hotel. However, tests have shown no significant results in terms of the detectable differences across the age groups. Most probably, this phenomenon can be explained by a rather small sample size, which was highly underrepresented by certain age groups.

Education was determined as a factor with significant influence on all three variables, but only in the chain hotel, and only across certain groups. Thus, employees with a bachelor's degree were significantly more satisfied with and loyal to their job. This fact contradicts some studies that have proven education to not have any influence on both employee loyalty (Sheikhy &

Khademi, 2015) and job satisfaction (Bilgic, 1998). At the same time, these findings are supported by the study conducted by Al-Ababneh and Lockwood (2010), who also stated that more educated employees are usually more satisfied with their jobs. Another finding in terms of education is that employees who finished high school were experiencing more occupational stress than ones with a bachelor's degree. Even though literature suggests that more educated employees are exposed to more stress than least educated, it has been noted that this relationship is not linear. Thus, in order to make valid conclusions, it is necessary to have a more representative sample with rather equally distributed education levels among respondents.

Previous research on how parents differ from non-parents in terms of their exposure to work stress, job satisfaction, and loyalty, was quite contradicting. While researchers have not come to a consensus on this topic, current study has not identified any significant influence of parenthood on these variables.

To conclude, it has to be admitted that current research has not found some strong and significant evidence about certain demographic groups and their moderating roles in employees' occupational stress, job satisfaction, and loyalty. The differences between the two types of hotel have also not been apparent, which could also be caused by quite a small sample size. However, since previous research on these topics was not consistent and sometimes presented absolutely contradictory results, it is of interest to continue research in this area in order to get a better understanding and a more complete picture of the scenery of work-related stress, satisfaction, and loyalty.

### **5.1.3 RQ 3: Are there any differences in occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty between chain and independent hotels?**

Differences between chain and independent hotels have always been a topic of interest not only for researchers, but also, and maybe even more, for the practitioners. In the recent years, the increased competition on the market makes it even more crucial to know how to gain the competitive advantage. Certainly, both chain affiliated and independent hotels have their advantages and disadvantages. Chain hotels can benefit from the shared knowledge and expertise, financial stability, and marketing activities (Ingram & Baum, 1997, cited by Becerra et al., 2016; Becerra et al., 2016). However, it is a well-known fact that people are the most important asset in the service industry. Thus, understanding the nature of such important factors as occupational stress, job satisfaction, and employee loyalty can help not only in properly managing human resources, but also in making the workplace attractive for the potential talents. Moreover, understanding some differences between the chain and independent hotels in terms of what do they offer as a workplace and what effects, if any, might there be on you as an employee.

The results of this study reject Hypothesis 9 and suggest that there is a significant difference in occupational stress level and employees' loyalty between the independent and the chain hotel. The outcome of the statistical research shows that employees in the independent hotel are significantly more stressed than the ones in the chain hotel. This could be explained by variety of factors. For instance, hotel chains usually have quite strict and well-defined organizational structure, with clear roles across all departments. Moreover, working in a relatively recently opened hotel might induce more challenge-related stressors with positive effects (Cavanaugh et al., 2000) for the employees, while management might be more attentive and responsive to the new ideas, suggestions, and the overall satisfaction of their employees. On the other hand, independent hotel might have a more hierarchical organizational structure, especially considering that it is on the market for already 10 years and the organizational culture might be fairly outdated. The management's vision and evaluation of certain aspects of work can be affected by the acquired habit of seeing them in the same light for a longer time. This can result in vicious circle of getting used to the existing problem, not undertaking actions to solve it, thus experience more stress, and get into new or the same issues again.

Hypothesis 11 has been rejected as well, meaning that the difference in employee loyalty in two hotels were significant. These could also be explained by a variety of factors. Both monetary and non-monetary rewards have been proved to have influence on the employee loyalty (Wan, 2012), thus employees in the chain hotel might be in a more advantageous position in these terms. For instance, some employees might value not only the feeling of belonging to a world-known brand group, but also the benefits offered to the employees by the hotel chain, for instance, special offers, or particular room rates for employees, families and friends.

Last but not least, there was no significant difference found in the job satisfaction of the employees from the two hotels. However, one has to admit, that mean value of job satisfaction level in the chain hotel is slightly higher than in the independent one. Since all three variables proved to have significant correlations at least in one of the hotels, and since the values of job satisfaction are somewhat higher in the chain hotel, it can be assumed that the small sample size has played a crucial role in supporting the Hypothesis 10.

## **5.2 Limitations and future research**

The proper understanding of the dimensions of occupational stress and its correlation with other important workplace related employee's characteristics is of utmost significance as it allows to improve and optimise human resources management, decrease staff turnover, and increase job satisfaction. However, it is crucial to remember that some particular kinds of stress can also have positive effects leading to increased productivity of workers and ultimately to higher job satisfaction (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Colquitt et al., 2010).

Yet there are some limitations to the study that have to be taken into account when evaluating the results of the research, such as relatively small sample, local specifics of the business, personal characteristics of individuals that affect the results, and other types of potential bias. Certain demographic groups were underrepresented, resulting in less significant results and conclusions. Moreover, case study methodology chosen for the current research implies certain limitations as well. Since there has been lack of scientific evidence on the differences between chain and independent hotels in terms of work stress, satisfaction, and employee loyalty, the generalizations should be done cautiously. Moreover, in order to make conclusions about these differences, more extensive and specific research in this field is needed.

Human resources are of a great importance in hospitality business determining the sustained interest of researchers in this topic. In order to be able to successfully manage human resources it is vital to understand the underlying causes of such issues as occupational stress, job satisfaction, or employee loyalty, and their intercorrelation. However, there are many more factors that might also have a significant influence, but could not be identified and analysed within this study. Further research on very specific stressors and the ways of stress releases could not only be of interest for theoretical purposes, but also generate some valuable suggestions. Moreover, it is already known, that the revenues and profitability of the service organizations are highly dependent not only on the satisfied customers, but also on the satisfied and loyal employees (Heskett et al., 1994). Since researchers tend to be interested in how the ownership of the hotel is influencing financial performance and competitiveness (Becerra et al., 2016), it is of great interest to see whether there is evidence of interrelations between revenues and employees satisfaction in chain and independent hotels. Deeper research on this topic might open new doors to the understanding of differences between affiliated and independent hotels in terms of work-related stress, satisfaction, and employee loyalty, and thus assist in further improvements and developments in this field.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam,

We would like to know about your work environment and how it affects you. This information is not available anywhere else. Your answers on the enclosed forms are needed.

PLEASE DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON ANY OF THE FORMS PROVIDED. Your answers are to remain anonymous. The information, which you provide will be combined with other answers only in statistical summaries.

Thank you for your cooperation and support.

#### I. Background Information

1. What is your gender?
  - a. Male
  - b. Female
2. How old are you?
  - a. < 18
  - b. 18 - 24
  - c. 25 – 34
  - d. 35 – 44
  - e. 45 – 54
  - f. 55 – 64
  - g. 65 – 74
  - h. > 74
3. What is your marital status?
  - a. Married
  - b. In a relationship
  - c. Single, never married
  - d. Single, divorced
  - e. Single, widowed
4. If you have children living at home, how many are in each of the following age groups?
  - a. Less than 4 years old \_\_\_\_\_
  - b. 4 through 12 years old \_\_\_\_\_
  - c. 13 through 18 years old \_\_\_\_\_
  - d. 19 and older \_\_\_\_\_

5. What is the highest completed level of education?

- a. Secondary school
- b. High school
- c. College
- d. Bachelor's degree
- e. Master's degree
- f. Professional degree
- g. Doctorate degree

6. What is your current JOB TITLE? \_\_\_\_\_

**II. Occupational stress**

Conflict at work

Please answer the following questions about your work situation

		Strongly disagree → Strongly agree				
	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	There is harmony in my department					
2	In our department, we have lots of bickering over who should do what job					
3	There is difference of opinion among the members of my department					
4	There is dissension in my department					
5	The members of my department are supportive of each other's ideas					
6	There are clashes between subgroups within my department					

7	There is friendliness among the members of my department					
8	There is “we” feeling among members of my department					
9	There are disputes between my department and other departments					
10	There is agreement between my department and other department					
11	Other departments withhold information for the attainment of our department tasks					
12	The relationship between my department and other departments is harmonious in attaining the overall organizational goals					
13	There is lack of mutual assistance between my department and other departments					
14	There is cooperation between my departments and other departments					
15	There are personality clashes between my departments and other departments					
16	Other departments create problems for my group					

Job requirements

Now we would like you to indicate how often certain things happen at your job.

		Rarely                      →                      Very often				
	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	How often does your job require you to work <i>very fast</i> ?					

2	How often does your job require you to work very hard?					
3	How often does your job leave you with <i>little</i> time to get things done?					
4	How often is there a <i>great deal</i> to be done?					
5	How often is there a marked increase in the work load					
6	How often is there a marked increase in the amount of concentration required on your job?					
7	How often is there a marked increase in <i>how fast</i> you have to think?					
8	How often does your job let you use the skills and knowledge you learned in school?					
9	How often are you given a chance to do the things you do the best?					
10	How often can you use the skills from your previous experience and training?					

Mental demands

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your job.

		Strongly disagree → Strongly agree				
	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	My job requires a great deal of concentration					
2	My job requires me to remember many different things					
3	I must keep my mind on my work at all times					
4	I can take it easy and still get my work done					

5	I can let my mind wander and still do the work					
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Workload and responsibility

The next few items are concerned with various aspects of your work activities. Please indicate how much of each aspect you have on your job.

		Hardly any	→	A great deal		
	Question					
1	How much time do you have to think and contemplate?					
2	How much work load do you have?					
3	What quantity of work do others expect you to do?					
4	How much time do you have to do all your work?					
5	How many projects, assignments, or tasks do you have?					
6	How many lulls between heavy work load periods do you have?					
7	How much responsibility do you have for the future of others?					
8	How much responsibility do you have for the job security of others?					
9	How much responsibility do you have for the morale of others?					
10	How much responsibility do you have for the welfare and lives of others?					

Your job

How accurate are each of the following statements in describing your job?

		Very inaccurate → Very accurate				
	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	I feel certain about how much authority I have.					
2	There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.					
3	I have to do things that should be done differently.					
4	I know that I have divided my time properly.					
5	I receive an assignment without the help I need to complete it.					
6	I know what my responsibilities are.					
7	I have to bend or break a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.					
8	I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.					
9	I know exactly what is expected of me.					
10	I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.					
11	I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others					
12	I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.					

13	Explanation is clear about what has to be done on my job.					
14	I work on unnecessary things.					

**Your job future**

In the future, some jobs will be changing while others will be staying the same. Here are some questions, which deal with this topic.

		Somewhat uncertain → Very certain				
	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	How certain are you about what your future career picture looks like?					
2	How certain are you of the opportunities for promotion and advancement which will exist in the next few years?					
3	How certain are you about whether your job skills will be of use and value five years from now?					
4	How certain are you about what your responsibilities will be six months from now?					
5	If you lost your job, how certain are you that you could support yourself?					

**III. Job satisfaction**

We would like to know how satisfied you are with your job.

1. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the type of job you now have, what would you decide?
  - a. I would decide without hesitation to take the same job

- b. I would have some second thoughts
  - c. I would decide definitely NOT to take this type of job
2. If you were free right now to go into any type of job you wanted, what would your choice be?
- a. I would take the same job
  - b. I would take have doubts to take the same job
  - c. I would take a different job
3. If a friend of yours told you he/she was interested in working in a job like yours, what would you tell him/her?
- a. I would strongly recommend it
  - b. I would have doubts about recommending it
  - c. I would advise against it
4. All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?
- a. I am very satisfied
  - b. I am somewhat satisfied
  - c. I am not at all satisfied

**IV. Employee loyalty**

Commitment to managers and company

		Strongly disagree		→	Strongly agree	
	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	I enjoy good communications with my managers					
2	I respect my head of department					
3	I enjoy good communications with my work-mates					
4	I am proud of my company					
5	I think of the workplace as my second home and work-mates as my family					

Job conditions

		Strongly disagree		→	Strongly agree	
	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	I receive good training with this company					
2	There are opportunities for skills' development in my job					
3	The working hours are suitable for me					
4	The job is varied, each day is different					
5	I have job security					

Personal benefits

		Strongly disagree		→	Strongly agree	
	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	The benefits offered are good					
2	The salary offered is good					
3	The maternity/paternity package is good					
4	The job is fun					

Service element and location

		Strongly disagree → Strongly agree				
	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	I like providing good service to the customers					
2	I enjoy meeting customers					
3	I get personal satisfaction form my job					
4	The location of my workplace is convenient for me					

Career and status

		Strongly disagree → Strongly agree				
	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	My job is highly respected in the industry					
2	My job is highly respected in the society					
3	I have a career path planned for me/I have good promotional prospects					

## Appendix 2: Descriptive Statistics

### Gender of respondents

Hotel			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Hotel A	Valid	Male	29	29,9	29,9	29,9
		Female	68	70,1	70,1	100,0
		Total	97	100,0	100,0	
Hotel B	Valid	Male	20	32,8	32,8	32,8
		Female	41	67,2	67,2	100,0
		Total	61	100,0	100,0	

### Age of respondents

Hotel			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Hotel A	Valid	18-24	37	38,1	38,1	38,1
		25-34	48	49,5	49,5	87,6
		35-44	9	9,3	9,3	96,9
		45-54	3	3,1	3,1	100,0
		Total	97	100,0	100,0	
Hotel B	Valid	18-24	14	23,0	23,0	23,0
		25-34	26	42,6	42,6	65,6
		35-44	12	19,7	19,7	85,2
		45-54	9	14,8	14,8	100,0
		Total	61	100,0	100,0	

### Marital status

Hotel			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Hotel A	Valid	Single, never married	39	40,2	40,2	40,2
		In a relationship	21	21,6	21,6	61,9
		Married	31	32,0	32,0	93,8
		Divorced	6	6,2	6,2	100,0
		Total	97	100,0	100,0	
Hotel B	Valid	Single, never married	18	29,5	29,5	29,5
		In a relationship	8	13,1	13,1	42,6
		Married	29	47,5	47,5	90,2
		Divorced	6	9,8	9,8	100,0
		Total	61	100,0	100,0	

**Highest level of education**

Hotel			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Hotel A	Valid	Compulsary school	18	18,6	18,6	18,6
		High school	34	35,1	35,1	53,6
		College	25	25,8	25,8	79,4
		Bachelor's degree	8	8,2	8,2	87,6
		Master's degree	12	12,4	12,4	100,0
		Total	97	100,0	100,0	
Hotel B	Valid	Compulsary school	2	3,3	3,3	3,3
		High school	21	34,4	34,4	37,7
		College	22	36,1	36,1	73,8
		Bachelor's degree	5	8,2	8,2	82,0
		Master's degree	11	18,0	18,0	100,0
		Total	61	100,0	100,0	

**Children living at home**

Hotel			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Hotel A	Valid	No kids	68	70,1	70,1	70,1
		0-18 years old	21	21,6	21,6	91,8
		>18 years old	8	8,2	8,2	100,0
		Total	97	100,0	100,0	
Hotel B	Valid	No kids	39	63,9	63,9	63,9
		0-18 years old	18	29,5	29,5	93,4
		>18 years old	4	6,6	6,6	100,0
		Total	61	100,0	100,0	

## Appendix 3: Correlations and statistical tests

### Moderating role of gender in Hotel B:

**Ranks**

	Gender of respondents	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Stress_level	Male	20	29,95	599,00
	Female	41	31,51	1292,00
	Total	61		
Employee_loyalty	Male	20	26,90	538,00
	Female	41	33,00	1353,00
	Total	61		
Job_satisfaction	Male	20	32,03	640,50
	Female	41	30,50	1250,50
	Total	61		

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Stress_level	Employee_loyalty	Job_satisfaction
Mann-Whitney U	389,000	328,000	389,500
Wilcoxon W	599,000	538,000	1250,500
Z	-,323	-1,261	-,320
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,747	,207	,749

a. Grouping Variable: Gender of respondents

### Moderating role of marital status in Hotel A:

#### Kruskal-Wallis Test

**Ranks**

	Marital status	N	Mean Rank
Stress_level	Single, never married	39	51,27
	In a relationship	21	46,86
	Married	31	49,48
	Divorced	6	39,25
	Total	97	
Employee_loyalty	Single, never married	39	44,41
	In a relationship	21	57,02
	Married	31	48,69
	Divorced	6	52,33
	Total	97	
Job_satisfaction	Single, never married	39	44,42
	In a relationship	21	50,02
	Married	31	57,55
	Divorced	6	31,00
	Total	97	

**Test Statistics<sup>a,b</sup>**

	Stress_level	Employee_loyalty	Job_satisfaction
Chi-Square	1,106	2,836	6,567
df	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	,776	,418	,087

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Marital status

## Moderating role of marital status in Hotel B:

### Kruskal-Wallis Test

**Ranks**

	Marital status	N	Mean Rank
Stress_level	Single, never married	18	29,19
	In a relationship	8	42,25
	Married	29	28,21
	Divorced	6	34,92
	Total	61	
Employee_loyalty	Single, never married	18	33,81
	In a relationship	8	35,38
	Married	29	29,26
	Divorced	6	25,17
	Total	61	
Job_satisfaction	Single, never married	18	27,03
	In a relationship	8	34,63
	Married	29	33,19
	Divorced	6	27,50
	Total	61	

**Test Statistics<sup>a,b</sup>**

	Stress_level	Employee_loyalty	Job_satisfaction
Chi-Square	4,418	1,866	1,977
df	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	,220	,601	,577

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Marital status

## Moderating role of education in Hotel A:

### Kruskal-Wallis Test

**Ranks**

	Highest level of education	N	Mean Rank
Stress_level	Compulsary school	18	44,64
	High school	34	46,94
	College	25	59,54
	Bachelor's degree	8	51,13
	Master's degree	12	38,00
	Total	97	
Employee_loyalty	Compulsary school	18	39,44
	High school	34	51,12
	College	25	55,16
	Bachelor's degree	8	42,75
	Master's degree	12	48,67
	Total	97	
Job_satisfaction	Compulsary school	18	50,67
	High school	34	55,91
	College	25	41,50
	Bachelor's degree	8	45,19
	Master's degree	12	45,08
	Total	97	

**Test Statistics<sup>a,b</sup>**

	Stress_level	Employee_loyalty	Job_satisfaction
Chi-Square	6,007	3,867	4,398
df	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	,199	,424	,355

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Highest level of education

## Moderating role of parenthood in Hotel A:

### Mann-Whitney Test

Ranks

	Children living at home	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Stress_level	Yes	39	47,92	1869,00
	No	58	49,72	2884,00
	Total	97		
Employee_loyalty	Yes	39	50,10	1954,00
	No	58	48,26	2799,00
	Total	97		
Job_satisfaction	Yes	39	53,23	2076,00
	No	58	46,16	2677,00
	Total	97		

Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

	Stress_level	Employee_loyalty	Job_satisfaction
Mann-Whitney U	1089,000	1088,000	966,000
Wilcoxon W	1869,000	2799,000	2677,000
Z	-,309	-,317	-1,232
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,757	,752	,218

a. Grouping Variable: Children living at home

## Moderating role of parenthood in Hotel B:

Ranks

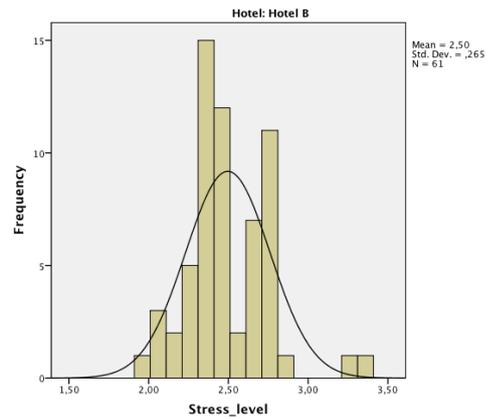
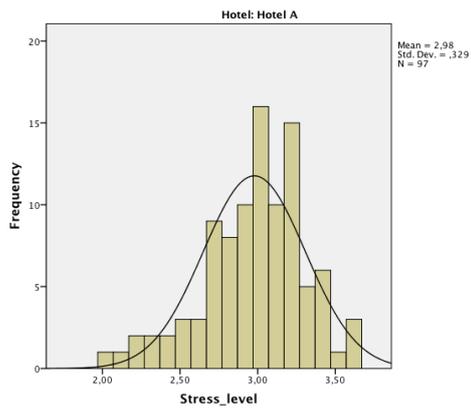
	Children living at home	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Stress_level	Yes	35	32,54	1139,00
	No	26	28,92	752,00
	Total	61		
Job_satisfaction	Yes	35	32,53	1138,50
	No	26	28,94	752,50
	Total	61		
Employee_loyalty	Yes	35	28,83	1009,00
	No	26	33,92	882,00
	Total	61		

Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>

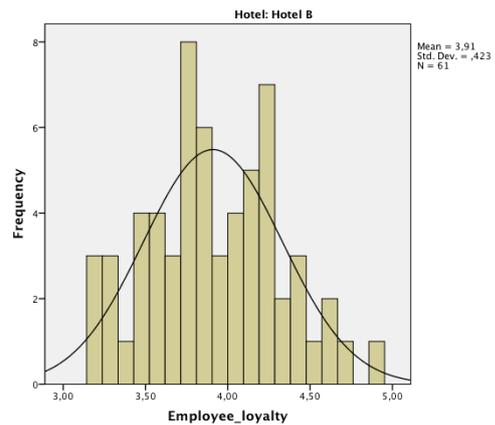
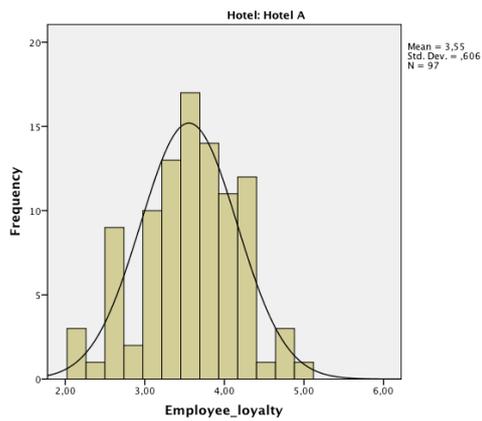
	Stress_level	Job_satisfaction	Employee_loyalty
Mann-Whitney U	401,000	401,500	379,000
Wilcoxon W	752,000	752,500	1009,000
Z	-,788	-,794	-1,109
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,431	,427	,267

a. Grouping Variable: Children living at home

### Histograms of Hotel A and Hotel B (Occupational stress)



### Histograms of Hotel A and Hotel B (Employee loyalty)



### Histograms of Hotel A and Hotel B (Job satisfaction)

