

## The impact of job stressors on job satisfaction with EI & OCB

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### ABSTRACT

Job stress has been associated with lower levels of job satisfaction in the workplace, and the economic performance of organizations is directly affected by employee job satisfaction. Five job stressors in particular (work-home conflict, invasion of privacy, work overload, role ambiguity, and job insecurity) have been shown to contribute the most to job stress. Organizations with high job satisfaction rates are more likely to have lower turnover, fewer accidents, higher customer satisfaction scores, and better performance.

This study contributes to the literature by examining the mediating role of emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior on the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. Panel data was collected using Qualtrics and Amazon Mechanical Turk. Utilizing PLS-SEM, it was found that the named job stressors do contribute to job stress, job stress does negatively affect job satisfaction, and this relationship is partially mediated by both emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior. Discussion of future research regarding job satisfaction is included.

Keywords: job stressors, job satisfaction, emotional intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior

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## INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction is defined in the organizational literature as an emotional or affective reaction to one's job (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992; Janssen, 2001; Morris & Venkatesh, 2010) or as the attitude an individual maintains regarding their job (Landy, 1989; Miner, 1992; Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson & Bliese, 2011). Attitude is generally understood to include beliefs and behaviors as well as affect (Weiss, Nicholas, & Duas, 1999). Thus, we define job satisfaction as the emotional response to beliefs and behaviors presented towards one's job.

Job satisfaction is important to firm performance (Hansen & Wernerfelt, 1989; Edmans, 2012) as the economic performance of organizations is directly affected by employee overall job satisfaction. Organizational citizenship behavior is highly correlated with job satisfaction (Williams & Anderson, 1991; Arthaud-Day, Rode & Turnley, 2012) and organizations need to care about their employee's job satisfaction as organizations with high job satisfaction rates are more likely to have lower turnover, fewer accidents, higher customer satisfaction scores, and potentially better performance (Lawler & Porter, 1967; Petty, McGee, & Cavender, 1984; Organ, 1988; Branham, 2005). Judge, Rodell, Klinger, Simon, & Crawford (2013) noted that job performance is greatly affected by job satisfaction.

To contribute to the research in this field, the primary objective of this study is to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and job stressors. To accomplish this, it is necessary to determine what job satisfaction is (defined above), what job stressors are, and in what way job stress affects job satisfaction. Job stressors may be defined as the stressful aspects of jobs (Spector & Jex; 1998, Beehr, Jex, Stacy & Murray; 2000,). In addition and to further add contribution, emotional intelligence (EI) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) may affect said relationships as mediators and will be investigated as such.

In much of the job stress literature, job stressors are identified as antecedent or consequent. For the purposes of this work, five stressors with potential to cause significant job stress have been identified (Moore, 2000; Rutner, Hardgrave, & McKnight, 2008; Ayyagari, Grover, & Purvis, 2011) and are as follows: Work-Home Conflict, Invasion of Privacy, Work Overload, Role Ambiguity, and Job Insecurity. These 5 stressors have been found to encompass the majority of everyday stress (Ayyagari et al., (2011) as indicated in Figure 1 (Appendix).

The unit of analysis of this research will be employed persons. This work will utilize Amazon's Mechanical Turk to obtain a suitable sample (O'Leary, Wilson & Metiu, 2014). The method utilized for data collection will be a survey-based approach to test the proposed research questions empirically. Participants will be provided with an online self-reported questionnaire. The measures used in this dissertation will be adapted from preexisting measures to ensure reliability and validity

## LITERATURE REVIEW

As the quantity and quality of scholarly articles regarding job satisfaction have grown over the years, the relevance of such research as it pertains to firm performance has been well established (Zhou, Li, Zhou, & Su, 2008; Wilkin, 2013). Although job satisfaction is understood to be an impactful aspect of management research, the components of what constitutes job satisfaction are still not completely understood (Millán, Hessels, Thurik, & Aguado, 2013; Johnson & Sohi, 2014). It has been proposed that job stressors are a significant component of job satisfaction (Moore, 2000; Shih, Jiang, Klein, & Wang, 2013).

Job satisfaction has been defined as an emotional or affective reaction to one's job (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992; Janssen, 2001; Morris & Venkatesh, 2010) or as the attitude an individual maintains regarding their job (Landy, 1989; Miner, 1992; Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson & Bliese, 2011). Weiss, Nicholas, & Duas (1999) and Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May (2004) claimed that attitudes are generally understood to include beliefs and behaviors as well as affect, therefore this dissertation defines job satisfaction as the emotional response to beliefs and behaviors presented towards one's job.

Individuals report that if one values a specific facet of their job, one's satisfaction changes when one's expectations regarding said facet are met or fail to be met (Locke, 1976). For example, if an individual determines that autonomy in the workplace is important to them, should that individual find themselves in a position in which they receive a large degree of autonomy they will tend to report more job satisfaction than someone in a similar position that demonstrates lesser regard towards autonomy. In addition, dispositional influences may influence job satisfaction (Saari & Judge, 2004). It has been shown that a person's job satisfaction tends to be consistent and stable over time, even when he or she switches jobs or companies (Staw & Ross, 1985; Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson & Bliese, 2011). In a study of positive self-concept, it was shown that both job performance and job satisfaction were correlated with an individual's perception of their self-esteem (Judge & Bono, 2001). To degree, social status is derived from one's job. Job satisfaction is a significant correlate of life satisfaction (Erdogan, Bauer, Truxillo, & Mansfield, 2012) and job satisfaction may be an important indicator of quality of work life.

Operating under the auspices of the Center for Disease Control (CDC), The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) has defined job stress as the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, or needs of the worker. Job stress has been defined more simply as stress related to one's job (Rosen & Hochwarter, 2014). For the purposes of this work, five stressors with potential to cause significant job stress have been identified (Moore, 2000; Rutner, Hardgrave, & McKnight, 2008; Ayyagari, Grover, & Purvis, 2011) and are as follows: Work-Home Conflict, Invasion of Privacy, Work Overload, Role Ambiguity, and Job Insecurity.

Work-Home Conflict has been defined as an inter-role conflict which refers to when tasks or duties in one domain cannot be attended to due to responsibilities in the other domain (Simon, Kümmerling, & Hasselhorn, 2004), and this is most commonly manifested as a time based stress because time, being a finite resource that cannot be recovered, must be allocated to two separate domains (work and home).

Work-Home Conflict has been identified as a major contributing factor to job stress and burnout (Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014) to the point where these studies found that across employment categories, people are more likely to burn out from work-home conflict than any other studied factor. Demerouti, Geurts, Bakker, & Euwema (2004) found in a study involving shift work (variable scheduling) those subjects who had variable work schedules that interfered with their home life had the most work-home conflict and subsequent stress. Due to the stress caused by work-home conflict, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1a: The greater the level of work-home conflict perceived, the higher the level of job stress.

Privacy at work has long been associated with high levels of job satisfaction (Sundstrom, Burt, & Kamp, 1980; Oc, & Bashshur, 2013). Persson, & Hansson (2003) investigated the impact of new technologies in the workplace and found that employees subjected to technologies

like drug testing and electronic surveillance reported lower levels of job satisfaction. It was speculated that a perceived violation of trust occurred as respondents may have felt they were not trusted by their organizational management. Martin (2012) looked at the ethical implications of privacy expectations in the workplace and the perceived social contract of privacy; the more intimate one's knowledge of a community, the more likely the comfort level with privacy violations. A level of familiarity may lessen the effects of a perceived "I am untrusted" feeling.

In a 1999 study, Eddy, Stone & Stone-Romero found that as human resources departments implemented policies, perception of privacy was a major construct and had a negative effect on subjects perceptions of organizational fairness. This was followed up by Alge in 2001 who found that when subjects performed computer-based tasks in an experimental setting with a variable degree of monitoring, the more surveillance present, the more uncomfortable the participants unless said tasks were highly work-relevant or they had input regarding the monitoring. People do not like being closely monitored without knowing why and how. Due to the stress caused by the invasion of privacy at work, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1b: The greater the level of privacy invasion perceived, the higher the level of job stress.

Work overload describes situations in which employees feel that there are too many responsibilities or activities expected of them in light of the time available, their abilities, and other constraints (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman (1970), Bolino & Turnley (2005), Golden, & Veiga (2015). Bolino & Turnley (2005) investigated what they termed "role overload" and found that individuals who demonstrated individual initiative (a desirable trait from the perception of their bosses) often experienced overload manifested in working longer hours than peers, including working on scheduled off days. This level of unfairness led to stress.

Jamal & Baba (1992) found that in a study using nurses (an inherently high stress job) shift-work and department-type related job stress led to a level of overload that significantly increased their chances of turnover. Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine (2007) found in their meta-analysis that individuals in inherently high stress jobs (police, military, nursing) who face work overload consistently had higher levels of turnover due to stress. People with roles in organizations that consist of two parts: their specific task based role in the organization, and their role as generic organization member. Persons from high stress task roles are still pressured to participate as generic members of their organizations, which often means taking on supplementary or complimentary duties to their primary tasking. An example would be organizing a leader's retirement party or covering a fellow employee's lunch break a little longer than prescribed. These secondary roles also contribute to overload and therefore stress.

In a research vein similar to turnover is dropout, in which people leave their career fields altogether. Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter (2001) found that emotional exhaustion was a common correlate to work overload. When respondents were questioned about their inability to handle excessive work/roles, they demonstrated a significant negative affect that yielded a burnout, defined as exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy. Due to the stress caused by perceived work overload on the job, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1c: The greater the level of work overload perceived, the higher the level of job stress.

The Bliese & Castro study (2000) investigated the effects of role ambiguity on job stress and found them correlated. Parkington & Schneider (1979) found in a study of banking employees that role ambiguity was perceived by their customer base as poor customer service. As employee outcomes were directly related to customer service, they concluded that a generic "service orientation" was insufficient to yield acceptable outcomes and more clearly defined

roles were necessary. Hamner & Tosi (1974) studied high level management and found that role ambiguity was negatively correlated with job satisfaction.

A more recent study on role ambiguity (Jamal, 1990) found a strong relationship between Type-A people and a stronger correlation between role ambiguity and job stress than Type-B people. Type-A people are commonly found in managerial roles and therefore have a larger degree of influence on organizational culture. This could indicate a potential reason for role ambiguity and job stress being more prevalent in organizations with culture supporting that dynamic. Due to the stress caused by perceived role ambiguity on the job, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1d: The greater the level of role ambiguity, the higher the level of job stress.

Job insecurity has been studied as it relates to job satisfaction for a number of years. In a longitudinal study, it was found that the short term effects of job insecurity increased participant job stress, leading to lower job satisfaction (Heaney, Israel, & House, 1994). It was interesting to note in this study that long term "chronic" job insecurity multiplied the effects of perceived job stress as they became more potent over longer periods of time.

Often, job insecurity is researched under the conditions of organizational change; that is when companies are undergoing downsizing or through a merger, permanent employees begin to feel insecure about their long term employment likelihood. In a study of temporary workers, job satisfaction scores were consistent with full time workers when continuing temporary work was perceived to be steady ( De Witte & Näswall, 2003). However, the temporary employees were also consistent with their full time coworkers when job insecurity in the form of reduced temporary employment was presented as a variable, leading to increased job stress and lower job satisfaction reporting. Due to the stress caused by job insecurity at work, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1e: The greater the level of job insecurity, the higher the level of job stress.

Emotional intelligence is reasoning that takes emotion into account, and should in some way refer to a heightened emotional or mental capacity (Mayer & Geher, 1996). Similar in some ways to an affective interpretation of the "self-fulfilling prophecy", people in "good moods" interpret stimuli in a more positive way than those in a "bad mood". An example is attitude towards the economy in which people with more positive affect feel the economy is improving while those with a more negative affect feel the opposite, when faced with identical facts. Emotion can therefore be associated with altered thinking, but not necessarily in a way that makes a person smarter.

Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenios (2001) helped legitimize emotional intelligence when some researchers felt that there might be "no right answer" to questions designed to measure emotional intelligence. In an analysis of the literature on intelligence, emotion, and emotional intelligence they determined that emotional intelligence is tested by reasonable measures and such measures are in fact reliable.

Emotional intelligence has been explained as a "Four Branch Model" (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004): Branch 1 reflects the perception of emotion and involves the capacity to recognize emotion in others' facial and postural expressions. Branch 2 reflects the capacity of emotions to affect thinking. Branch 3 reflects the capacity to analyze emotions, appreciate their probable trends over time, and understand their outcomes. Branch 4 involves the management of emotion (as an aspect of personality). Within each branch lies a set of skills ranging from the more simple to the more sophisticated. Individuals with good operational use of emotional

intelligence may be more effective thinkers than those with poor use. Based on the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: The higher the levels of emotional intelligence, the more strongly the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction is mediated.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior has been defined as individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by formal reward, and that in the aggregate promotes organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1988; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Organ's (1988) taxonomy of OCB consists of five sub-constructs: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. According to Moorman (1993), the definitions of the five OCB sub-constructs are as follows:

Altruism is defined as the behavior of helping a specific person with an organizationally relevant task or problem. An example of altruistic behavior might be an engineer spending time to show colleagues how to operate newly developed software. Altruistic behavior can be directed toward coworkers, supervisors, customers, suppliers, etc. provided that the interaction has organizational relevance (Organ, 1988).

Courtesy is defined as when an individual engages in preventing a work-related problem from occurring. Organ (1988) suggested that courtesy involves actions that are checking in with parties whose work might be affected by decisions. Customers in the gym who take the weight plates off the barbells after a workout are engaging in courteous behavior (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). As Organ (1988) stated: "It is sometimes difficult to distinguish courtesy from altruism". Organ additionally stated that the distinction between altruism and courtesy is that altruism is to help someone who already has a work-related problem whereas courtesy is an effort to prevent a work-related problem from occurring, or to take preemptive actions to mitigate potential problems.

Sportsmanship is defined as the behavior that entails avoiding excessive against "mostly imagined" slights. An example is an employee who does not complain about the new work routines that resulted from an organization's new quality improvement policy. Sportsmanship is important for organizational effectiveness in that it maximizes the total amount of energy that can be devoted to constructive purposes (Organ, 1988).

Conscientiousness is defined as behavior that allows one to carry out their specific role requirement to levels that exceed normal expectations. For example, an employee attends a meeting during a tornado watch. It is important to note that conscientiousness is to exceed minimum role requirements (such as attendance). Conscientiousness contributes to organizational effectiveness as it makes for a more efficient use of existing resources and provides a larger pool of resources available to the organization (Organ, 1988). Using the attendance example, one can see that conscientious attendance reduces the cost and time spent on rearranging the schedules of other employees to the benefit of all.

Civic virtue is defined as behavior that revolves around the responsible participation in the political life of the organization. Graham (1986) suggested that a good organizational citizen contributes to corporate governance not only by keeping abreast of the issues of the day but also by voicing opinions about those issues. Civic virtue implies an individual's sense of involvement in organizational policies, issues, or decisions. Civic virtue contributes to an organization in that it improves efficiency and increases knowledge that resulted from meetings, discussions, or constructive debates (Organ, 1988).

H3: The higher the level of organizational citizenship behavior, the more strongly the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction is mediated.

## METHODOLOGY

There are nine constructs involved in this dissertation. They are Work-Home Conflict, Invasion of Privacy, Work Overload, Role Ambiguity, Job Insecurity, Job Stress, Job Satisfaction, Emotional Intelligence, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The definitions of these constructs have all adapted from previous research to ensure content validity.

Work-Home Conflict has been defined as the perceived conflict between the demands of work and family (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001; Simon, Kümmerling, & Hasselhorn, 2004) and will be measured by ten items utilizing a 7 point Likert scale with 1 indicating strongly disagree and 7 indicating strongly agree.

Invasion of Privacy is defined as the perception that an individual's privacy has been compromised (Alge, 2001; Ayyagari et al., 2011) and will be measured by four items utilizing a 7 point Likert scale with 1 indicating extremely unlikely and 7 indicating extremely likely.

Work Overload is defined as the perception that assigned work exceeds an individual's capability or skill level (Moore, 2000; Cooper et al., 2001; Ayyagari et al., 2011) and will be measured by seven items utilizing a 7 point Likert scale with 1 indicating strongly disagree and 7 indicating strongly agree.

Role Ambiguity is defined as the unpredictability of the consequences of one's role performance and lack of information needed to perform the role (Cooper et al., 2001, Ayyagari et al., 2011) and will be measured by six items utilizing a 7 point Likert scale with 1 indicating strongly disagree and 7 indicating strongly agree.

Job Insecurity is defined as the perception of the threat of job loss (Ashford et al., 1989; Cooper et al., 2001; Ayyagari et al., 2011) and will be measured by six items utilizing a 7 point Likert scale with 1 indicating strongly disagree and 7 indicating strongly agree.

Job Stress is defined by the five constructs above. A weighted average for each of the five constructs will be summarized as a numerical representation of stress.

Job Satisfaction is defined as feelings or affective responses to facets of the work (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) and is measured by a 20-item job satisfaction questionnaire adapted from Lee, Holtom, McDaniel, & Hill (1999) using a 7-point Likert scale with 1 representing very dissatisfied and 7 representing very satisfied.

Emotional Intelligence is defined as reasoning that takes emotions into account (Mayer & Geher, 1996) and is measured by seven items adopted from the Trait Meta Mood Scale (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995) utilizing a 7 point Likert scale with 1 indicating strongly disagree and 7 indicating strongly agree.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior is defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). It is measured by a five sub-constructs 24-item survey adapted from Moorman (1993) using a 7-point Likert scale with 1 representing strongly disagree and 7 representing strongly agree. OCB is a summation of the five sub-constructs with higher values representing higher levels of OCB.

Demographic variables will be additionally obtained as control variables; they are age, gender, education level, income level, marital status, and number of children. Age will be measured by using a categorical scale including (under 25), (25-35 years), (36 to 45 years), (46 to 55 years), and (over 55 years). Gender will be measured by using a categorical scale including male and female. Education Level will be measured by using a categorical scale including (less

than high school), (high school diploma), (some college), (college degree), (graduate degree). Income level will be measured by using a categorical scale including (under \$20,000), (\$20,000-\$40,000), (\$40,000-\$60,000), (\$60,000-\$80,000) and (over \$80,000). Marital status will be measured by using a categorical scale including (Married) and (Not Married). Number of children will be measured by using a categorical scale including (0), (1), (2), (3), (4+). A question about customer service orientation is also asked, with (Customer-contact) and (Non-customer-contact) as options.

The population of this research is employed persons. As this work is focused on the effects of job stressors and job strain on job satisfaction, respondents must be employed. This research will implement a random sampling approach. According to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham (2006), structural equation modeling (SEM) is a large sample technique, and while there is no specific requirement declaring appropriate sample size when using SEM, Schumacker and Lomax (2004) surveyed the literature and reported that sample sizes of 250 to 500 are commonly used in a large number of articles that utilized SEM. As such, 500 respondents will be surveyed. This will ensure a usable sample sufficient to ensure statistical power (alpha of .05 and power level of 0.8 per Hair et al., 2006).

Amazon Mechanical Turk will be utilized to conduct an online survey to collect data (Buhrmester, Kwang & Gosling, 2011). Amazon Mechanical Turk is an online crowdsourcing market and is becoming more popular as a source for data collection in social science. Amazon Mechanical Turk samples provide demographics similar to student and consumer panel samples (Steelman, Hammer, & Limayem, 2014).

The instrument used by this research consists of vetted items. The instrument contains items that measure Work-Home Conflict, Invasion of Privacy, Work Overload, Role Ambiguity, Job Insecurity, Job Stress, Job Satisfaction, Emotional Intelligence, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The measures used in this research are all previously used, tested, and validated. The survey also is designed to solicit respondents' demographic information including age, gender, education level, income level, marital status, and number of children; these will be used as control variables in this research. A question about customer-service orientation is also asked. Periodically, "dummy" or "wake-up" questions will be inserted to ensure participants are not simply randomly responding but are actually reading the questions.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) will be employed as it allows a researcher to investigate how the endogenous latent constructs are related to or predicted by the exogenous latent constructs, on the basis of non-experimental survey data (Song & Lee, 2006). In this case, SEM will be used to analyze direct and indirect effects of respondents perceptions of the job stressors listed to create the variable job strain, and the effects of strain on their job satisfaction. Multiple regression will used to test for the mediating effects of emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior.

In this research, there are two hypothesized mediating effects. The proposed mediating effects will be tested through multiple regression by implementing the steps suggested by Hair et al. (2006) as indicated in Figure 2 (Appendix):

First, a correlation analysis (i.e. whether job strain is related to job satisfaction) is conducted to check the correlations among variables. If the variables are not correlated, the hypothesized mediating effects are not supported. Second, the significance of path c (Strain to Satisfaction) is tested. If the path c remains significant after the addition of job satisfaction, the hypothesized mediating effects is not supported. The third and fourth steps involve testing the significance of path a and path b, respectively (Strain to EI/OCB and EI/OCB to Satisfaction).



The fifth step is to test the significance of the impact of the predictor (i.e. job strain) and mediators emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior) on job satisfaction. The final step is to calculate the indirect effect. Specifically, if path c is reduced but still statistically significant after the addition of the mediator, a partial mediation effect is supported. On the other hand, if path c is not statistically significant after the addition of the mediator, then a full mediation effect is supported as indicated by Figure 3 (Appendix):

## RESULTS

The coded data matrix was imported into SPSS vs. 20.0 and screened for erroneous and missing values. The initial number of respondents was 461, but 64 were excluded who did not (a) answer all of the items and/or (b) reply "Strongly disagree" to the dummy question "If you are still reading this, please select "Strongly disagree". The proportion of valid answers in the cleaned data matrix was therefore  $397/461 = 86.1\%$ .

The characteristics of the 397 respondents who provided valid data are summarized in Table 1. The proportions of male (43.3%) and female (46.7%) participants were similar. They ranged widely in age from less than 25 to over 55 years, but the age of nearly half of the participants (47.4%) was between 25 and 35 years. Their educational level also ranged widely from less than high school diploma to graduate degree, but the educational level of nearly half of the participants (46.1%) was a college degree. Their annual income levels ranged from less than \$20,000 to over \$80,000. The most frequent income group (31.5%) was \$20,000-\$40,000 and the least frequent (12.1%) was over \$80,000. The proportion of married participants (42.8%) was less than the proportion of unmarried participants (57.2%). The majority (59.4%) did not have children, the remainder having from one to more than four children. Most of the participants (65.2%) worked in a service industry with direct involvement in customer contact, as indicated in Table 1 (Appendix):

Before the latent variables could be operationalized, their internal consistency reliability was tested using Cronbach's alpha. Table 2 indicates that the reliability was adequate to good, with Cronbach's alpha ranging from a minimum of .638 for Role Ambiguity to a maximum of .928 for Job Satisfaction. The operationalization of the latent variables by averaging the item scores, to create scales ranging from 1 to 7, was therefore justified as indicated in Table 2 (Appendix):

The results of the Shapiro-Wilk tests in Table 3 indicated that all eight of the latent variables deviated significantly ( $p < .001$ ) from normality. The box plots in Figure 4 (Appendix) illustrated that the frequency distributions of all the latent variables were asymmetric, with numerous outliers as indicated in Table 3 (Appendix):

The descriptive statistics in Table 4 (Appendix) indicate (a) the respondents used the full range of the item scores, from 1 to 7; (b) the frequency distribution of the variables were more or less skewed (skewness = -0.79 to 0.21) and included outliers; (c) the mean, medians, and modes did not coincide, reflecting a lack of central tendency, and (d) the standard deviations ranged widely from 0.76 to 1.48. The assumptions that underpin the use of parametric statistics (e.g., normality and homogeneity of variance among the variables) appeared to be strongly violated, justifying the use of non-parametric statistics to conduct the mediation analysis.

The matrix of Spearman's rank non-parametric correlation coefficients in Table 5 (Appendix) indicated that all of the eight variables were significantly ( $p < .05$ ) correlated with each other, providing justification to conduct mediation analysis, assuming that the predictor variables, outcome variables, and moderating variables were correlated.

The first stage of the mediation analysis was to determine if there was a significant relationship between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction. Job Stress was operationalized by compositing five reflective indicators by factor analysis. Job Satisfaction had one formative indicator. The path diagram including the model parameters (factor loading coefficients; path coefficient, and effect size) constructed using SmartPLS is illustrated in Figure 5 (Appendix).

The measurement model was valid. The convergent validity of Job Stress was indicated by the combination of five strong ( $> .5$ ) factor loading coefficients ( $\lambda = .522$  to  $.743$ ). The internal consistency reliability of Job Stress was adequate (Composite Reliability Coefficient =  $.795$ ; Cronbach's alpha =  $.696$ ). This confirms support for Hypotheses 1a-1e; as Job Stressors increase individually, Job Stress is increased accordingly. A moderate proportion of the variance in Job Satisfaction ( $R^2 = .369$  or  $36.9\%$ ) was explained by the variance in Job Stress.

Evaluation of the structural model indicated that the path coefficient between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction was significantly different from zero ( $\beta = -.607$ ;  $t = 23.331$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The negative sign of the path coefficient predicted that Job Satisfaction declined when Job Stress increased.

The second stage of the mediation analysis was to introduce Emotional Intelligence into the model as the hypothesized mediating variable, at the center of a triangle of arrows between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction. The path diagram is illustrated in Figure 5. A larger proportion of the variance in Job Satisfaction ( $R^2 = 40.5\%$  was explained) compared to the model in Figure 6 (Appendix) ( $R^2 = 36.9\%$ ). Evaluation of the structural model indicated that (a) the path coefficient between Job Stress and Emotional Intelligence was significantly different from zero ( $\beta = -.395$ ,  $t = 9.602$ ,  $p < .001$ ); (b) the path coefficient between Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction was significantly different from zero ( $\beta = .179$ ,  $t = 3.790$ ,  $p < .001$ ); and (c) the path coefficient between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction was significantly different from zero ( $\beta = -.544$ ,  $t = 16.436$ ,  $p < .001$ ) but less than the path coefficient in Figure 6 ( $\beta = -.607$ ) in the absence of Emotional Intelligence.

The negative signs of the path coefficients predicted that Job Satisfaction and Emotional Intelligence declined when Job Stress increased, whereas the positive sign indicated that Job Satisfaction increased when Emotional Intelligence was higher.

The Sobel test was used to determine the significance of the reduction in the path coefficient between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction (from  $\beta = -.607$  in Figure 4.2 to  $\beta = .544$  in Figure 6. The results are presented in Table 6 (Appendix).

The Sobel test determined if the reduction in the path coefficient between the predictor variable (Job Stress) and the outcome variable (Job Satisfaction) is significant, after including the mediator (Emotional Intelligence) into the model. The path coefficients and their standard errors in Table 1.6 were used to calculate the test statistic. The results indicated that Emotional Intelligence had a significant mediating effect (Sobel test statistic =  $-4.726$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Although statistically significant, the mediating effect was only partial, because the path coefficient between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction was not reduced to zero. As such, Hypothesis 2 is partially supported.

The final stage of the mediation analysis was to introduce Organizational Citizenship Behavior into the model as the hypothesized mediating variable. The path diagram is illustrated in Figure 7 (Appendix). A larger proportion of the variance in Job Satisfaction ( $R^2 = 53.7\%$  was explained) compared to when Emotional Intelligence was introduced as the mediating variable ( $R^2 = 40.5\%$ ).

Evaluation of the structural model indicated that (a) the path coefficient between Job Stress and Organizational Citizenship Behavior was significantly different from zero ( $\beta = -.442$ ,  $t = 11.920$ ,  $p < .001$ ); (b) the path coefficient between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Job Satisfaction was significantly different from zero ( $\beta = .444$ ,  $t = 10.060$ ,  $p < .001$ ); and (c) the path coefficient between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction was significantly different from zero ( $\beta = -.419$ ,  $t = 10.766$ ,  $p < .001$ ) but less than the path coefficient in Figure 5 ( $\beta = -.607$ ) in the absence of Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

The negative signs predicted that Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behavior declined when Job Stress increased, whereas the positive sign indicated that Job Satisfaction increased when Organizational Citizenship Behavior was higher.

The Sobel test was used to determine the significance of the reduction in the path coefficient between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction (from  $\beta = -.607$  to  $\beta = -.419$ ) as indicated in Table 7 (Appendix). The results indicated that the mediating effect of Organizational Citizenship Behavior was significant (Sobel test statistic =  $-7.738$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Although statistically significant, the mediating effect was only partial, because the path coefficient between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction was not reduced to zero. As such, Hypothesis 3 is partially supported.

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This research began as an investigation into a known relationship, that between job stressors and job stress, and the impact of job stress on job satisfaction, and evolved into an analysis of the impact of emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior on said relationship. Hypotheses 1a-1e were confirmed in this study demonstrating that the five job stressors under study do in fact contribute to job stress. Hypothesis 2 was partially confirmed determining that emotional intelligence does mediate the effects of job stress on job satisfaction in that higher levels of emotional intelligence lessened the effects of job stress on job satisfaction. Hypothesis 3 was partially confirmed as well as it was determined that organizational citizenship behavior does mediate the effects of job stress on job satisfaction in that higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior lessened the effects of job stress on job satisfaction.

As mentioned in the introduction, to increase job satisfaction, organizations must attempt to determine their employees' level of satisfaction and also attempt to affect said levels by isolating job stressors that may demonstrate negative influence. However, not all organizations are capable of doing this nor have they isolated contributing stressors.

As the relationship between job stressors, job stress, and job satisfaction are under constant study, investigating the effects emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior have on this model is both of interest to researchers and to practitioners desiring to increase firm performance through increased employee job satisfaction.

This work demonstrated that employees with higher levels of emotional intelligence and/or higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior are less likely to report dissatisfaction with their jobs when facing job stress than those with lower levels. As being one of the first few studies to investigate the relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior on job stress and job satisfaction, this paper begins to fill the gap between the understanding of job stress and job satisfaction in the light of the understanding of emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior.

In particular, practitioners of management science who already understand the importance of job satisfaction might now seek out personnel with higher levels of emotional intelligence or those that demonstrate higher capacity for organizational citizenship behavior, or begin to train their employees in the same. This could result in higher overall levels on job satisfaction and the associated firm performance benefits including but not limited to increased productivity and lower turnover.

Although this research used precise concepts and employed suitable statistical procedures, it is not without limitations. This research used an online cross-sectional survey that makes it difficult to identify the direction of causality. It is important to note that the results of this research can only show the causality of the proposed model. As all cross-sectional studies suffer this limitation (Gallivan, Spitler, & Koufaris, 2005), future longitudinal studies are needed to strengthen the proposed model.

More specific research regarding industry could be attempted. While panel data is useful, a more directed approach, discipline specific, could yield a more specific set of results for publication and practitioner application. Additional analysis of the data, including a more in depth look at demographic control variables, could be performed to generate additional interest as well.

This research confirmed the relationship between five common understood job stressors and their impact on job stress, and the subsequent impact on job satisfaction. This research further confirmed that emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behaviors mediate the relationship between job stress and job satisfaction. These mediating effects highlight the importance of the research.

The results confirmed the significant relationship between job stressors, job stress, and job satisfaction and the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior on job stress and job satisfaction. Although this research is not without limitations it is expected that the findings and discussions of this research may be used by organizations and managers to establish a work environment where employees' job stress is minimized and their job satisfaction is maximized due to better recruitment and/or training regarding emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior.

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**APPENDIX**

Figure 1 The Model

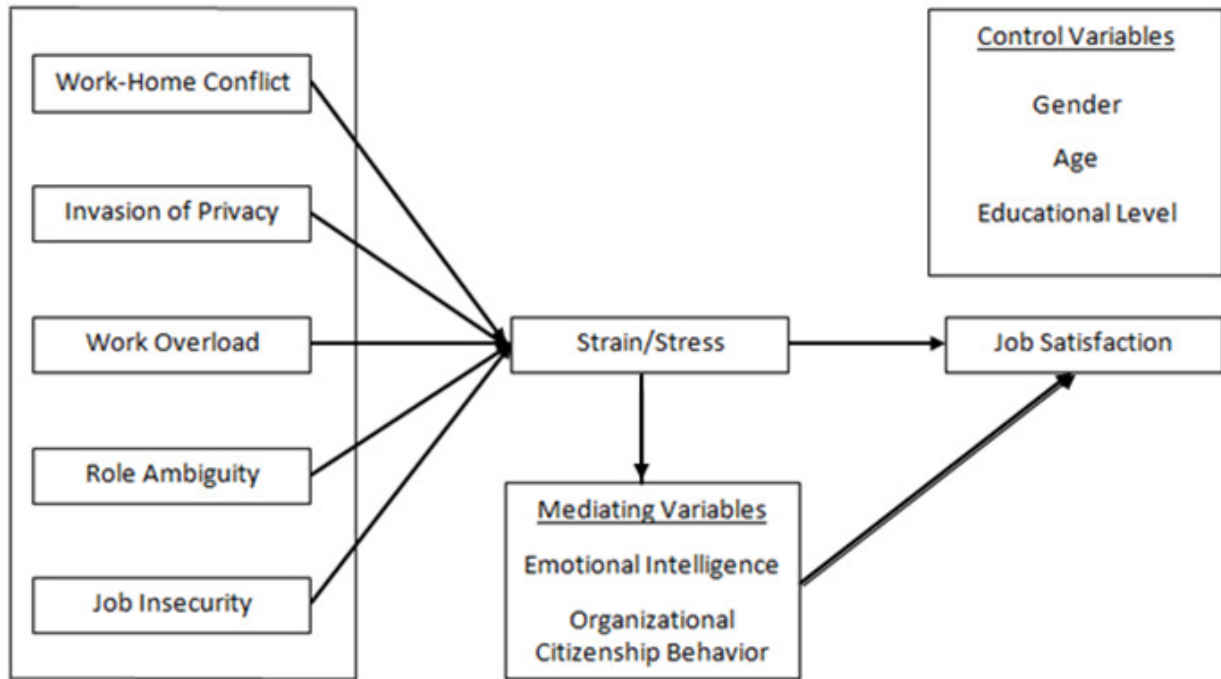


Figure 2 Steps for Testing Proposed Mediating Effects

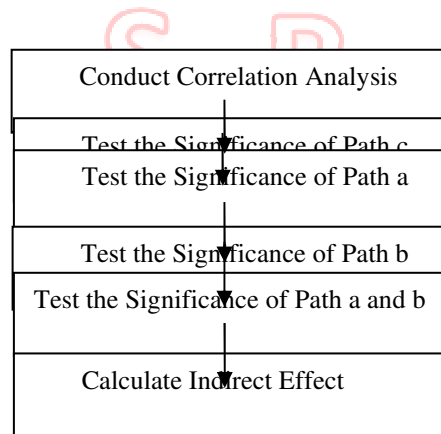
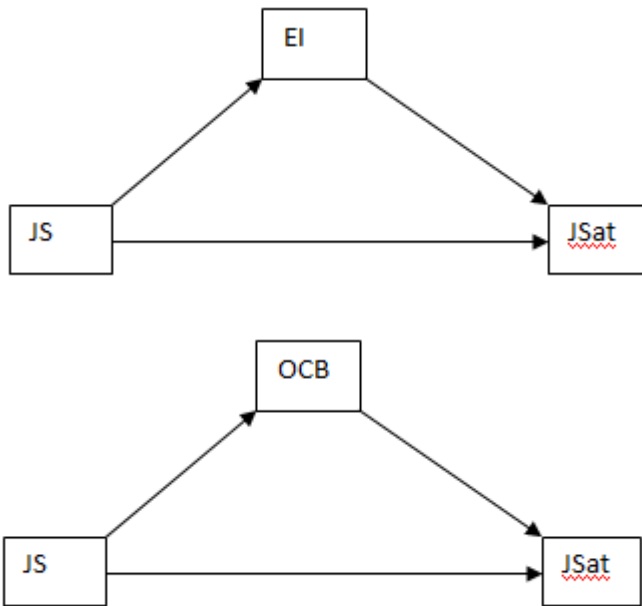


Figure 3 Proposed Mediating Effects



Note: JS = Job Strain, EI = Emotional Intelligence, OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behavior, JSat = Job Satisfaction

J B  
S B

Table 1 Participant Characteristics

Characteristic	Category	n	%
Gender	Male	172	43.3
	Female	225	46.7
Age	< 25	66	16.6
	25-35	188	47.4
	36-45	76	19.1
	46-55	40	10.1
	> 55	27	6.8
Education Level	Less than high school diploma	2	0.5
	High school diploma	30	7.6
	Some college	114	28.7
	College degree	183	46.1
	Graduate degree	68	17.1
Income	< \$20,000	78	19.6
	\$20,000-\$40,000	125	31.5
	\$40,000-\$60,000	89	22.4
	\$60,000-\$80,000	57	14.4
	> \$80,000	48	12.1
Marital Status	Married	170	42.8
	Not Married	227	57.2
Number of Children	0	236	59.4
	1	58	14.6
	2	62	15.6
	3	30	7.6
	≥ 4	11	2.8
Works in service industry with direct involvement in customer contact	Yes	259	65.2
	No	138	34.8

Table 2. Internal Consistency Reliability of Latent Variables

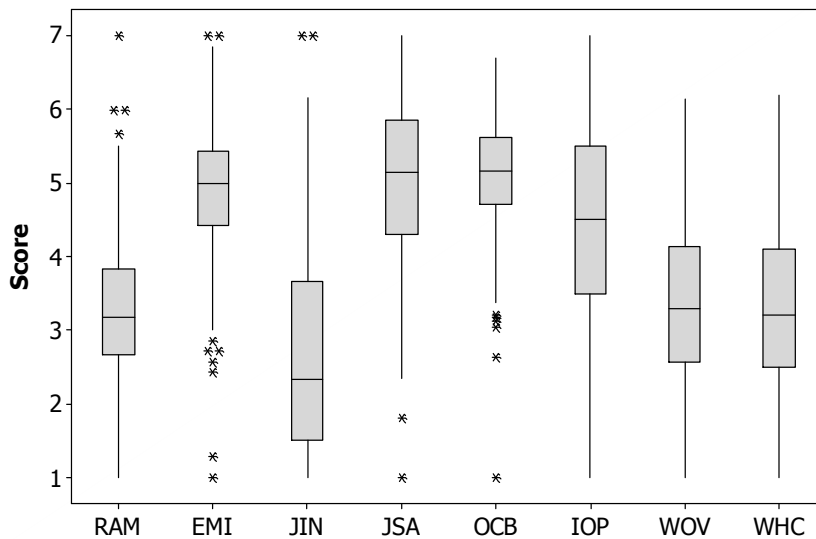
Latent Variable	Number of Items	Cronbach's alpha
Role Ambiguity	6	.638
Work Overload	7	.639
Emotional Intelligence	7	.742
Work Home Conflict	10	.832
Invasion of Privacy	4	.865
Job Insecurity	6	.868
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	24	.884
Job Satisfaction	20	.928

Table 3 Tests for Normality of Latent Variables

Latent Variable	Shapiro-Wilk Test		
	Statistic	df	p
Job Insecurity	.932	397	<.001
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	.967	397	<.001
Job Satisfaction	.968	397	<.001
Emotional Intelligence	.972	397	<.001
Invasion of Privacy	.976	397	<.001
Work Overload	.976	397	<.001
Role Ambiguity	.980	397	<.001
Work Home Conflict	.987	397	.001

Note: \* Significant deviation from normality ( $p \leq .001$ )

Figure 4 Boxplots of Latent Variables



Note: RAM = Role Ambiguity; EMI = Emotional Intelligence; JIN = Job Insecurity; JSA = Job Satisfaction; OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behavior; IOP = Invasion of Privacy; WOV = Work Overload; WHC = Work Home Conflict; \* = Outlier.

Table 4 Descriptive Statistics for Latent Variables

Variable	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Minimum	Maximum
Job Insecurity	2.68	2.33	1.00	1.36	0.62	1.00	7.00
Role Ambiguity	3.20	3.17	2.67	0.91	0.50	1.00	7.00
Work Home Conflict	3.31	3.20	3.00	1.11	0.21	1.00	6.20
Work Overload	3.38	3.29	2.57	1.00	0.32	1.00	6.14
Invasion of Privacy	4.46	4.50	4.00	1.48	-0.28	1.00	7.00
Emotional Intelligence	4.95	5.00	5.29	0.86	-0.70	1.00	7.00
Job Satisfaction	5.02	5.15	5.90	1.05	-0.57	1.00	7.00
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	5.08	5.17	4.96	0.76	-0.79	1.00	6.71

Table 5 Spearman's Rank Correlation Matrix between Latent Variables

	RAM	EMI	JIN	JSA	OCB	IOP	WOL	WHC
RAM	1.000							
EMI	-.448*	1.000						
JIN	.257*	-.166*	1.000					
JSA	-.606*	.353*	-.387*	1.000				
OCB	-.451*	.386*	-.287*	.619*	1.000			
IOP	.134*	-.045	.321*	-.276*	-.159*	1.000		
WOL	.320*	-.282*	.398*	-.377*	-.261*	.270*	1.000	
WHC	.296*	-.208*	.330*	-.341*	-.224*	.234*	.623*	1.000

Note: RAM = Role Ambiguity; EMI = Emotional Intelligence; JIN = Job Insecurity; JSA = Job Satisfaction; OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behavior; IOP = Invasion of Privacy; WOL = Work Overload; WHC = Work Home Conflict; \* = Significant correlation ( $p < .05$ ).

Figure 5 PLS-SEM Analysis of Relationship between Job Stress and Job Satisfaction

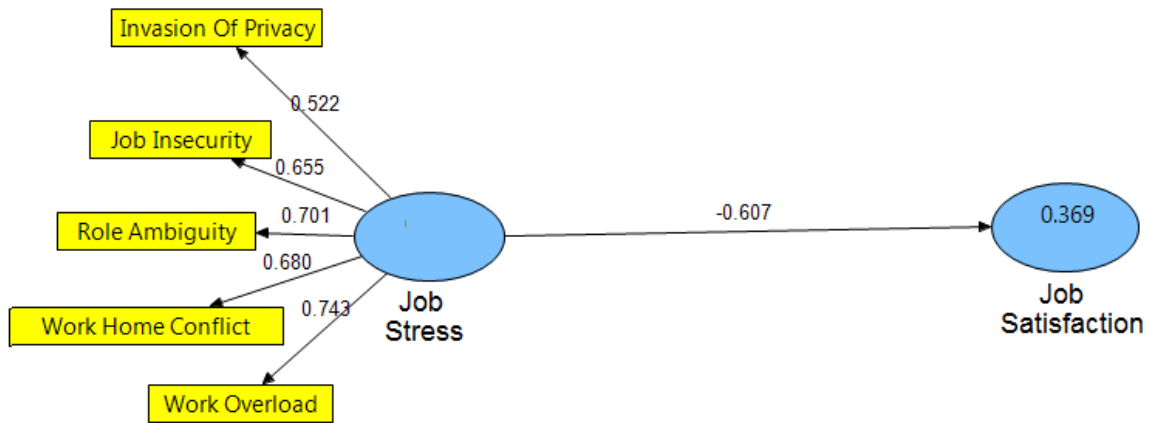


Figure 6 PLS-SEM Analysis of Mediating Effect of Emotional Intelligence

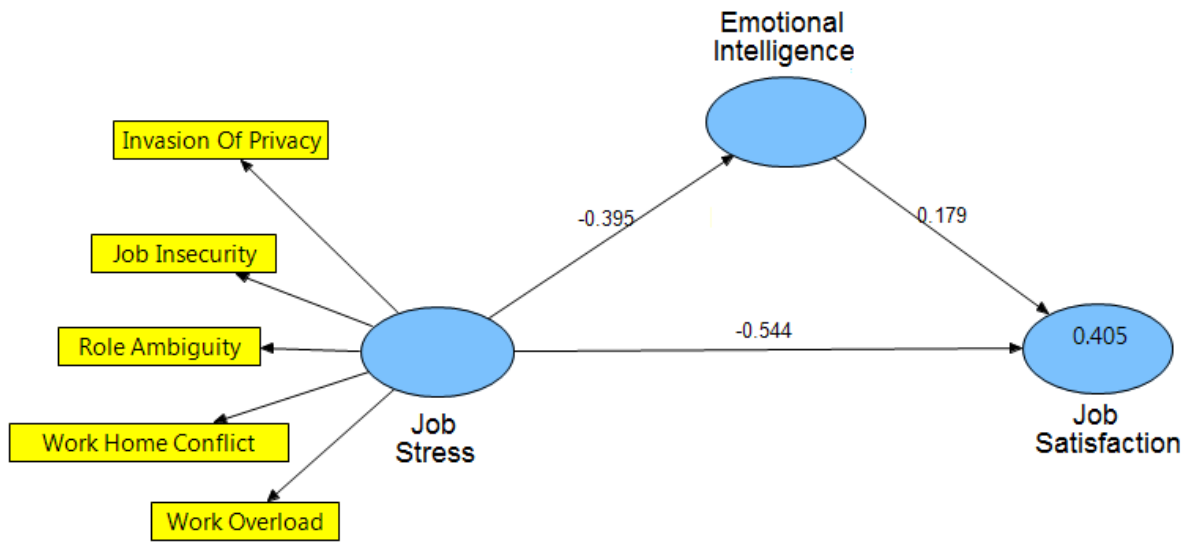


Table 6 Sobel Test for the Mediating Effect of Emotional Intelligence

Path	$\beta$	t	Standard Error	Sobel Test Statistic	p
Job Stress → Emotional Intelligence	-.395	9.602	0.041	-4.726	<.001*
Emotional Intelligence → Job Satisfaction	.179	3.790	0.047		
Job Stress → Job Satisfaction	-.544	16.436	0.033		

Note: \* Significant mediating effect (p < .001)



Figure 7 PLS-SEM Analysis of Mediating Effect of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

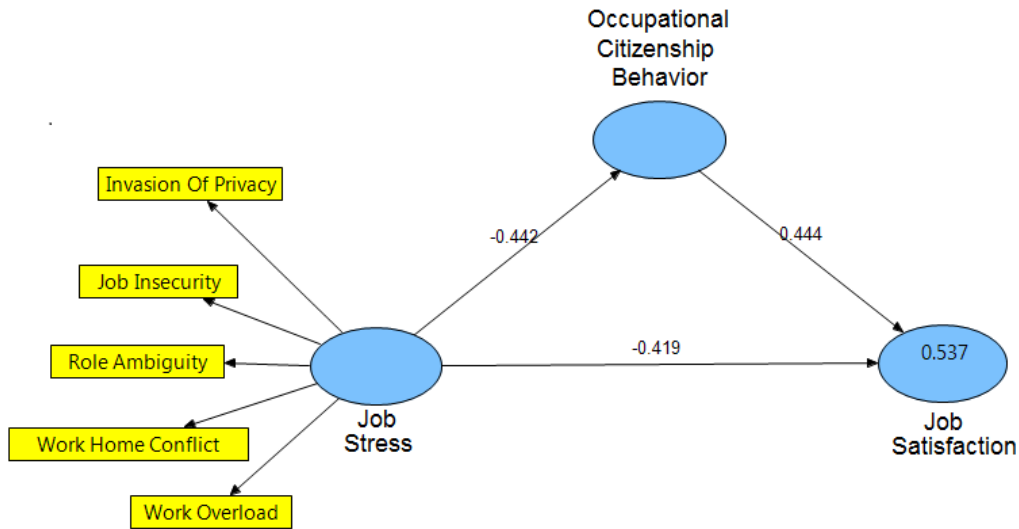


Table 7 Sobel Test for Mediating Effect of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Path	$\beta$	t	Standard Error	Sobel Test Statistic	p
Job Stress → OCB	-.422	11.920	.035	-7.738	<.001
OCB → Job Satisfaction	.444	10.060	.044		
Job Stress → Job Satisfaction	-.419	10.766	.039		