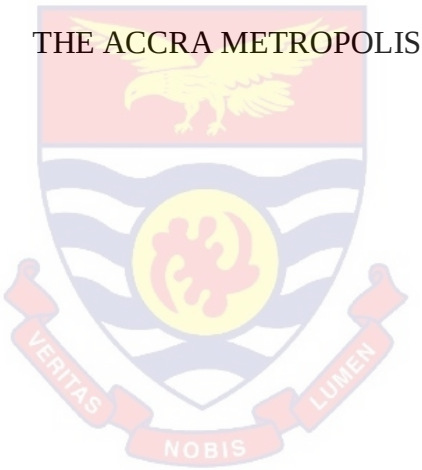
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JOB STRESS, PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND JOB PERFORMANCE OF EMPLOYEES IN 3-5 STAR-RATED HOTELS IN THE ACCRA METROPOLIS, GHANA



LILY ATSWEI ABLOH

2025

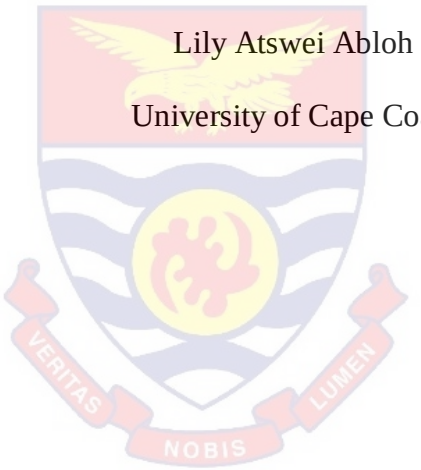
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JOB STRESS, PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND JOB PERFORMANCE OF EMPLOYEES IN 3-5 STAR-RATED HOTELS IN THE ACCRA METROPOLIS, GHANA

BY

LILY ATSWEI ABLOH

Thesis submitted to the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management of the Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Hospitality Management

APRIL 2025

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:……..……. Date:……

Name: Lily Atswei Abloh

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentations of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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Co-Supervisor's Signature:…… Date:……

Name: Prof. Ishmael Mensah

Co-Supervisor's Signature:…… Date:……

Name: Dr. Charles A. Adongo

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ABSTRACT

Job stress and its related effects have serious economic, health, psychological and performance implications for individuals, organisations and countries globally. Several studies have assessed the effects of job stress on coping strategies, psychological well-being and job performance. However, little is known about the effects of job stress on psychological well-being and job performance in the hospitality industry. Therefore, the study sought to assess the effects of job stress on the psychological well-being and job performance of employees of 3-5 star rated hotels in the Accra Metropolis, Ghana. The explanatory sequential mixed methods approach was adopted for this study. A total of 311 hotel employees were surveyed and 14 were interviewed. The surveyed data were analysed using ANOVA, T-test, linear regression and Structural Equation Modelling, whereas the interviews were analysed using thematic analysis. It was found that some employees experience job stress and their experiences differed based on demographic and work characteristics such as education, marital status, star-rating and departments. The study further revealed that there were statistically significant positive relationships between employees' coping strategy and job performance, coping strategy and psychological well-being, job stress and coping strategy, and job stress and psychological well-being. It was also revealed that coping strategies and psychological well-being positively moderate the effect of job stress on job performance. In view of this, management of star-rated hotels should organise job stress management training and encourage communication to promote employees' job performance.

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KEYWORDS

Accra metropolis

Coping strategies

Hotel employees

Job performance

Job stress

Psychological well-being

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DEDICATION

To my lovely children: Abena Adobea Osafo-Kissi and Yaw Asante Osafo-Kissi.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AF	Avoidance-Focused
AMA	Accra Metropolitan Area
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
AP	Adaptive Performance
AT	Autonomy
CB-SEM	Covariance-based structural equation modelling
CHLS	College of Humanities and Legal Studies
COVID-19	Coronavirus Disease 2019
CP	Contextual Performance
CS	Coping Strategies
CTP	Counterproductive Performance
EF	Emotion-Focused
EM	Environmental Mastery
F&B	Food and Beverage
HND	Higher National Diploma
IRB	Institutional Review Board
JP	Job Performance
JS	Job Stress
ML	Maximum Likelihood
OSI	Occupational Stress Index
PF	Problem-Focused
PG	Personal Growth
PIL	Purpose in Life
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Model

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PPR	Poor Peer Relations
PRWO	Positive Relation with Others
PWB	Psychological Well-Being
RA	Role Ambiguity
RC	Role Conflict
RO	Role Overload
SA	Self-Acceptance
SEM	Structural Equation Model
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SWC	Strenuous Working Conditions
TP	Task Performance
UCC IRB	University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
WHO	World Health Organisation
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Work within the hospitality industry, particularly hotels, is very demanding in terms of working hours and attention to standards, meeting deadlines, having unexpected interactions with guests, going through the cycle of morning and evening shifts, high emotional, low influence and repetitive work demand (Wireko-Gyebi & Akyeampong, 2014). In addition, the problems with the coordination of work also put much pressure on workers. Moreover, the nature of hospitality service requires that most workers constantly be in direct contact with customers and ensure that they provide service in a friendly, positive and empathetic way (Bora, 2017; Mmutle & Shonhe, 2017). These demands from supervisors, hospitality companies, and clients expose employees to severe job stress (Fonkeng, 2018). For instance, a study by Wireko-Gyebi and Akyeampong (2014) on hotel frontline staff in Kumasi Metropolis, Ghana, showed that employees experience job stress due to factors such as lack of support, poor working relationships with colleagues and supervisors, ambiguity and role conflict work demands, lack of control over their work, issues relating to poor remuneration and frequent interactions with hotel guests.

Scholars and professionals acknowledge the fact that human assets are the most critical resources in the hospitality industry (Kusluvan, 2010). Nevertheless, continuous pressure from hotel managers for employees to provide quality service, coupled with long working hours and low pay, exerts pressure on employees, resulting in unwanted practices such as cynicism,

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work environment incivility and the quest for new employment opportunities. These challenges also result in employees becoming stressed because the nature of some hotel jobs sometimes results in emotional labour (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008).

According to Lv et al. (2012), emotional labour is the act of manipulating emotions in order to create a publicly visible bodily and facial manifestation. It entails the expression of appropriate emotions in order to improve one's job performance (Santos et al., 2015). According to Lam and Chen (2012), employees are subjected to emotional labour as they are expected to fulfil the emotional demands of their occupations, which ultimately results in emotional exhaustion. Research has demonstrated a direct correlation between emotional labour and job tension (Sohn et al., 2018). Thus, emotional labour generates discrepancies that elevate job stress, leading to job dissatisfaction and exhaustion (Lee & Ok, 2012). The significance of job stress and its impact on the psychological well-being and job performance of hotel employees is underscored by the high likelihood of employees experiencing job stress as a result of the sector's nature and emotional labour (Yoo, 2023).

The term "job stress" denotes a recurring sequence of cognitive, behavioural, emotional, and physiological responses that individuals experience in response to the unfavourable and detrimental aspects of their jobs, including the nature of their responsibilities, the structure of their jobs, and the overall work environment (Maddux et al., 2018). Stress is a condition that results in both physical and mental distress when an individual's resources are insufficient to meet the demands and pressures of a specific situation (Ratnawat & Jha, 2014). Although stress is acknowledged as a problem in the

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workplace, particularly in the hospitality industry, individuals react to stress in a variety of ways depending on the circumstances (Ratnawat & Jha, 2014). The Job Demand Control model could theoretically be associated with stress. Stress, according to this theory, is the consequence of a conflict between the demands of one's profession and the ability to regulate their environment (Fila et al., 2017). Consequently, it has a substantial influence on the health and performance of employees, as well as the performance of a company (Mimura & Griffiths, 2003; Shah et al., 2012). Some of the consequences of stress include decreased productivity, poor health, low motivation, and decreased safety among employees (World Health Organisation, 2024). In addition to its direct negative impact on the individual's health, it indirectly results in low productivity, fatigue, high absenteeism, low creativity, low enthusiasm for work, and high dissatisfaction with work (Anbazhagan & Rajan, 2013; Hwang, Lee, Park, Chang, & Kim, 2014).

Individuals' signs of stress manifest in absenteeism, employee attitudes, lack of commitment, reduced retention rates, and poor performance (Yusof & Teknologi, 2015). Studies in Ghana have identified some effects of stress on employees and these include headaches (Wireko-Gyebi & Akyeampong, 2014), ignoring responsibilities and neglecting tasks assigned at work (Nyarko-Sampson & Nyarko-Sampson, 2017) and suffering injuries and illnesses (Oduro, Kissah-Korsah, & Nyarko-Sampson, 2017). In addition, job stress affects mental health in many ways, including insomnia, depression, anxiety and unhappiness (Poormahmood et al., 2017) and these effects harm the organisation as a whole (Yusof & Teknologi, 2015). In the long term, all these affect psychological well-being (Li, Wong, & Kim, 2016; Milot & Borkenhagen, 2018).

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Among the causes of stress at the workplace are bullying (Ajayi, 2018), workload, role conflict, reduction of resources, harassment, role ambiguity, lack of motivation and other factors that impact employee psychological well-being (Milot & Borkenhagen, 2018) and performance (Murali et al., 2016). Moreover, according to Fonkeng (2018), long hours of duty, undefined job descriptions, especially those requiring standing, and unpleasant and hostile working environments are factors responsible for job stress among hotel workers.

According to Taneva (2016), research has consistently demonstrated that employees' physical health is positively correlated with their well-being, and it is a strong predictor of high work performance and certain organisational outcomes. In general, employees who are psychologically well-adjusted exhibit superior work performance compared to those who are not. Nevertheless, there is a lack of consensus among researchers regarding the definition of "well-being" and the appropriate method of assessing it (Taneva, 2016). Emotional and cognitive segments may be employed to represent psychological well-being. Psychological well-being is a multifaceted concept, as per Ryff (1989). Six dimensions constitute psychological well-being: environmental mastery, autonomy, positive relationships, personal growth, purpose in life, and self-acceptance (Gao & McLellan, 2018; Villarosa & Ganotice, 2018).

Ullah (2017) believes that employee performance is a vital factor connected with the success of every organisation. Job stress contributes to about 50-60% of low employee performance (Hanafi et al., 2018). A person under long-term stress may become overwhelmed by demands that he/she

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cannot meet, which results in low performance (Robbins & Judge, 2017; Hanafi et al., 2018). Job performance is a task assigned to a person to accomplish with limited resources and within the specified time (Altangerel et al., 2015). Stress increases employees' dissatisfaction and reduces work performance (Altangerel et al., 2015). Job stress affects employees' mental and physical health, which ultimately has impacted their performance on the job (Kotteeswari & Sharief, 2014; Murali et al., 2016; Ratnawat & Jha, 2014).

Studying stress in relation to job performance cannot be overlooked since job stress has implications for employee performance, well-being, the organisation of society, and the country's economy as a whole (Altangerel et al., 2015; Murali et al., 2016). For instance, a study on work stress of employee performance in fifty Chinese hotels reveals that stress generally leads to adverse outcomes for the employee and organization (Hon & Chan, 2013). In Ghana, Wireko-Gyebi and Akyeampong's (2014) study on hotel employees in Kumasi showed that job stressed employees tend to have frequent headaches and become anxious, directly affecting their job performance. Other studies in Ghana have shown that stress affects job performance, which in the long run negatively affects the organisation (Dwamena, 2012; Nyarko-Sampson & Nyarko-Sampson, 2017; Oduro et al., 2017; Wireko-Gyebi et al., 2017).

Dealing with human beings is known to be stressful (Poulston, 2015) as such, employees of the hospitality industry are prone to high-stress levels (Fonkeng, 2018) and an unhealthy organisational climate also reduces employee performance (Altangerel et al., 2015). Therefore, job stress should be regularly checked to ensure employees' efficient and effective performance

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in the hospitality industry. Furthermore, to help minimise stress on job performance, employers must motivate and empower employees and provide them with a suitable working environment (Murali et al., 2016; Ullah, 2017).

Employee job stress is a critical concern in the hospitality industry as a result of the nature of the work. For instance, the 3–5 star-rated hotels operate twenty-four hours. Thus, the nature of the work, such as working for long hours, working on holidays, demanding managers and irritating guests, leads to stress among hotel employees (Bani-Melhem et al., 2020). Stress contributes to decreased employee performance (Goonetilleke et al., 2018), high incidence of error (Ajayi, 2018), absenteeism (Mohamed Al Ali et al., 2018), emotional disorders (Suleman et al., 2018) and illnesses such as headaches (Wireko-Gyebi & Akyeampong, 2014).

Statement of the Problem

The economic, health, psychological, and performance implications of stress and its related effects are profound for individuals, organisations, and countries worldwide (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018a; Jin et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2019). For instance, the World Health Organisation [WHO] (2005) estimated that governments and enterprises in certain European countries incur approximately €20 billion in costs as a result of job stress and its associated issues. This is in addition to the expense of decreased productivity, increased staff attrition, and a diminished capacity to innovate (Bora, 2017; Rizwan et al., 2014). The health consequences of job stress are particularly alarming, as they resulted in a cost to society of EUR 1.27 to EUR 2524.88 million in France in 2009, with between 220,500 and 335,000 employees experiencing stress-related illness (Leka et al., 2015). In 2009, the same study estimated that

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Germany suffered a loss of EUR 3,000 million as a result of psychological disorders.

Job-related stress, psychological well-being, and job performance are the subjects of extensive research on a global scale in the hospitality industry, especially the hotel sector (Karatepe & Karadas, 2015; Ariza-Montes, 2019). Nevertheless, the majority of these studies have either addressed each variable individually or in combination (Akgunduz, 2015; Ariza-Montes, 2019; Choi & Kim, 2012). Consequently, it is worthwhile to investigate the relationships between the three variables in order to improve the formulation of policy. Consequently, concentrating on the three variables in a single study could facilitate a more profound comprehension of the relationships among these variables and their substantial policy implications.

Furthermore, the hotel sector has been the subject of only a small number of these studies. For example, numerous studies focused on employees in the banking sector (Jayasinghe & Mendis, 2017; Nordzro, 2017; Priya & Soni, 2017), schools (Poormahmood et al., 2017; Sadeghi, Niyafar, Pour, Zamani, & Gholami, 2016), hospitals (Abaa et al., 2013; Cho, Kim, & Mo, 2015; Lu et al., 2015), security services (Amankwah, 2018; Arthur, 2016), port and harbour authority (Dwamena, 2012) and hospitality industry, especially the hotel sector (Choi, Mohammad, & Kim, 2019; Karatepe, Beirami, Bouzari, & Safavi, 2014; Karatepe, Yavas, Babakus, & Deitz, 2018; Wireko-Gyebi & Akyeampong, 2014).

Similarly, in Ghana, much of the focus has been on employee stress and its related implications (see, for example, Abaa, Atindanbila, Mwini-Nyaledzigbor, & Abepuoring, 2013; Abasimi, Atindanbila, Gai, & Mahamah, 2015; Arthur, 2016; Atindanbila, 2011; Dwamena, 2012; Kwaah & Essilfie, 2017; Nyarko-Sampson & Nyarko-Sampson, 2017; Oduro et al., 2017;

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Wireko-Gyebi & Akyeampong, 2014). A more quantitative assessment indicated that about 75% of Ghanaian workers were stressed (Regus, 2013). Brobbey (2017) further attributed mental health challenges at the workplace to job-related stress. Following the global trend, a substantial proportion of the literature on Ghana either shied away from the hotel sector or dealt with the key variables under consideration (job stress, psychological well-being and job performance) separately or combined any two of them (Wireko-Gyebi & Akyeampong, 2014). In addition, many global and local studies employed quantitative methods as the dominant methodology. Nevertheless, some key issues, such as contextual and subjective experiences, limited room to express one's perspective and interpretation bias, need to be investigated using qualitative methods, either as complementary to the quantitative analysis or to provide a stand-alone insight into some of the issues.

The current study addresses the gap in literature at three levels, as indicated by the assertions made earlier. Initially, the three variables are combined to comprehend their interrelationships and connections. Secondly, the investigation concentrates on the hotel sector in order to ascertain the manner in which job tension, psychological well-being, and job performance interact to optimise the performance of hotel employees.

Research Questions

1. What are the job stressors among 3-5 star-rated hotel employees in the Accra Metropolis?
2. Which coping strategies are adopted for managing job stress by employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in Accra Metropolis, Ghana

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3. What is the effect of job stress on the psychological well-being of hotel employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in Accra Metropolis, Ghana
4. What is the effect of job stress on the performance of hotel employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in Accra Metropolis, Ghana

Research Objectives

The study's general objective is to assess the effects of job stress on the psychological well-being and performance of employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in Accra Metropolis, Ghana. The specific objectives are to:

1. Examine job stressors among employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in Accra Metropolis, Ghana
2. Analyse the coping strategies for managing job stress by employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in Accra Metropolis, Ghana
3. Assess the effect of job stress on the psychological well-being of hotel employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in Accra Metropolis, Ghana and
4. Assess the effect of job stress on the performance of hotel employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in Accra Metropolis, Ghana.

Hypotheses

H_0: Coping strategies do not significantly moderate the effect of job stress on hotel employees' psychological well-being.

H_0: Coping strategies do not significantly moderate the effect of job stress on hotel employees' performance.

H_0: Job stress has no significant effect on the coping strategies adopted by hotel employees.

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H_0: Job stress has no significant effect on the psychological well-being of hotel employees.

H_0: Job stress has no significant effect on the performance of hotel employees.

H_0: Psychological well-being has no significant effect on the performance of Hotel employees.

Significance of the Study

Stress and its related effects in the hotel sector cannot be overemphasised since it has detrimental effects on all stakeholders, including hotel owners and management, employees, tourists and guests. As one of the service sectors that generates a high amount of Ghana's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), it is essential to study stress and its effects on its key actors, such as employees and suggest strategies to curb this menace. In addition, including a qualitative approach in this study would help understand the actual situations behind the figures. Thus, it is of the essence to bring on board the contextual issues behind the figures. The current study seeks to employ a mixed method to investigate job stress, psychological well-being, and performance to understand the types of stress experienced by employees, their underlying causes, and how employees cope with them within the hotel sector.

The results of this study would be substantial to stakeholders such as the employees, the hotel management, customers, industry, Ghana Tourism Authority and academia. The study would first be significant to employees because it would equip them with the knowledge to identify and manage job stressors effectively, improve employees' psychological well-being, and ultimately strengthen job performance and organisational success in the hotel industry. To employers or organisations, this study would inform them of job

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stress inducers to adopt appropriate strategies to reduce job stress amongst employees, to enhance psychological well-being and job performance. Finally, customers aware of the findings of this study would adopt an appropriate approach to an employee in order not to contribute more to the employees' stress levels.

The findings of the study would help regulatory bodies such as the Ghana Tourism Authority and other affiliates like the Ghana Hotel Association to be able to identify the fundamental causes or sources of stress that impact employee psychological well-being and performance and come up with more effective and efficient stress management strategies to address them. Moreover, this study would fill theoretical and methodological gaps and suggest the appropriate stress-coping strategies. The findings would also provide detailed information, which could potentially resolve some of the challenges regarding stress and psychological well-being. Also, the findings of this study can contribute to multiple SDGs (3, 5, 8, 10, 12) and align with the ILO's focus on promoting decent work, mental health, and safe work environments. It can help improve working conditions, boost productivity, and foster a healthier hospitality sector.

Thus, in all, the study would help provide the basis for developing pragmatic and workable policies by regulators, managers and owners of hotels to handle their human resources better to enhance productivity and performance.

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Study Organisation

Organised into ten chapters, the first discusses the research issue and the backdrop of the study. The first chapter also contains the goals, hypotheses, research questions, and relevance of the study. Relevant literature is reviewed in the Second and Third Chapters. Chapter Two discusses theoretical and conceptual concerns on job stress, psychological well-being and job performance to ground the study scientifically. Chapter Three discusses empirical literature to link the study to existing knowledge to explain the relationships among key variables and obtain a guide for the methodology. Methodological concerns are addressed in the Fourth Chapter. Part one of this chapter examines the philosophical foundation for the research, particularly the methodological decisions. This chapter expatiates the research process and design. Examining the difficulties in the sector will end the chapter. Results and discussion occupy Chapters Five to Nine. The final, Chapter Ten, offers the overview, conclusions and recommendations.

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CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL REVIEW

Introduction

This section examines the literature pertinent to the research. This chapter is generally split into two sections: concepts and the theoretical framework. The initial part discusses the three ideas: psychological well-being, job stress, and job performance. The subsequent section concentrated on concepts including the Transactional Theory of Stress and Coping (TtSC), the Ryff Psychological Well-Being Model, and Performance Theory. This study positioned the ideas of job stress and coping strategies, psychological well-being, and job performance within the previously mentioned theories to provide comprehensive perspectives.

Concept of Stress

The concept of stress, which is regarded as a worrying phenomenon to human beings, has been defined by Hans Selye (1975) as the non-specific response of the body to any demand. This concept has since undergone several modifications by other scholars. According to Willy (2015), stress can be defined as a situation that places unusual physical and psychological demands upon a person, anything that can cause an imbalance in individual equilibrium and anything that a person experiences when under pressure and unable to cope. These definitions explain stress from the perspective of an individual's inability to cope with the demands of family, work and society.

Furthermore, stress can be characterized as an undesirable emotional encounter that arises in connection with particular environmental stimuli and

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is accompanied by sensations of anger, anxiety, frustration and tension (Kyriacou, 2001; Ouellette et al., 2017). Again, stress has been defined as the hostile reaction people exhibit due to undue pressure or other burdens placed on them (Duah, 2016). Also, stress refers to a person's reaction to a situation between the person and the situation (Bliese et al., 2017). Notably, stress is a negative condition that includes varying degrees of anxiety, agitation and fear (Duah, 2016; Ouellette et al., 2017). These scholars also defined stress as an individual's emotional response or reaction to challenging demands.

The various definitions of stress indicate that it is a negative condition (McShane & Glinow, 2010) that affects people. However, other scholars, such as Hans and Selye (1975), view it as both positive and negative. The reason why many scholars consider stress as a negative phenomenon stems from its characteristics and effects; that is, stress is characterised by an increase in the rate of heartbeat, tight muscles, increased perspiration, high blood pressure, the release of adrenaline and other hormones release more glucose and fatty acids, activation of systems that sharpen the senses and suppression of the immune system (McShane & Glinow, 2010). Stress affects people emotionally, physically or psychologically (Cardoso & Jordão, 2017; Lo & Lamm, 2005; Robbins & Judge, 2017). Thus, when stress management is ineffective, it affects people's private lives, which trickles down to their emotional, physical or psychological aspects.

In this study, the work environment is regarded as the place where people experience stress. The stress experienced at work is referred to as occupational stress. Stress that is experienced in the work environment is either termed work-related stress (Chao et al., 2015; Khamisa et al., 2015;

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Terry et al., 1993) or occupational stress (Hwang, Lee, Park, Chang, & Kim, 2014; Malek, Fahrudin, Shafinaz, & Kamil, 2009; Nnuro, 2012; ul Haque & Aston, 2016) or job stress (Çam Kahraman & Özalp Türetgen, 2016; Karatepe, Yavas, Babakus & Deitz, 2018; Khuong & Yen, 2017; Nguyen & Trinh, 2017; Priya & Soni, 2017; Romswinkel, König, & Hajek, 2018; Ullah, 2017; Zeb & Saeed, 2015). However, this study will stick to job stress since that is the predominant term.

Job stress is a collection of detrimental external factors that exist within the workplace (Gharib et al., 2016). In contrast, occupational stress refers to the reactions individuals exhibit when workplace demands and pressures exceed their knowledge and capabilities, thereby challenging their ability to cope and adapt (World Health Organization [WHO], 2005). Work-related stress is the consequence of an employee's response to specific demands, pressures, and professional engagements at the workplace that are incompatible with their capabilities and knowledge. These present a threat and challenge to the employees' abilities and knowledge, thereby elevating their levels of job tension (Divakar, 2015).

Occupational (job) stress can be understood as the psychological and physiological responses individuals exhibit when workplace demands and pressures exceed their skills and competencies, thereby straining their ability to cope and adapt, as defined by the World Health Organization (2005). Job tension may develop when the assigned task exceeds the time constraints and the number of employees (Hodari et al., 2014; Stranks, 2005). Consequently, it is now recognised that job stress is a psychological condition that individuals experience as a result of their perception that the demands of their occupations

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are inconsistent with their capacity to manage them (Cox, 1993; World Health Organisation (WHO), 2005). Job stress is characterised by a failure to manage colleagues, sustained anxiety, a lack of clarity in responses, pressure and extreme demands, and an imbalance between the demands of the job and the capacity to cope (Stranks, 2005).

Forms of Stress

There are varied types of stress identified by scholars. The varying types of stress are based on the effects and magnitude of stress. The types of stress based on effects are distress and eustress (Narban et al., 2016; Nyarko-Sampson & Nyarko-Sampson, 2017), whereas the different types of stress based on magnitude are acute, chronic and traumatic (Fonkeng, 2018).

Effects of Stress - Eustress and Distress

The types of stress can be categorised into distress and eustress (Rizwan, Waseem, & Bukhari, 2014; Kotteeswari and Sharief, 2014; Kazmi et al., 2008). Stress is usually associated with a negative image (Duah, 2016; McShane & Glinow, 2010), but eustress leads to adaptive effects (Selye, 1975). Seyle (1976), who is often referred to as the "father of stress," was the first to differentiate between "good stress" (eustress or positive stress) and "bad stress" (distress or negative stress) (De Silva et al., 2016).

Eustress

Eustress refers to a type of positive stress that can be advantageous when we encounter challenges, as it turns significant opportunities into

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meaningful experiences (Narban et al., 2016; Nyarko-Sampson & Nyarko-Sampson, 2017; Thomas, 2017). Positive stress is typically temporary and is associated with increased focus, motivation, excitement, better personal coping skills, and improved performance. Eustress arises when a stressor is viewed positively, allowing the person to utilise coping mechanisms to avoid experiencing distress. Employees experiencing eustress tend to be more involved in their work, indicating they feel a significant sense of purpose, control, optimism, and a positive attitude towards their job responsibilities (Simmons & Nelson, 2001). Additionally, encountering eustress in the workplace is associated with improved job performance, enhanced psychological well-being, and better physical health (Simmons & Nelson, 2001). As a result, stressors are not necessarily linked to adverse effects on health; they can also serve as motivating factors, particularly in a work environment (Thomas, 2017).

Distress

It is a condition that arises whenever an individual is exposed to a risk, a loss, or an event that has a detrimental effect on them (Gharib et al., 2016). An unpleasant emotional and detrimental bodily response can also be a manifestation of distress (Marten, 2013). De Silva et al. (2016) have determined that distress can be either acute or chronic, resulting in unpleasantness, anxiety, decreased performance, and physical or emotional difficulties.

Individuals' experience of distress at work results in acute and chronic stress, necessitating the management of their underlying causes. It is referred

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to as occupational stress when stress is the result of a discrepancy between the job requirements and the worker's competencies, resources, or demands (Mohajan, 2012). This form of stress is not unique to any particular profession (De Silva et al., 2016). Distress is induced by stressors such as work excess and role ambiguity, as well as health issues, the need to balance work and family, and peer pressure (Michie, 2002).

In sum, the stress that improves an individual's functionality can be considered eustress (good stress), whereas the stress that hinders one's functionality can be considered distress (bad stress). Notably, both categories of stress can be equally tough on the body. This is based on the cumulative nature of stress and depends on how a person adapts to the stressor that caused it (Narban et al., 2016). The distinction between distress and eustress depends on how one perceives stress because the body cannot physically distinguish between the two. Notwithstanding, it is thought that the same stressor can generate both distress and eustress (Di Fabio et al., 2018; Narban et al., 2016).

Magnitude of Stress

In some studies, understanding the magnitude of stress is critical. The magnitude of stress can be defined as the intensity and duration of the stress experienced by an individual. According to Fonkeng (2018), stress can manifest in varying degrees depending on factors such as an individual's coping capacity, the nature of the stressor and the availability of social or organisational support. Similarly, the Stress Measurement Network (2018) explains that stress may range from short-term reactions to long-term conditions that require effective management. Generally, stress can be

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categorised by its magnitude into acute, chronic and post-traumatic stress, each differing in duration, intensity and impact on psychological well-being and job performance.

Acute Stress

Acute stress refers to the type of stress that happens over a brief timeframe and does not lead to any lasting harm to the body (The Stress Measurement Network, 2018). This type of stress is widely recognised and well-known. This kind of stress can stem from a person's hectic timetable. For instance, if a person's vehicle breaks down while travelling, it can lead to a significant level of immediate stress; however, once the vehicle is repaired, that stress dissipates (Fonkeng, 2018).

Chronic Stress

Chronic stress, as defined by Fonkeng (2018), is a form of stress that manifests itself externally and debilitates an individual on a daily basis without any discernible indication of relief. Emotional exhaustion is the result of long-term exposure to destitution, unwarranted employment, traumatising experiences, and relationship conflicts (Fonkeng, 2018; Xie & Johns, 1995). Moreover, chronic stress is believed to take a toll on a person when there are other factors like workplace conflict, home stress, inadequate staffing, poor supervision and inadequate training (Chandraiah et al., 2003).

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Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder

Stress experienced from a catastrophic event, such as an accident, is termed post-traumatic stress disorder (Skogstad et al., 2013). Stress resulting from threatening life events shocks individuals who go through it. Others may be unable to establish an equilibrium in their life after the incident. This can be termed post-traumatic stress disorder because the victim experiences symptoms like nightmares and memories of the trauma (Fonkeng, 2018).

Psychological Well-Being

Psychological well-being (PWB) denotes an individual's overall mental state, encompassing emotional, cognitive, and behavioural dimensions (Bar-On, 1988). Empirical studies conceptualise psychological well-being as a multidimensional and complex construct (Macleod & Moore, 2000; Ryff, 1989), shaped by the interaction of emotional regulation capacities, personality traits, and accumulated life experiences (Helson & Srivastava, 2001).

PWB represents a broad range of experiences that include individuals' emotional responses, satisfaction in various areas, and evaluations of overall life contentment (Akhter, 2015). The idea of well-being has been divided into two categories: subjective and objective psychological well-being (Burns, 2016). This research centres around mental health and well-being. Carol Ryff presented this idea in 1989, focusing on creating theory-driven measures of positive human functioning that align with a eudaimonic perspective on happiness (Ryff, 1989). Eudaimonia is a term from Ancient Greece that signifies goodness or well-being (Freire et al., 2019). This indicates that

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individuals' well-being is linked to how closely they align their lives with their true selves, a notion backed by psychological frameworks such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Burns, 2016). Given the extensive body of literature on PWB, the definition appears to be somewhat unclear. Nonetheless, PWB has been put into practice to signify leading a fulfilling life.

To grasp the idea of PWB, it has been suggested that emotions serve as key indicators of PWB. Emotions have been demonstrated to drive behaviour, affect psychological well-being, and have an effect on health (Payne, 2016). The enhancement of psychological well-being may be associated with factors such as education, age, extraversion, and conscientiousness, while a reduction in neuroticism is also noted (Keyes et al., 2002). Emotions can be classified as either state or trait. State emotion is temporary and typically triggered by a specific stimulus, whereas trait emotion refers to an individual's overall inclination to experience a certain emotion (Payne, 2016). Payne's review from 2016 highlighted that anxiety, anger, depression, stress, and curiosity are essential emotional indicators of PWB. Various perspectives exist regarding psychological well-being, with some being contextualised within the workplace, including aspects like job satisfaction, positive emotions at work, feelings of vitality, and a sense of growth in a professional setting. Additional aspects encompass a wider significance, including overall personal development, healthy relationships with others, self-acceptance, and independence (Taneva, 2016). Researchers like Carol Ryff (1989) and Ryan and Deci (2000) have created models for measuring PWB.

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In conclusion, the idea of PWB, understood as leading a fulfilling life, can be negatively affected by work-related stress (Payne, 2016). This indicates that when a person struggles to manage stress, one of the consequences can be an impact on their mental health.

Job Performance

The literature review indicates that there is no universally accepted definition of job performance. Job performance can be defined in various ways. Jayasinghe and Mendis (2017) define job performance as the overall outcome of an individual's strengths, influenced by their abilities, traits, and perceptions of their role. According to this definition, performance in each context can be seen as the result of a complicated interaction among personal effort, skills, characteristics, and one's understanding of their role. Additionally, job performance can be described as the professional behaviours that reflect how employees manage their work responsibilities (Gharib et al., 2016). Job performance can be described as the extent to which a person successfully carries out their designated tasks and obligations (Mohamed Al Ali et al., 2018). Typically, the performance of an employee influences the extent of their contribution to the organisation (Hanafi et al., 2018).

Sonnentag and Frese (2005) identify three viewpoints regarding performance. These include the situational perspective, the individual differences perspective, and the performance regulation perspective. They also mentioned that evaluating performance is most effective when viewed through the lens of performance regulation, as this approach is highly practical. Employee job performance primarily focuses on the different definitions, and

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according to Koopmans et al. (2011), individual work performance serves as an important outcome measure of job performance. Consequently, job performance should be conceptualised in terms of individual work performance, given that Koopmans et al. (2011) observed that these concepts are often used interchangeably in the literature.

The idea of personal work performance gained prominence through the contributions of Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, and Sager in 1993, as well as Murphy in 1989. Sonnentag and Frese (2005) suggest that individual work performance can be understood through the lens of performance regulation, highlighting the performance process and framing it as an action-oriented procedure. As a result, one must understand individual work performance through the lens of actions and outcomes (Sonnentag & Frese, 2005). A perspective focused on action examines an individual's involvement in their work environment, while a perspective centred on outcomes pertains to the results of that individual's actions (Campbell et al., 1993; Sonnentag & Frese, 2005). The two perspectives differ, yet the action perspective is considered the most effective for understanding individual work performance (Campbell et al., 1993), as the results are evident through employees' actions and can be assessed from a managerial standpoint.

The idea of individual performance has been shown to be a multi-faceted and evolving concept related to job performance (Sonnentag & Frese, 2005). For example, Murphy (1989a) and Campbell (1990) were pioneers in proposing various general aspects of individual work performance. The dimensions encompassed task-related behaviour, interpersonal interactions, both written and verbal communication, as well as support for peer and team

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performance. Over time, these dimensions have transformed into contextual performance, counterproductive performance, and task performance (Koopmans et al., 2011).

The effectiveness of employees is considered a crucial factor for the success of an organisation. Nonetheless, it is advisable to evaluate the concept of individual work performance. This idea asserts that job performance refers to the actions taken by an individual throughout their working hours. The idea of personal work performance can be understood through the lens of performance regulation. The rationale is that the performance regulation viewpoint enables researchers to evaluate performance based on the actions of employees. Job performance is understood at the individual level and is influenced by various personal and situational factors within the work environment. The review clarifies the concept of job performance, particularly focusing on individual work performance and its dimensions, task, contextual, counterproductive and adaptive performance. This understanding provides a foundation for later sections of the study that examine how job stress may influence employees' performance outcomes.

Theoretical Framework

The theories that serve as the foundation of this investigation are the primary focus of this section. These theories facilitated comprehension of the correlation between workplace stress, psychological well-being, coping strategies, and job performance. The Transactional Theory of Stress and Coping, Ryff's Psychological Well-Being, and the Performance Theory Model are the theories.

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Transactional Theory of Stress and Coping

Lazarus (1980) developed the first version of the transactional theory of stress and coping in his book *Psychological Stress and the Coping Process* (Anderson, 2014; Ben-Zur, 2019). The theory explains why some people respond to the same stressor differently. According to this model, stress occurs when an individual confronts a demand from their environment. The resulting stress response is influenced by their cognitive appraisal, which involves interpreting the stressor based on their perceived ability to cope with it (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Folkman and Lazarus (1980) explained that a stressful encounter and its outcome are mediated by coping. In stress appraisal, three types of cognitive appraisal have been identified. These are primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, and reappraisal (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; S. Kim, 2017). A primary appraisal can be considered a person's initial assessment of a situation, be it benign, challenging or threatening. Research indicates that primary appraisal encompasses various dimensions, such as centrality, challenge, and threat. Nonetheless, the frequently referenced dimension is a risk, characterised as the level of danger and negativity sensed in the scenario (Johnstone & Feeney, 2015). Conversely, secondary appraisal centres on how individuals perceive their available options and resources for managing stress, which can either lessen or heighten their initial sense of threat. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) define reappraisal as the alteration of one's thoughts in response to a situation, influenced by new information, which can either heighten or lessen the stress experienced by an individual.

The transactional theory defines coping as the ongoing adjustments in cognitive and behavioural strategies aimed at handling external and/or internal

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pressures that are perceived as overwhelming or surpassing an individual's available resources (Biggs et al., 2017, p. 353). Moreover, coping is characterised by being process-oriented and dynamic instead of being based on traits, and it encompasses deliberate, intentional actions taken when a person perceives a situation as stressful (Biggs et al., 2017; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). This theory suggests that coping strategies are designed to either tackle the stressor directly via problem-focused coping or to manage the emotions that stem from the stressful situation through emotion-focused coping (Biggs et al., 2017; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Coping strategies are crucial in the transaction stress model, and research indicates that certain "positive" coping methods, like problem-solving and seeking guidance, are linked to favourable health results. On the other hand, behaviours deemed "negative," including wishful thinking, avoidance, and self-blame, have been shown to have adverse correlations (Mark & Smith, 2012).

The transactional theory of stress and coping may be widely applied in organisational stress research, there are a few limitations that may constrain its usefulness. One key limitation is its strong emphasis on individual cognitive appraisal, which overlooks structural and contextual factors such as understaffing, cultural expectations, and resource constraints (Silinda, 2018). Also, the theory assumes that individuals have sufficient psychological resources and autonomy to appraise and cope with stressors, which may not be entirely true because in most work settings, employees often have limited control over work demands.

This research identified the transactional model of stress as the most suitable theoretical framework for examining the connections between

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individuals (employees), their surroundings (workplace or job), and their coping mechanisms (Silinda, 2018). This theory aligns well with the study's focus on examining the job stress experienced by hotel employees and the strategies they use to cope with it. Despite the limitations of the transactional theory of stress and coping, it remains a valuable framework for examining stress and coping among 3-5 star-rated employees in the hotel sector of Ghana because it provides a better understanding of how individuals interpret and respond to work-related demands. Also, this theoretical framework supports the study's assessment of the relationship between job stress and coping strategies.

Ryff's Model of Psychological Well-being

Bloch-Jorgensen et al. (2018) assert that psychological well-being is the sensation that is consistent with an individual's genuine potential and correlates with their behaviour. In the late 1980s, psychological well-being became a topic of interest. Ryff (1989) is widely recognised as a foundational contributor to the conceptualisation of psychological well-being. Her initial framework operationalised psychological well-being through four core dimensions: autonomy, personal growth, positive relationships with others, and purpose in life. Subsequently, Ryff and Singer (1996) expanded this model to six dimensions (Table 1), namely purpose in life, autonomy, positive relationships with others, environmental mastery, personal growth, and self-acceptance (Ryff, 1995; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). As a result, psychological well-being is theoretically associated with the pursuit of personal goals, autonomous motivation, and self-affirming cognitive processes.

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The transition from a subjective to an objective comprehension of psychological well-being has been elucidated by Ryff's (1989) research. Her research is conceptually and theoretically based on Buhler's (1935) fundamental life fulfilment tendencies, Jahoda's (1958) six criteria of positive mental health, Maslow's (1968) conception of self-actualization, and Neugarten's (1973) descriptions of personality change in adulthood and old age. Furthermore, she integrates significant connotations of "eudemonia," including the realisation of potential through some form of struggle. A thriving condition that promotes personal growth and well-being can be determined by these six dimensions (Aiello & Tesi, 2017; Bloch-Jorgensen, 2018).

Table 1: Definition of Ryff's PWD Dimensions

Dimension	Meaning
Autonomy	This denotes an internal locus of evaluation in which individuals rely on their own standards for self-assessment rather than seeking external approval. It involves attributes such as self-determination, independence, and the internal regulation of behaviour.
Personal growth	This emphasizes the continuous development of one's potential.
Purpose in life	This focuses on a clear understanding of one's purpose through a sense of intentionality and directedness.
Positive relations with others	This is characterised by a deep sense of empathy and affection toward others, enabling individuals to experience stronger love, form meaningful friendships, and fully relate to and identify with those around them.
Self- acceptance	This is defined as maintaining a positive self-regard, characterised by self-actualisation, optimal functioning, and psychological maturity.
Environmental mastery	This refers to an individual's capacity to select or shape an environment that aligns with their psychological needs, encompassing the ability to manage and exert control over a complex environment through active mastery.

Source: Ryff and Singer (1996)

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Ryff's psychological well-being model has been applied to various studies. For instance, the model has been used to study phenomena such as the psychological well-being of adolescents (Gao & McLellasn, 2018; Viejo et al., 2018), students (Akhter, 2015), nurses (Lee et al., 2019), adult life (Ryff & Ryff, 2019), employees (Haleh et al., 2018; Salehi & Dastanpoor, 2018) and hotel employees (Amin & Akbar, 2013b). Denneson et al. (2019) stated that psychological well-being prevents self-destructive ideation and performance among individuals with mental health warnings. The literature shows limited studies conducted with Ryff's PWB model in the hospitality industry. One of the limited studies is the study by Amin and Akbar (2013), which adopted Ryff's psychological well-being model in relation to turnover intentions.

Many scholars adopt Ryff's PWB model since it offers a holistic approach to understanding one's positive psychological functioning (Gao & McLellan, 2018; Ryff, 2015). However, some studies have outlined the limitations of Ryff's PWB model. For example, one prominent limitation is the model's self-assessment nature (van Dierendonck et al., 2008). Thus, people may offer a socially desirable response when assessed, which would not show the individual's actual state. Therefore, some scholars suggest that researchers use observation to study people's psychological well-being.

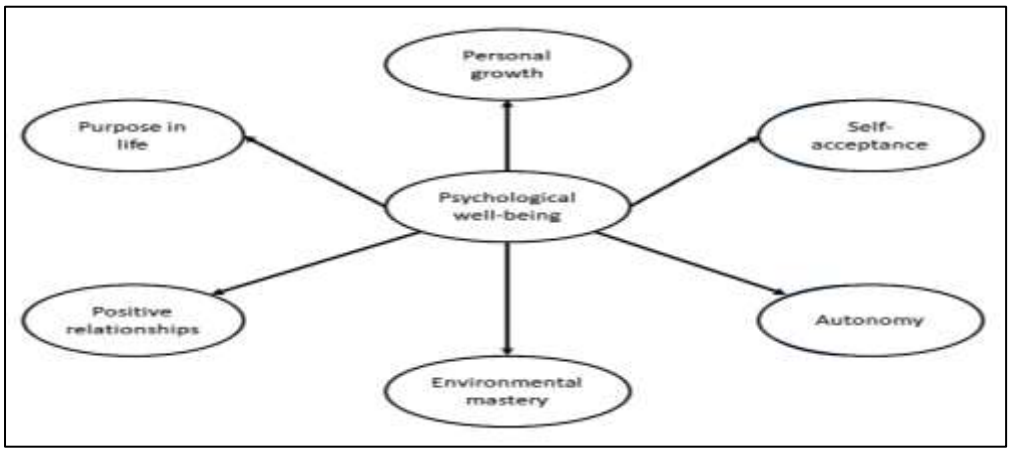


Figure 1: Six Dimensions of Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Model
Source: Ryff (1989) and Ryff and Singer (1996)

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Although Ryff's PWB model is known for its conceptualisation in assessing multidimensional well-being, a few limitations may affect its applications in empirical studies. For instance, the model has been criticised for being heavily rooted in Western philosophies and being emphatic on individualistic attributes. These limitations imply that researchers adopting it should interpret the results cautiously.

Considering the contribution of Ryff's psychological well-being model in assessing psychological well-being, it was deemed suitable for this study. The model's six dimensions provide a comprehensive and holistic approach to measuring people's psychological well-being. Although the model has acknowledged limitations, its theoretical robustness and extensive use in empirical studies make it a credible foundation for assessing hotel employees' psychological well-being. Also, the limitations can be mitigated through careful contextual adaptation and interpretation to make the model suitable for this study.

Job Performance Theory

An employee's performance is important for an organisation such as a hotel. According to Sonnentag and Frese (2005), performance encompasses both a behavioural and outcome aspect of employees. This has made it a dynamic and multi-dimensional concept (Sonnentag et al., 2009). For instance, Fay and Sonnentag (2010) explained that the development of the conceptualisation of job performance has evolved from organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), prosocial behaviour, contextual performance, personal initiative and related constructs, making it multi-dimensional. Since the 1950s, there have been varying dimensions for assessing an employee's performance, but the popular ones are individual differences, situational

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perspectives, and performance regulation perspectives (Sonnentag & Frese, 2005). Few studies have combined mostly individual differences and situational perspectives in studying individual performance (Koopmans et al., 2011). However, the review of Sonnentag and Frese (2005) suggested an integration of the three perspectives. The three perspectives were integrated to develop three main dimensions of the individual performance model. These dimensions are contextual performance, counter-productivity, and task performance (Koopmans, Bernards, Hildebrandt, De Vet, & Van Der Beek, 2014b; Koopmans et al., 2011; Sonnentag & Frese, 2005; Sonnentag et al., 2009).

In defining these dimensions, task performance refers to the proficiency with which an employee completes their core job responsibilities (Koopmans et al., 2011). Contextual performance encompasses behaviours that contribute positively to the organisation's functioning (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), while counterproductive work behaviour involves actions that undermine organisational well-being (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Since the mid-2000s, these dimensions have been central to the assessment of employee performance.

In the progression of conceptualising job performance, scholars like Koopmans et al. (2011) proposed a heuristic conceptual framework for assessing individual work performance. This framework was designed to provide a comprehensive guide for understanding the construct of individual work performance. It builds on the three primary dimensions of performance measurement, task, contextual, and counterproductive behaviours, while introducing a fourth dimension, adaptive performance. Koopmans et al. (2011) defined adaptive performance as the degree to which an individual adjusts and

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responds to changes within work roles. Some indicators for measuring adaptive performance are adjusting work goals and plans to situations, learning new skills and technologies, acting appropriately and remaining calm.

The new dimension was added based on dynamic factors such as technological changes. Therefore, it is important to adapt to changing work demands and environments. Koopmans et al. (2011) further justify the addition of the adaptive dimension since it does not conceptually fit under contextual performance, counterproductive work behaviour, or task performance.

Although job performance theory provides a useful framework for understanding individual characteristics and workplace conditions that influence employees' performance, there are a couple of limitations that may hinder its applicability. For instance, this theory conceptualises performance in terms of task execution, overlooking important components such as emotional labour, service quality and customer-centric behaviours. Also, the theory has a limited scope on contextual issues, which mostly affect employees.

Considering one of this study's aims, which seeks to assess hotel employee performance, it was deemed appropriate to adopt job performance theory, including the adaptive performance dimension. Job performance theory offers a structured understanding of how employees' behaviour contributes to organisational outcomes, making it suitable for assessing the multifaceted nature of performance in 3-5 star-rated hotels. Including the adaptive performance dimension is particularly relevant in the hotel sector, where employees are frequently required to respond to unpredictable guest needs, operational changes, and service challenges. Acknowledging the limitations of the theory, such as its tendency to underestimate contextual

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influences and applicability across diverse organisations, adapting it will enhance its application for assessing 3-5 star-rated hotel employees' job performance in AMA, Ghana.

Collectively, the Transactional Theory of Stress and Coping, Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Model, and Job Performance Theory offer an integrated theoretical framework for examining how job stress affects employees' psychological well-being and performance in the hotel sector. The Transactional Theory of Stress and Coping posits that employees evaluate job stressors according to their perceived capacity to manage them, and this appraisal determines the coping strategies they employ, which in turn impact both their psychological well-being and job performance. Since coping strategies directly influences psychological well-being, a good coping will result in a good psychological well-being that would improve job performance. Therefore, the adoption of these theories demonstrates a sequential flow of the phenomenon being studied.

Chapter Summary

This chapter concentrated on the fundamental concepts of this investigation and their respective theoretical frameworks. The literature on the main variables of this study (performance, psychological well-being, and stress) was reviewed in the concept section. The definition, causes, and effects on employees were the basis for the review of the main concepts. Stress was positioned within the transactional theory of stress and resilience in order to theoretically situate these key concepts. Furthermore, the heuristic conceptual framework of individual work performance was associated with job performance, while psychological well-being was in alignment with Ryff's psychological well-being model.

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CHAPTER THREE

LINKAGES BETWEEN JOB STRESS, PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND HOTEL EMPLOYEES' PERFORMANCE

Introduction

This chapter examines the empirical literature on job stress, psychological well-being, and employee performance, with a specific focus on the hotel sector. It highlights the interrelationships between psychological well-being, occupational stress, and work performance, emphasising how employees' psychological well-being is affected by job-related stress and, in turn, how this stress influences their performance. Furthermore, some paired evaluations were conducted to compare variables such as job performance and psychological well-being. The chapter concludes by examining the conceptual framework that was implemented for this investigation.

Causes of Job Stress

Understanding the causes of job stress is important to appreciate its implications for employees' psychological well-being and job performance. There are several causes of stress in the hospitality sector, especially within the hospitality sub-sector. Burman and Goswami (2018) stated that physiological, psychological and environmental demands cause stress. These stress causes were deemed broad and have been broken down into specific causes, such as poor peer relations, role overload and role conflict by other scholars within the past three decades (Hight & Park, 2019; Lo & Lamm, 2005; Mohamed, 2015). Therefore, this section of the empirical review focuses on the causes of job stress or stressors among hotel employees.

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Lo and Lamm (2005) conducted a study examining hospitality employees in New Zealand to explore their perceptions of job stress, attitudes toward stress management, and responses to the incorporation of stress provisions in the Health and Safety in Employment Amendment Act (2002). The research was conducted in two substantial hotels, one of which was a member of an international chain and the other of which was locally owned. The primary stressors (job stressors) among hospitality employees were identified as work overload, time constraints, inadequate working conditions, and low wages, according to their research. Also, Hodari, Waldthausen and Sturman (2014) studied how outsourcing contributes to the stress of hotel spa managers in various countries such as Thailand, Canada and the USA. Their results showed higher role ambiguity and conflict among outsourced spa managers due to their greater task interdependency and boundary-spanning responsibilities. Hodari et al. (2014) found job stressors such as role conflict and role ambiguity which is not different from the study of Mohamed (2015). Mohamed explored the perceived work stress in 5-star hotel managers and employees in Egypt. His results showed that managers and employees commonly experienced role conflict, role ambiguity and heavy workload as the primary source of stress.

Hwang, Lee, Park, Chang and Kim (2014) found slight but similar findings. Their study focused on five-star hotel employees in Seoul, Korea and the results revealed that challenges from home, tasks and salary, role conflict, unfair treatment, shortage of support and organisational culture as stressors among hotel employees. These causes could be linked to popular job stressors such as role conflict (conflict with job responsibility) and workload. Based on

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the review, it was observed that the conceptualisation of job stressors has been categorised into role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload have been predominant among hotel employees.

Additionally, the research conducted by Rao and Goel (2018) identified the six primary job stressors that employees in three-star hotels in the Dehradun Region of India encounter: burden, control over work, clarity of roles, interpersonal relationships, support from managers, and organisational policies. In a similar vein, Wong and Chan (2020) investigated the interplay between work antecedents, psychological well-being, and job satisfaction mediated by work-life. Their research demonstrated that job tension was primarily caused by poor working conditions, a lack of work control, and interpersonal conflict.

In-depth research conducted by Hight and Park (2019) on the relationship between alcohol consumption and one of the most prominent role stressors among restaurant waiters/waitresses in the United States revealed that respondents experienced stress as a result of role conflict and role ambiguity. Nevertheless, the structural equation modelling demonstrated that role ambiguity had a substantial impact on job satisfaction and alcohol consumption. Bora (2017) conducted a study on the stress experienced by hotel personnel in the Kumaon and Garwhal Region of Uttarakhand. The results suggest that workplace demands were the primary cause of job stress. This is due to the fact that employees are assigned unplanned activities, particularly during prime seasons. This resulted in a significant amount of tension for hotel employees.

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Additionally, Hu and Cheng (2010) conducted research on the topics of job stress, exhaustion, and coping strategies among supervisors in the Taiwanese hotel industry. They discovered that the primary source of job stress for hotel supervisors was the burden and task characteristics. Based on the findings of numerous studies, the primary causes of job tension among hotel employees were role-related.

Nevertheless, Wireko-Gyebi and Akyeampong (2014) categorised the diverse types of job stress into seven categories based on their respective perspectives. Their research, which concentrated on the stress experienced by frontline hotel employees in the Kumasi Metropolis, demonstrated that job stress is caused by seven factors: support (training and development), role (receiving tasks without the necessary resources to complete them), relationships (fostering a positive work environment), demand (workload, patterns, hours, and environment), customers (communication between customers and frontline employees), control (employees' involvement in the execution of their duties), and finance (prompt salary payment and the level of compensation received by employees). One of the few published journal articles on employment stress among hotel employees in Ghana is the study conducted by Wireko-Gyebi and Akyeampong (2014), which is worth mentioning.

The quantitative approach was employed in the majority of previous studies to investigate the causes of stress, with the exception of Lo and Lamm (2005), who employed a qualitative approach to investigate stressors among hotel employees. However, their investigation served as the foundation for additional investigations into the subject of occupational or job stress among

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hotel employees. Empirical evidence has demonstrated that employment stressors were not determined by an employee's status. For example, the research conducted by O'Neill and Davis (2011) investigated whether the causes of stress were consistent among frontline employees and managers. In the same vein, Mohamed (2015) demonstrated that there was no discernible distinction in the stressors experienced by hotel managers and frontline employees. Nevertheless, additional investigation revealed that the degree of stress encountered varied according to the status of the employees. Consequently, both studies revealed that managers experienced a greater degree of tension than frontline employees (Mohamed, 2015; O'Neill & Davis, 2011). Role-related stressors, including burden, role conflict, and role ambiguity, are prevalent and can induce stress in hotel employees. Nevertheless, a study conducted by Murali et al. (2016) demonstrated that employee performance is not substantially impacted by workload.

Effects of Socio-Demographic and Work Characteristics on Employees Stress

Studies suggest that socio-demographic and work characteristics significantly influence how employees experience job stress in the hotel sector. It has been found that factors such as gender, age, educational level and years of work experience shape employees' susceptibility to stressors. For instance, Wireko-Gyebi and Akyeampong (2014) found that employees with lower education and less experience reported higher stress levels due to limited control over their work and few coping resources. Similarly, Hwang et al. (2014) observed that stressors significantly impact employees across

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various socio-demographic characteristics, especially those who are younger and with less work experience.

Work characteristics such as hotel star-rating influences stress among employees. Employees in higher-rated hotels often face high demands from work while those in lower star-rated hotels may struggle with limited resources, all of which influences job stress (Lo & Lamm, 2005; Mohamed, 2015; Bora, 2017). Other studies have shown that managers tend to experience more job stress than frontline employees due to broader responsibilities and more complex role demands (O'Neil & Davis, 2011, Mohamed, 2015).

Job Stress Coping Strategies

Coping strategies mitigate job stress (Kofoworola & Alayode, 2012; L. Li et al., 2017). This implies that the impact of employment stress on employees is influenced by the coping strategy they adopt. Job performance (Hsieh & Eggers, 2010; Kofoworola & Alayode, 2012; Wireko-Gyebi et al., 2017) and psychological well-being (Jung & Yoon, 2015) are both positively impacted by the implementation of appropriate coping strategies. For example, Hu and Cheng (2010) examined job stress, fatigue, and coping strategies among supervisors in Taiwan's hotel industry. Their research revealed that coping strategies enable individuals to view employment stress as an opportunity for professional development. This coping strategy will mitigate the effects of job tension.

The literature review has demonstrated that employees in the hospitality industry have implemented a variety of coping strategies (Adjoe, 2014; Chuang & Lei, 2011; Hsieh & Eggers, 2010; Johnstone & Feeney,

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2015). The transaction model was proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), who were ground-breaking scholars in the field of coping strategies. The transactional model, which was introduced by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), is a subjective cognitive assessment of stress and coping mechanisms. They divided stress coping strategies into two categories: problem-focused strategies and emotion-focused strategies. A problem-focused coping strategy involves comprehending a problem and identifying potential solutions to stress or a stressor, as per Lazarus and Folkman (1984). This coping strategy is proactive and task-oriented, as it is employed when individuals believe they can alter or regulate the situation or stressor.

Additionally, an emotion-focused strategy is centred on the regulation of one's emotions during distressing events (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This method entails altering one's perception of the situation or stressor or alleviating emotional distress, without explicitly addressing the source of the issue. Several studies have utilised the transactional model to examine the coping strategies of hospitality employees (Huang et al., 2018; Shaiful Kahar & Wee, 2020; Wireko-Gyebi et al., 2017). For example, Wireko-Gyebi et al. (2017) found that the majority of frontline hotel employees utilised problem-focused coping strategies, while a small number employed emotion-focused coping strategies. However, it was determined that employees were adversely affected by emotion-focused coping strategies.

Additionally, Huang, van der Veen, and Song (2018) discovered that hotel employees' job tension is alleviated by employing a problem-solving coping strategy. Additionally, Kahar and Wee (2020) discovered that hotel frontline employees in Selangor were more effective at coping with problem-

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focused strategies than with emotional-focused strategies. Since the initial scholarly recognised coping strategies were problem-focused and emotional-focused, other scholars have adapted or formulated new ones. For example, Huang et al. (2018) identified two novel coping strategies (avoidance and social support) that were incorporated into problem-focused strategies. Nevertheless, their investigation demonstrated that occupational stress was elevated by avoidance and social support strategies.

Additionally, Jung and Yoon (2015) conducted a study that identified three distinct types of coping strategies that hotel employees implement. These coping strategies were avoidance-coping style, emotion-coping style, and task-coping style. They also discovered that employees' task-coping style was significantly positively influenced by the prospect of promotion. Consequently, their task-coping style increased in tandem with their increased emphasis on promotion, thereby alleviating their job tension. Nevertheless, the avoidance-coping style and emotion were substantially impacted by the prevention focus (stress avoidance). The results of Huang et al. (2018) and Jung and Yoon (2015) were relatively similar, as the avoidance coping style increased job stress.

Additionally, direct action, avoidance, externalising, and internalising coping strategies were identified by Hu and Cheng (2010). The direct action enabled employees to view stressors as opportunities, thereby alleviating job stress. Nevertheless, performance was adversely affected by other coping strategies, including internalising, externalising, and avoidance (Hu & Cheng, 2010). Despite the fact that the avoidance coping strategy was not found to reduce stress, it was discovered that employees utilised it to contend with high

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stress levels. Additionally, Choi, Mohammad, and Kim (2019) identified three coping strategies: avoidance, requesting support, and active. The research establishes that job stress is substantially diminished through the implementation of active coping strategies and the pursuit of support. Conversely, the results of the study did not indicate that avoidance was effective in alleviating job stress, which is consistent with the findings of Huang et al. (2018) and Jung and Yoon (2015).

Furthermore, a study conducted by Wong and Huang (2014) employed a factor-cluster method to investigate the coping strategies of hotel employees in Hong Kong in response to job stress. Four distinct categories of coping behaviours were identified in this investigation with respect to job stress. Emotional release, personal behaviour, organisational initiatives, and sharing with others comprise these coping strategies. According to Wong and Huang (2014), hotel employees' strategies for managing job stress are not uniform.

In their 2011 study, Chuang and Lei discovered that hotel chefs alleviated tension by engaging in physical activity, listening to music, spending quality time with family and friends, and consuming alcohol. It was also suggested that not all coping strategies were always positive. For example, certain employees alleviated tension by engaging in activities such as smoking, overeating, fighting, and consuming alcohol and drugs (Chuang & Lei, 2011).

However, some researchers have explored the moderating role of coping strategies employed by hotel employees. The moderating effects of coping have an impact on the performance and well-being of personnel (Hu &

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Cheng, 2010; Tsaur & Tang, 2012). As a result, Hu and Cheng (2010) acknowledged that the job performance of hotel employees is influenced by the mitigating strategies they employ. The employees' performance was directly affected by the coping strategy of "direct action," as they discovered. The alternative modes of coping strategies had a detrimental impact on performance. Tsaur and Tang (2012) conducted a study on the well-being of female hospitality employees, with a particular focus on the function of regulatory leisure coping strategies. The findings indicated that the planned-breather leisure coping style (PBLCS) had a positive and significant correlation with well-being. In contrast, the avoidant leisure coping style (ALCS) had a significant and detrimental impact on the well-being of hotel employees.

Coping Strategies by Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Research indicates that the coping strategies adopted by hotel employees are shaped by their socio-demographic characteristics, including gender, age, education, and work experience. Generally, gender has consistently been shown to influence the choice of coping mechanisms across various sectors. According to Matud (2004) and Tamres, Janicki and Helgeson (200), women tend to rely more on emotion-focused and avoidance-focused coping whereas men are more likely to adopt problem-focused coping.

In the context of the hotel context, there are a handful of studies conducted on the relationship between coping strategies and socio-demographic characteristics. Broadly, Wong and Huang (2014) discovered a statistically significant correlation between socio-demographic characteristics,

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including age, level of education, gender, and number of employment experiences, and coping strategies. In addition, Karatepe (2013) found that young frontline employees adopted avoidance-focused coping whereas older employees adopted problem-focused and emotional-focused coping strategies. In contrast, Wireko-Gyebi et al. (2017) observed that the adoption of coping strategies by hotel employees was not significantly influenced by socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, and religious origin. The only statistically significant difference in the coping strategy adopted was the educational level.

Hotel employees employ a variety of stress coping strategies, which differ from an individual to an organisational level, as evidenced by the numerous empirical studies. Emotion-focused strategies and problem-focused strategies were the most frequently implemented coping strategies. The avoidance approach is another coping strategy that is worth noting. Employees' tension levels were discovered to be adversely affected by this form of stress management. Nevertheless, it was also evident that hotel employees' work performance and well-being were moderated by their coping strategies in response to job stress. Additionally, stress-coping strategies have been found to be influenced by socio-demographic characteristics, including age, gender, and marital status (Wireko-Gyebi et al., 2017; Wong & Huang, 2014). Nevertheless, research has demonstrated that it is essential for stress management.

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Effects of Job Stress on Employee's Psychological Well-Being

Job stress has been found to have certain consequences on employees and their organisations. Stress at work can have negative effects on an employee's physical, emotional, psychological, and behavioural health (Tsaur & Tang, 2012). Specifically, a reduction in employees' ability to learn, a loss in the quality of their work performance, despair, disengagement, and hostility are examples of how job stress affects psychological well-being (Rao & Goel, 2017). This subsection concentrates on empirical investigations into the psychological well-being of employees as a result of employment stress.

Several studies have been conducted to assess the psychological well-being of hotel employees in the context of job stress (Ariza-Montes, et al., 2019; Fiksenbaum, Jeng, Koyuncu, & Burke, 2010; Rao & Goel, 2017; Wong & Chan, 2020). For instance, Fiksenbaum, Jeng, Koyuncu, and Burke (2010) conducted a study on the psychological well-being, satisfaction, work hours, and work intensity of hotel administrators in China. They found that work intensity is a more consistent and significant predictor of psychological well-being and work outcomes than hours.

A further study on the psychological health and attrition intentions of hotel staff in Medan, Indonesia, was carried out by Amin and Akbar (2013). The findings indicated that psychological well-being and hotel employees' inclinations to leave their jobs were indirectly correlated. According to Panatik, Driscoll, and Anderson (2011), one sign of job stress is the intention to leave one's employment. Amin and Akbar (2013) show repeatedly that when job stress rises, hotel workers' psychological health declines. Furthermore, Ariza-Montes, Arjona-Fuentes, Han, and Law (2018) studied the

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well-being and working conditions of several hospitality occupational groups in European nations. The European Working Condition Survey was employed to gather data from managers, personal services workers, cleansers, and food preparation assistants. Employment demands (stressors) had a direct impact on the psychological well-being of these employees, as demonstrated by their research. However, the psychological well-being of employees was not impacted by job control, which is the perceived ability of employees to enhance the significance and satisfaction of their work by effectively utilising resources.

Furthermore, a study on the psychological health and working circumstances of European servers was carried out by Ariza-Montes, et al., (2019). The study's findings indicated that working conditions, which are a part of occupational stress, had an impact on the psychological health of stewards in the hospitality sector. Specifically, poor working conditions, which included subpar physical working conditions and pay, led to a decline in psychological health. Once more, Wong and Chan (2020) investigated the connection between work antecedents, psychological well-being, and job satisfaction in the context of work-life balance. The findings indicated that employees' psychological health and job satisfaction were negatively impacted by unfavourable working conditions, interpersonal conflict, and a lack of work control. Ariza-Montes et al. (2019) and Wong and Chan (2020) claim that one important aspect of stress, the working environment, has a negative impact on employees' psychological health.

There were disparate methods of assessing psychological well-being, as the review demonstrated. Distinct instruments were implemented for data

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acquisition. Four indicators of psychological well-being were adapted from existing studies by Fiksenbaum et al. (2010). Exhaustion, time-strain, and behaviour-based family work conflict were among the indicators, as well as time-strain and behaviour-based work-family conflict. Furthermore, they incorporated conflict between work and family and work and family. In contrast, Amin and Akbar (2013) implemented Ryff's Psychological Well-being scale, which includes six dimensions: environmental mastery, autonomy, self-acceptance, purpose in life, and positive relationships with others. A 33-item instrument for data collection was developed using these dimensions.

In addition, Rao and Goel (2017) implemented an updated version of the Health and Safety Management Indicator instrument to assess the psychological well-being of hotel employees. Furthermore, Ariza-Montes et al. (2018, 2019) implemented the five-item well-being index of the World Health Organisation (WHO) in their research. General interest, vitality, and positive disposition comprised this index. Two elements were contributed by positive mood and vitality, while one item was contributed by general interest. Furthermore, Wong and Chan (2020) disclosed that they conducted psychological well-being assessments using the Chinese version of the General Health Questionnaire, which comprises a 12-item scale. It is clear that psychometric instruments were implemented in each of the preceding investigations, albeit from distinct viewpoints.

A substantial body of research shows that job stress inversely related to psychological well-being. The Job Demand-Resource model states that high job demands, like role overload, role ambiguity, and role conflict, exhaust

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workers to the point where they negatively impact their mental health (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Higher levels of occupational stress are regularly linked to detrimental outcomes like poorer social interactions, lower life satisfaction, and decreased self-acceptance, according to empirical research in the hospitality industry (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008). Karatepe and Uludag (2008) found that hotel employees who experienced intense job stress reported significantly lower PWB due to emotional fatigue and limited coping capacity. Similarly, Smith (2014) demonstrated that job stress, such as emotional labour, undermines employees' purpose in life, autonomy and positive relations with others.

In summary, it has been established that there is an inverse relationship between job tension and psychological well-being. This implies that psychological well-being diminishes as stress levels increase (Amin & Akbar, 2013a; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018, 2019; Wong & Chan, 2020). Role conflict, role ambiguity, role excess, workload, and poor working conditions are among the stresses that have been found to have an impact on psychological well-being. Nevertheless, the evaluation of psychological well-being is susceptible to variation across a variety of indicators or dimensions.

Effects of Job Stress on Employee Performance

The influence of stress on employees' performance is substantial. The evaluations state that stress has been shown to affect workers' job performance in the hospitality sector, especially in the hotel sub-sector (Akgunduz, 2015; Bora, 2017; Goonetilleke et al., 2018; Karatepe & Uludag,

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2008). The empirical research on the impact of job stress on hotel employees' performance is examined in this subsection.

Employment stressors, including role conflicts and role ambiguity, have an impact on the performance of hospitality employees, as per Chang and Chang (2007). In their research, they found that job performance increased as role conflict increased, while work performance decreased as role ambiguity increased. The findings were similar to those of a study by Karatepe and Uludag (2008) that looked at how stress and fatigue affected the work performance of front-line hotel staff in Northern Cyprus. They found that role ambiguity is a stressor that decreases job performance, while role conflict is a stressor that enhances job performance. This suggests that not all types of stress related to the job have a negative impact on hotel employees' job performance. Employee service competence had a substantial impact on the relationship between role tension and work performance (Chang & Chang, 2007).

Furthermore, research conducted by Goonetilleke et al. (2018) and Nguyen & Trinh (2017) has shown that employees' performance is impacted by inadequate leadership, which acts as a stressor (Hon et al., 2013; Jitpaiboon et al., 2006; Li et al., 2012; Salem, 2015). For instance, Jitpaiboon et al. (2006) illustrated that management support had an impact on employees' performance. Furthermore, Li et al. (2012) established a significant inverse correlation between job stress and leadership. In other words, employees' job performance is adversely affected by high job tension, which is a direct result of inadequate leadership. In addition, Chiang and Hsieh (2012) found that

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there is a negative correlation between job performance and organisational support, which includes transformational leadership.

Work-family conflict and family-work conflict were additional employment stressors that affected employee performance. Karatepe and Kilic (2007) discovered that job performance was adversely affected by family–work conflict, while hotel employees' job performance was not substantially impacted by work-family conflict. The findings of Choi and Kim (2012), which assert that job performance is substantially and positively correlated with family-work conflict, are in direct opposition to the results of Karatepe and Kilic (2007). However, Karakaş and Sahin (2017) did not observe a significant correlation between work-family conflict and job performance. These divergent conclusions may be attributable to methodological issues, such as data acquisition instruments and analysis tools.

Additionally, Hon et al. (2013) investigated the relationship between job stress and creativity as well as the impact of supervisors' task feedback on hotel workers' creativity. Their results suggested that work-related tension had an impact on employees' creativity, which is a component of performance. Furthermore, Akgunduz (2015) evaluated how role stress and self-esteem affected hotel businesses' productivity. The results of the study showed a negative correlation between job performance and role conflict and role ambiguity. On the other hand, role ambiguity resulted in a greater degree of role stress than the other variables, and self-esteem and role excess were directly connected with job performance. The findings of this investigation both support and contradict those of Karatepe and Uludag (2008) and Hon, Chan, and Lu (2013). To put it another way, studies by Karatepe and Uludag

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(2008) and Akgunduz (2015) showed that role ambiguity negatively impacted work performance. On the other hand, Akgunduz (2015) looked at a negative correlation between role conflict and job performance, while Karatepe and Uludag (2008) found a favorable correlation.

In contrast, certain investigations have shown that job tension is the sole factor that subverts job performance. For example, Nguyen and Trinh (2017) investigated how employee performance in the hotel business in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, was affected by job strain and work motivation. The findings of their investigation suggested that workplace tension had a detrimental impact on the job performance of employees. Furthermore, Goonetilleke, Priyashantha, and Munasinghe (2018) evaluated how occupational stress affected Sri Lankan hotel employees' performance. The findings indicated a significant inverse relationship between employee performance, task uncertainty, and burden.

Previous research has documented both positive and negative effects of work tension on job performance. However, a multitude of studies are demonstrating a correlation between the type of job stress one experiences and either a positive or negative relationship with job stress. As a result, an analysis of this relationship could ascertain the influence of eustress on job performance.

Socio-Demographics and Work Characteristics and Psychological Well-Being and Job Performance

Studies have shown that socio-demographic and work characteristics significantly influence both psychological well-being (PWB) and job

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performance of employees. Kinman and Jones (2008) women service employees in the United Kingdom tend to report lower PWB compared to men. In the context of the hotel sector, a similar trend was observed where women reported low PWB compared to men (Zhao et al, 2016). These studies provide empirical evidence to prove that gender influences PWB among employees. Regarding job performance, it was found that there are variations in the effects of gender. For instance, Roth, Purvis and Bobko (2012) conducted a meta-analysis study and found variations in the relationship between gender and job performance. Their study revealed that indicators used influenced the role of gender in job performance.

Other socio-demographic characteristics such as age and education levels have been found to influence PWB and job performance. According to Charles and Carstensen (2010), older employers have higher PWB compared to younger employers due to greater emotional regulation and more stable career trajectories. In terms of age and job performance, there were varied evidence, however, it was revealed that age influences job performance depending on the nature of job (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Warr, 2020).

For educational level, Ryff (2014) and Sirviö, Koiranen and Taanila (2014) found that individuals with higher education had higher PWD, particularly in environmental mastery, personal growth, and autonomy. Regarding job performance and educational level, studies have shown that higher education often enhances job performance due to improved analytical and problem-solving abilities (Ng & Feldman, 2009). However, most studies in the hotel sector focused on educational levels and job satisfaction.

Work characteristics such as hotel star-rating and employees' work experience play an important role in shaping their PWB and job performance. Employees working in higher star-rated hotels (e.g., 4-5 star) often face more

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complex service standards, greater guest expectations and heightened emotional labour demands, which can place significant pressure on their PWB (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008). However, Kim et al. (2014) opined that some high-end hotels provide better organizational support to their employees which enhances their PWB and job performance. Conversely, employees in lower star-rated hotels may experience fewer demand but their limited resources and weak support system may negatively impact their PWB and reduce job performance (Karatepe, 2013).

Work experience, similarly influences employees PWB and job performance. Employees with longer work experience often develop stronger coping strategies which enhances their PWB and job performance effectively (Aldwin, 2011). On the other hand, employees with fewer work experience tend to struggle with role ambiguity and coping resources that affects their PWB and job performance.

Conceptual Framework on Job Stress, Psychological Well-being and Job Performance

The conceptual framework is adapted from Cardoso and Jordão (2017). The framework (Figure 2) by Cardoso and Jordão (2017) shows a holistic view of stress and its related effects. For stress to manifest, factors labelled as stressors affect employees while at work. However, the framework explicitly shows that individual differences contribute to the stress that are endure by an employee. These stressors yield either positive stress (eustress) or negative stress (distress). Furthermore, the framework shows some moderating variables, namely coping strategies and savouring, which are adopted to reduce stress. The moderating variables influence the effects of stress (outcomes) on employees.

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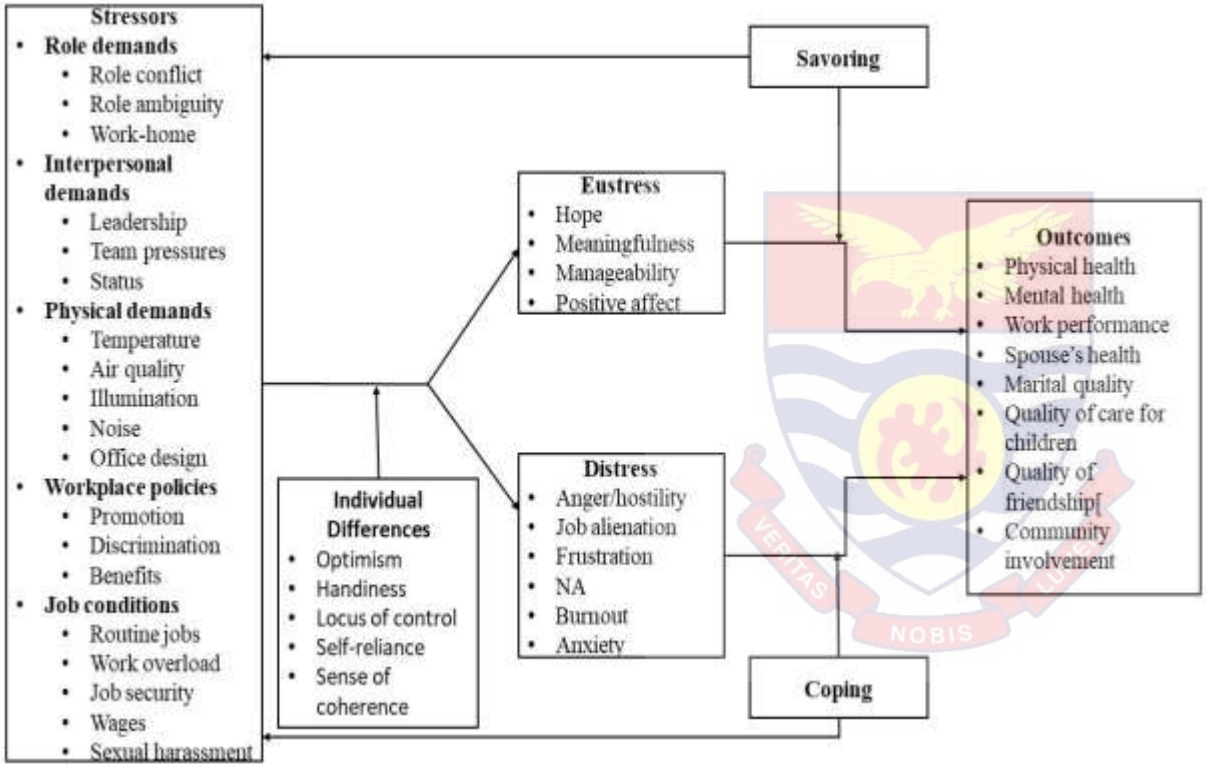


Figure 2: Holistic Model of Stress

Source: Cardoso and Jordão (2017)

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The adapted Conceptual framework (Figure 3) removed some of the variables and indicators of some variables from Cardoso and Jordão (2017). The objectives and delimitation informed this study. The variables, such as individual differences and savouring were removed since they are not within the scope of this study. Regarding the outcomes (effects), this study is focused on job performance and psychological well-being. Therefore, outcomes such as physical health, community involvement, quality of friendship, quality of care for children, marital quality and spouse health were removed.

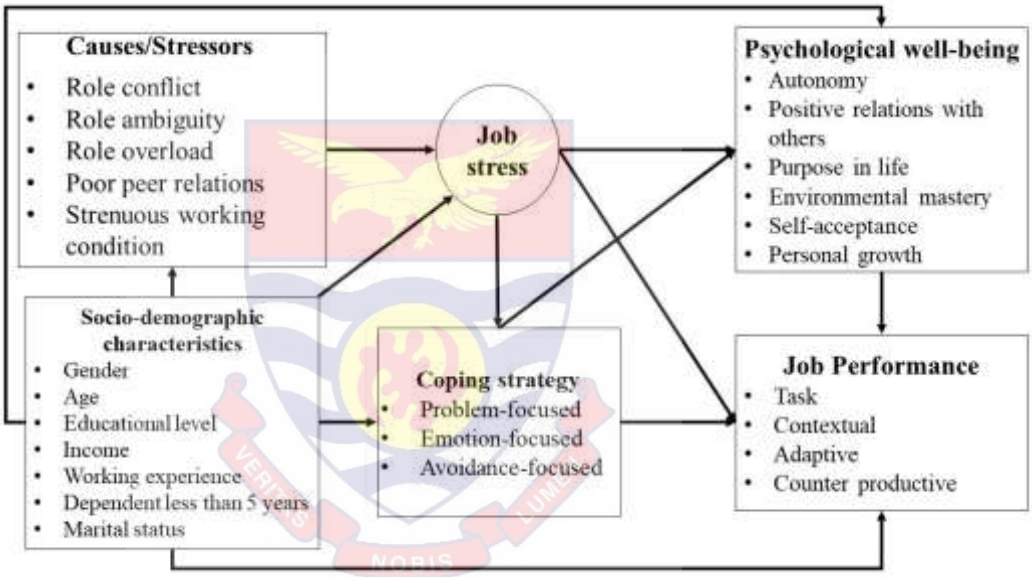


Figure 3: A Conceptual Framework on the Effects of Job Stress on Psychological Well-Being and Job Performance
Source: Cardoso and Jordão (2017).

The conceptual framework for this is grouped mainly into four (4) blocks, thus causes of stress or stressors, stress, coping strategy, psychological well-being and performance. From the literature review, to experience stress, there has to be a cause termed a stressor. The empirical evidence of stressors among hotel employees were role ambiguity, role conflict, role/work overload, poor peer relations and strenuous working conditions (Hodari et al., 2014;

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Mohamed, 2015; Suleman, Hussain, Shehzad, Syed, & Raja, 2018; Wong & Chan, 2020). Based on the most common stressors found among hotel workers and connected to the occupational stress index, five aspects of workplace stressors have been modified for this study. These include bad peer relations, role ambiguity, role conflict, role/work overload, and demanding working conditions.

One experiences stress as a result of consistent exposure to these stressors. The psychological well-being and efficacy of an individual are influenced by the aftermath of job stress. As a result, tension has an effect on people's psychological health and productivity at work. However, employing effective coping mechanisms lessens the negative effects of workplace stress on workers' psychological health and productivity. The main focus is on the coping mechanisms that were created specifically for this study: problem-focused, emotion-focused, and avoidance-focused.

Cardoso and Jordão (2017) did not specify any indicators or dimensions for evaluating outcomes, including psychological well-being and job performance. Consequently, the models that were implemented were instrumental in the identification of dimensions for the assessment of the outcome variables. For example, the psychological well-being paradigm that was implemented for this investigation specifies six quantifiable dimensions (see Figure 3). These six dimensions are intended to measure the psychological well-being of hotel employees and to establish a correlation between job stress and performance. Additionally, the heuristic model provided four dimensions for evaluating individual work performance in relation to performance. These four dimensions are instrumental in evaluating

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the correlation between psychological well-being and job tension. Ultimately, the objective of this investigation is to substantiate the revised conceptual framework in order to advance the field of knowledge.

Additionally, research has shown that socio-demographic and work characteristics, such as income, age, gender, and level of education, moderate the impact of job stress on employees and their coping strategies (O'Neill & Davis, 2011; Sampson & Ametepeh, 2016; Kim & Agrusa, 2011; Wireko-Gyebi et al., 2017). Research has also shown that the psychological well-being and job performance of employees can be influenced by their socio-demographic and work characteristics, which is why the block that focused on socio-demographic characteristics was included.

Chapter Summary

The chapter's goal was to analyze empirical research on hotel employees' job performance, psychological health, and job stress. Workplace stress and psychological well-being, job stress and job performance, or psychological well-being and job performance have all been linked in a number of empirical research. Despite this, depending on variables like location and demographics, the connections could be either beneficial or negative. This chapter also covered the adopted conceptual framework, which examined the connections among the three main variables used in this investigation. Based on the solid foundation offered by the main ideas, theories, and empirical research, the study can be designed to assess the effect of stress on the psychological health and work performance of hotel employees.

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CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter concentrated on the procedures and methodologies implemented for data acquisition, analysis, and presentation of findings. The study employed a variety of methodologies to gather data from employees of three- to five-star hotels in the Accra Metropolis. The objective was to assess the influence of job stress and coping strategies on their psychological well-being and performance. The chapter was organised as follows: the initial section, which follows the introduction, provides a thorough examination of the research domain. The research philosophy of the study is described and substantiated in the second section, while the research design is the focus of the succeeding section. The chapter also covers a diverse array of other subjects, including the target population, sampling procedures, data collection instruments, ethical considerations, pre-test, and data analysis procedures.

Study Area

The Greater Accra Region encompasses the Accra Metropolis (Figure 4), where this research was conducted. It is surrounded by the Gulf of Guinea to the south, La Dade-Kotopon Municipal to the east, Ga South Municipal to the west, and Ga East, Ga West, and Ga Central Municipalities to the north. The Accra Metropolis houses the city of Accra which the national capital of Ghana. According to the 2021 Population and Housing Census, the Accra Metropolis had a total population of 284,124, accounting for 42 per cent of Greater Accra's total population (Ghana Statistical Service [GSS], 2021). The

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GSS (2021) report showed that there were relatively more females (51.9) than males (48.1%). The Metropolis has a youthful population accounting for over forty percent (42.6%) and a total of 450,748 households with an average household size of 3.7 persons.

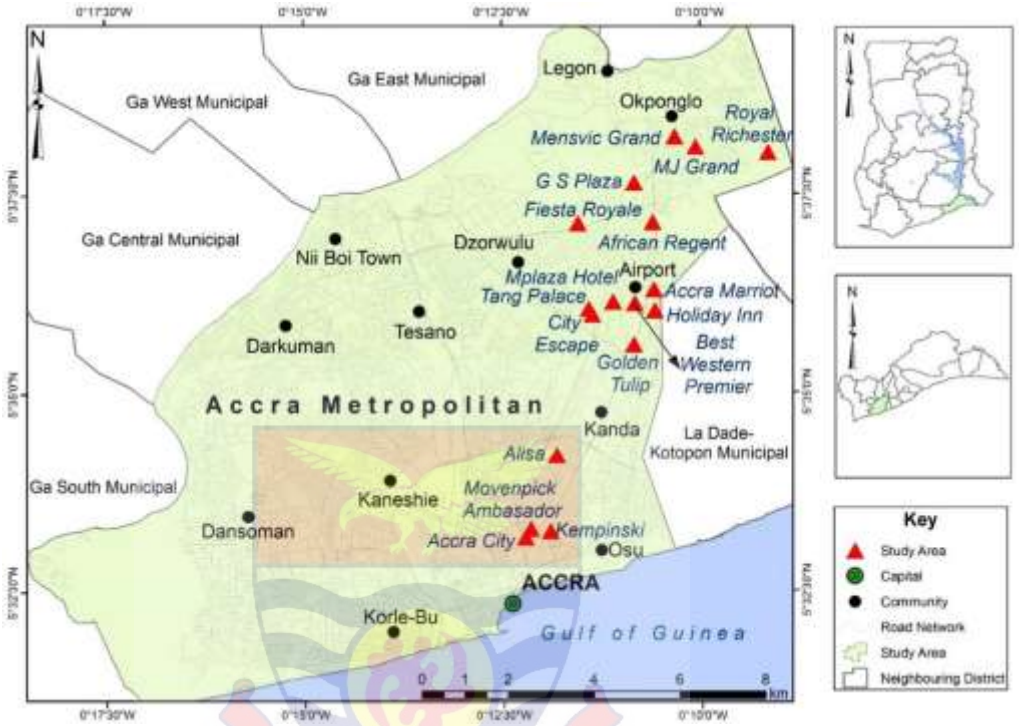


Figure 4: Map of the Study Area

Source: Department of Geography and Regional Planning, UCC (2020)

Ninety-three per cent (93%) of the active population is employed within the Metropolis, while 7 per cent are unemployed (GSS, 2014). Out of the 93% employed people, over a third (38.5%) are in the service industry, including the hotel subsector. The study area was purposively selected because the Metropolis houses nearly 38% (17 out of 45) of the targeted 3-5 star-rated hotels in Ghana. Also, as an entry point to Ghana by air, Accra receives clients of different backgrounds, exposing workers, especially hotel employees, to high job demands such as attaining world-class services, prolonged working hours, unanticipated guest interactions with guests and high emotional

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demands. Moreover, the demand for hospitality services would likely be high for both domestic and international clients because most institutions within Ghana have their headquarters in the Metropolis. Furthermore, Accra was selected for the study due to its status as the location of numerous regional and multilateral organisations, including the Country Office of the United Nations, World Bank, African Development Bank, UNICEF, FAO, and embassies. These organisations serve as the focal point for conferences and other international events. This makes access to the 3-5-star rated hotels easy for guests and investors. The study was conducted in 17 hotels including Movenpick Ambassador, Holiday Inn, Alisa, Marriot and Golden Tulip (Figure 4).

Accra Metropolis is recognized to have a high population density (13,895.5), resulting in challenging situations for employees, such as high traffic congestion (GSS, 2021). In addition, the busy nature of the city compels employees to leave their homes early in the morning to avoid being caught up in traffic congestion, which acts as a stress inducer. Considering these reasons, the Accra Metropolis is deemed best to serve as the study area for this research.

Research Philosophy and Approach

The worldview or the philosophical viewpoint that a researcher carries to his research is an important component that shapes the theoretical understanding of the research. It helps situate the whole research within the philosophical framework and thereby determines the boundaries of the research (Creswell & Plan Clark, 2017). As noted by Creswell and Creswell

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(2018), there are four types of research paradigms. These are constructivist, transformative, post-positivism and pragmatism. Adopting a particular research paradigm is based on the objectives of a study and the theoretical and conceptual framework underpinning the research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

This study is situated within the pragmatist philosophical worldview. Pragmatism as a philosophical lens emerges from actions, situations and outcomes rather than preceding conditions as observed in post-positivism (Creswell & Plan Clark, 2017). Bawden (1904: 421) presents pragmatism in its most practical form by noting that "the test of truth is a utility" and that "it works if it is true." Thus, pragmatism as a philosophy centre on the investigation of research problems by employing diverse approaches to generate knowledge about the problem at hand with the main intention of linking the whole research process to its outcome and utility. By allowing both quantitative and qualitative data collecting and analysis techniques, pragmatism, in a sense, resolves the quantitative-qualitative deadlock. Then, this philosophical approach is based on a mixed-methods research strategy, in which its researchers make extensive use of both qualitative and quantitative assumptions. The pragmatism philosophy was chosen for this study because it gives researchers the flexibility to select the research methodologies, procedures, and strategies that best suit their needs and goals. Researchers can use various methods for data collection and analyses rather than only one way (e.g., qualitative or quantitative). Some scholars believe pragmatism provides the best understanding of a research problem (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Plan Clark, 2017).

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Pragmatism is adopted in this study to provide the flexibility needed to address the research problem comprehensively by integrating both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The qualitative tools will be crucial for understanding the subjective experiences and contextual nuances related to the research problem, such as exploring personal perspectives on job stress, coping strategies, psychological well-being and job performance. These qualitative insights are essential for capturing the depth and complexity of human experiences that cannot be fully measured by numbers.

On the other hand, the quantitative aspect of the study will focus on measuring patterns and relationships across the broader population, allowing for analysis such as correlation or association, regression and structural equation modelling. Quantitative tools will help provide a more generalizable and objective view of the problem, which can be used to verify or support findings from the qualitative phase. Thus, pragmatism enables the combination of both methods to maximize the utility of the research outcomes and ensure that the findings are both practically useful and theoretically sound.

Research Design

The systematic blueprint that defines the process of data collection, analysis, and interpretation in a study is referred to as research design (Creswell & Plan Clark, 2017). It comprises the research questions to be studied, the pertinent data necessary for the study, the methods of data acquisition, and the approach to be used in the analysis of the results (Creswell, 2014; Yin, 1994). Thus, this process is informed by the identified research gap, objectives and the philosophy worldview adopted for this study.

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A researcher can then decide on the appropriate research design for a study. Considering the pragmatist worldview adopted for the study, a mixed-method design is appropriate for this study because of the methodological gap identified in the problem statement. The literature revealed that most studies in this area employed a quantitative methodology. Bringing on board the qualitative perspective is intended to solicit views from some employees with at least five years or more experience in the same hotel to provide a detailed explanation of their experience with job stress, coping strategies, psychological well-being and job performance to complement the quantitative data.

Creswell and Creswell (2018) identified three primary mixed-methods research designs. These include the convergent mixed methods, the exploratory sequential mixed methods, and the explanatory sequential mixed methods. The data collection, presentation, and interpretation of results of these three methodologies are distinct. For example, the convergent mixed methods design enables researchers to simultaneously capture both qualitative and quantitative data, analyse them separately, and subsequently integrate the results (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The explanatory sequential mixed methods design employs a comparable methodology. The sole distinction is the methodology employed for data acquisition and analysis. The quantitative data is initially collected and analysed. Subsequently, the qualitative methodology is implemented to address the emerging concerns that arise from the quantitative findings. Conversely, the exploratory sequential mixed methods design collects and analyses qualitative data, followed by quantitative data and analysis.

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The explanatory sequential mixed methods design was implemented for this investigation due to its efficacy in streamlining data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Creswell, 2012). The explanatory sequential design is divided into two distinct phases, quantitative and qualitative, each of which serves a unique purpose in the research process (Creswell, 2012). Therefore, qualitative data is employed to interpret and elucidate the results of quantitative data analyses (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2016). Its benefits include the ability to investigate quantitative results in greater detail and its ability to be straightforward. Furthermore, this design may prove advantageous in the event that quantitative research yields unexpected findings (Morse, 1991). One of the constraints of the study design is the feasibility of the resources required to collect and analyse both categories of data over an extended period.

Data and Information Sources

The thesis utilised both primary and secondary sources of data. The primary data were gathered from the field. The primary data were collected to investigate the perspectives of employees on job tension, psychological well-being, and job performance in hotels with a rating of three to five stars in the Greater Accra Region. The secondary source furnished comprehensive information regarding all hotels in Accra Metropolis that are rated between three and five stars. The GTA (2018) produced the Ghana Tourism Statistical Factsheets from which this information was obtained. This information encompassed the names of hotels in Accra Metropolis, their star ratings, locations, and the number of employees.

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Target Population

The study's target population was all staff of 3-5 star-rated hotels in the Accra Metropolis who had worked for more than one year. The reason is that employees who have worked more than a year can articulate their experience with job stress, coping strategies, psychological well-being and job performance. An employee with less than a year of work experience in a hotel may not have adequate information to provide about the phenomena under study. Statistics from the Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA) indicated that the sector currently engaged the services of about 3,489 employees within the 3-5 star-rated hotels in Accra Metropolis alone (GTA, 2018). This figure was arrived at by summing the 3-5 star-rated hotel employees in AMA. Therefore, arriving at the total number of population members from which respondents will be randomly sampled.

Sample Size

The Survey Monkey Sample size calculator was employed to determine the sample size, taking into account the quantitative nature of the investigation. The SurveyMonkey Sample size calculator is an online tool that generates a sample size based on the population size, margin of error, and confidence level. A sample size of 347 was determined from a population of 3,489 in the context of this investigation, with a confidence level of 95% and a margin of error of 5%. To address the missing data and other data error issues, 10% of the derived sample size (34.7 ≈ 35) was calculated and added to the original sample size, resulting in a total of 382.

Regarding the qualitative component of the study, one person was selected from each hotel under study, regardless of their department. The

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purpose of selecting one participant from each hotel was to ensure a broad representation across the various categories of hotels to complement the already large quantitative sample with clear, focused insights from key informants. In total, 17 hotel employees were sampled. The inclusion criterion was that the person should have worked for at least five years in the same hotel. In sum, the respondents and participants for this study was 399.

Sampling Procedure

For this study, purposive and multistage sampling procedures were implemented. The research philosophy and design that were implemented for the investigation were the sources of inspiration for these methodologies. To obtain relatively accurate information about the subject under study, the initial sampling procedure for the multistage involved a census to select all 3-5 star-rated hotels in the Accra Metropolis for the sampling of the respondents of this study. A proportional sampling procedure was employed to distribute the precise number of respondents per hotel's star rating, as determined by the sample size (382) generated by the Ghana Tourism Authority, which registered seventeen (17) hotels (3-5 star-rated) in Accra Metropolis (Table 2). Eight to forty-four respondents were allocated to each establishment.

Due to the difficulty in getting the employees to list for a simple random sampling, employees who are currently on duty with one or more years of working experience were randomly selected based on the permission of the manager or the human resource manager. However, some managers insisted that employees take the data collection instruments home to fill and bring them when done. For this reason, sampled employees were given a week

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to fill out the data collection instruments. This study adopted this procedure since the data collection occurred while employees were on duty.

Table 2: Proportional Distribution of Employees per Hotel

Star rating of hotels	Number of hotels	Population	Proportion per star rating of hotels	Actual sample per star rating of hotels	Sample size of participants of the study
3 star	8	1,051	115.07	115	8
4 star	7	1,834	200.8	201	7
5 star	2	604	66.13	66	2
Total	17	3,489	382	382	17

Source: Author's construct, 2020.

The participants to be interviewed were purposively selected to obtain enough information on the effects of job stress on hotel employees' psychological well-being and performance. Evidence from Table 2, the last column, explains that one employee would be interviewed at each hotel in the study area. The purposive sampling technique was used when the researcher sought information that a particular group of people could only provide because they were highly informed on the subject. In addition, the selected participants included managers, supervisors and individuals who have worked in the industry for five or more years. For instance, some of the participants sampled for the qualitative data had worked in the industry for more than two decades, while several had worked there for more than five years. Including these participants was deemed to help obtain detailed perspectives on how job stress affects hotel employees' psychological well-being and performance.

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Research Instruments

Both a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview guide were utilised for the data collection. The study's objectives informed the items in these instruments. This section explains the nature of the data collection instruments used for this study.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire for this study was constructed using pre-existing queries that were tailored to the variables being examined. Consequently, the Occupational Stress Index was implemented for the job stress questions, the Coping Scale was implemented for the coping strategies, Ryff's Scale of Psychological Well-Being was implemented for the psychological well-being questions, and the Heuristic Framework Scale was implemented for the job performance questions. Psychometric instruments comprised the majority of these enquiries.

The questionnaire was divided into five sections and contained 91 items, which are closed-ended and measured on a five-point Likert scale. Respondents were required to indicate their level of agreement on the item or construct being measured. The primary objective of Section A was to collect information regarding the sources of job tension among hotel employees. The causes of job stress among hotel personnel were investigated using all 23 items extracted from the Occupational Stress Index (OSI). Srivastava and Singh (1984) devised the OSI, which comprises 46 items and 12 stressors. Role ambiguity, role conflict, peer group relations, role excess, and strenuous working conditions are the five predominant stressors of hotel employees, as

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indicated by empirical evidence (Hodari et al., 2014; Mohamed, 2015; Suleman, Hussain, Shehzad, Syed, & Raja, 2018; Wong & Chan, 2020). Consequently, 23 items were selected for this investigation in accordance with the five most prevalent stressors that hotel employees encounter. The OSI has been employed in numerous investigations (Latif & Sultana, 2009; Mahendra et al., 2011; Prathyusha et al., 2016; Suleman et al., 2018).

Responses regarding the stress management strategies implemented by hotel employees were requested in Section B. The COPE inventory developed by Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) consisted of three dimensions that were used to evaluate coping strategies. These dimensions are problem-focused, emotion-focused, and avoidance-focused. Litman (2006) incorporated two items regarding substance use and humour into the COPE inventory. Nevertheless, these two items were incorporated into the avoidance coping strategy because they provided a means to disregard a distressing situation. Consequently, the revised COPE inventory by Litman (2006) was implemented for this investigation. Coping strategies for stress management were evaluated by hotel employees who participated in the investigation, employing all 15 items.

Data on the psychological well-being of hotel employees was collected in Section C. Carol Ryff developed the psychological well-being scale that was adapted for this study (Ryff, 1989; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). The initial scale consisted of 42 products that were measured in six dimensions. Nevertheless, the psychological well-being of hotel personnel was investigated by utilising the edited version of the scale, which consists of 18 items. The 18-item scale was modified due to its conciseness and brevity.

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Section D was seeking data regarding the performance of hotel employees. The Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, De Vet, and Van Der Beek (2014) individual work performance questionnaire was the scale that was adapted for this section. Furthermore, it incorporated a heuristic framework dimension, adaptive performance (Koopmans et al., 2011). This was conducted to investigate the impact of adapting to changes in the workplace on the performance of employees. The performance of hotel employees was evaluated using all 23 elements.

The respondents' biographical information was the primary focus of Section E. The demographic and work characteristics of the respondents, including their level of education, religion, sex, income, and age, were the subject of all 11 questions. Out of the 11 questions, four were open-ended.

Interview Guide

The semi-structured interview guide containing 15 open-ended questions was used to validate the responses derived from the questionnaire and obtain substantive information on the effect of stress on employees and hotels. The interview guide is composed of five sections focused on job stressors, coping strategies, psychological well-being, job performance and demographic information. Specifically, the semi-structured interview guide initially explored the factors that induce job stress among hotel employees. This section had four questions seeking to understand the hows and whys of job stressors among hotel employees.

Also, section two, which focused on coping strategies, consisted of four questions seeking narratives on how hotel employees coped with job

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stress. The next two sections, consisting of three questions, centered on understanding the psychological well-being and job performance of hotel employees, respectively. The final section solicited information about the participants' sex, age, highest level of education, department, received training on stress management and years of experience (see Appendix B). This data collection instrument was utilised because it allows researchers to probe answers that need clarification. This instrument was also structured based on the study's objectives and began with the demographic characteristics of the participants.

Pre-Testing of the Research Instruments

After the data collection instruments were developed, a pre-test was conducted to determine their viability and appropriateness, as well as to estimate the study parameters. A pre-test contributes to the study by modifying and refining the data capture instrument, as per Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) and de Vaus (2001). Furthermore, it facilitates the evaluation of respondents' understanding of the enquiries, guarantees that the different responses to each question are adequate, and confirms that respondents have a precise understanding of the filter questions. A minimum of 10 respondents is deemed adequate for a pre-test by Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009). 51 employees from three hotels in the Takoradi Metropolis were surveyed for this preliminary examination. In December 2020, this preliminary examination was conducted. Takoradi was chosen due to the presence of numerous hotels that share comparable characteristics to the study area. Baxter and Babbie (2003) advised that each respondent be informed that the activity was a pre-test exercise and to report any concerns they had with

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the questionnaire or other types of data. A total of 51 pre-test questionnaires were obtained. The results of the pre-test informed necessary adjustments to improve the clarity, reliability and validity of the research instruments, as discussed in the following subsection.

Reliability and Validity of the Research Instrument

The data collection instrument's robustness and reliability are evaluated during a pre-test (refer to Table 3). When it comes to the constructs' reliability, the internal consistency of the elements was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha Test. The accepted Cronbach's Alpha Test level is 0.70 or higher, as per the general norm. Table 3 indicates that all constructs exceeded 0.70 based on the data. This suggests that all of the constructs that were assessed exhibit a high level of internal consistency.

Table 3: Reliability and Principal Component Analysis

Parameters	Job stress	Coping strategy	Psychological well-being	Job performance
Number of Items	23	15	18	22
Cronbach's Alpha	0.862	0.728	0.814	0.850
KMO	0.605	0.492	0.634	0.732
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	578.384	286.462	371.375	567.889
Degree of freedom	253	105	153	231
Significance	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Extraction	7 (5)	6 (3)	6	6 (4)

***NB: () =actual dimensions of the variable under study

Source: Pre-Test Data, 2020

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On the other hand, in checking for the suitability of the data, exploratory factor analysis was conducted using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The construct for the coping strategy (0.492) did not meet the cut-off point, which is 0.6 (Table 3) for the KMO value. This could be influenced by the small sample size used for the pre-test. However, the findings from the pre-test showed that the data collection instrument was reliable for this study.

Recruitment of Field Assistants

Prior to the field data collection, four field/research assistants were employed to support the data collection. These research assistants were first-degree holders who had some field data collection experience. Two days were used to train these field assistants. On the first day, they were taken through the purpose of the study and the questionnaire. On the second day, the field assistants were made to practice with each other how to go about the data collection and their concerns were addressed before the data collection. The training was organised to enable the research assistants to understand and explain the purpose of the study and interpret the section(s) or question(s) to the respondents.

Data Collection Procedures

The data acquisition process spanned approximately three months, from March to May of 2021. A survey was implemented to reach hotel employees who were respondents. In light of the objectives of the study, target population, time of data collection, and nature of the respondents' work, this

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data collection method was determined to be appropriate. For example, the hotel can employ a data collection approach that would impede the hotel's operations by allowing one or two employees to complete the questionnaire while the others continue to work.

The management of each hotel visited was requested to grant permission for a portion of their employees to participate in the questionnaire. A simple random sample technique was used to choose the respondents who would fill out the questionnaire. Before filling out the questionnaire, respondents were briefed on the study's goals and the details required to complete it. After being briefed on the goal of the study, respondents had to sign a consent form indicating their willingness to participate. The questionnaire was completed by each respondent in an average of 30 minutes. Nevertheless, certain respondents, who were unable to complete the survey while at work, requested either a day or a week to complete the instrument. It is important to note that this resulted in a number of respondents failing to return the questionnaires.

Data was collected from the participants through both face-to-face and phone interviews during the in-depth interview in July-August, 2021. Participants' schedules and availability dictated the timing of interviews. Alternative arrangements were made for individuals who desired phone interviews, taking into account their work schedule and compliance with COVID-19 protocols. In order to prevent any disruptions to the participants' activity during the interview, this method was implemented. Permission was requested to record the interview after the participants were informed of the study's objectives.

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In an effort to ascertain the causes of job stress and its effects on the psychological well-being and performance of employees, participants were interviewed. Additionally, employees were interviewed regarding their stress-coping strategies. The interviews were conducted for an average of one hour. I was able to acquire the data that underpins the figures by implementing this data collection procedure, which involved the use of questionnaires. Furthermore, this data acquisition method assisted in conducting additional investigations into responses that required further clarification.

Despite the fact that the hotel sub-sector of the hospitality industry is expected to be dominated by males (Gamor et al., 2014), efforts were made to ensure a balanced gender representation in order to comprehend the gender differences in job stress, coping strategies, psychological well-being, and job performance.

Data Processing and Analysis

Data analysis involves the identification of significant trends within a dataset (Bradley, 2007). The qualitative and quantitative data were analysed separately, but they were subsequently merged in accordance with the objectives of this study. IBM SPSS version 23, STATA version 14, and SmartPLS version 3 were implemented in the quantitative data analysis. The software was employed to capitalise on its assets in order to accomplish each objective. The qualitative data analysis was conducted using the MaxQDA software. The data analysis procedure was implemented in accordance with the research design. Consequently, the quantitative data analysis is the initial step in the data analysis procedure, and the qualitative data analysis is the

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subsequent step. In addition to the qualitative data analysis procedure, the quantitative data analysis was presented in accordance with each objective.

Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative data that was collected underwent data entry and administration. This was performed to facilitate the cleaning and transformation of the data into the necessary format for the analysis. For example, certain survey queries were converted from string to numeric. 311 of the data were completed for analysis at the conclusion of the data cleansing process. The initial analysis commenced with the descriptive statistics of the respondents' demographic and employment characteristics. Frequencies and percentages comprised these descriptive statistics. Prior to conducting the parametric tests (T-test and ANOVA), the distribution of the data was assessed for normality using skewness and kurtosis values. The variables were normally distributed to warrant parametric tests. Subsequently, the primary analysis would be explicated in accordance with the objectives.

Objective 1

Objective 1, which focused on job stressors, utilised the OSI psychometric scale. The analysis began with descriptive statistics such as percentages for the levels of agreement and the mean and standard deviation of the various items used in the questionnaire. Afterward, the Cronbach alpha tool assessed a reliability test of the 23 items on job stressors. The results from the Cronbach alpha showed that there was internal consistency among the items used. This suggested that the data gathered was suitable for inferential statistical analysis.

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Composite variables of the five job stressors were created based on the items measuring them for inferential analysis. Similarly, an index of job stress was estimated through adding all 23 items and dividing by 23. This has the values ranging from 1-5. Then, ANOVA and T-test analyses were conducted to examine the effects of demographic and work characteristics on job stressors. ANOVA and T-test were deemed the ideal statistical tools since the dependent variables (job stressors) were more so using the tool mentioned above reduced estimation errors (Type 1 error). It must be noted that the ANOVA was used for demographic and work characteristics with more than two categories (i.e.: level of education, level of income and star-rating of hotel), whereas the T-test was used for demographic and work characteristics with two categories (i.e. sex and dependent below 5 years). Prior to the analysis of the ANOVA and T-test, its assumptions of an absence of multicollinearity, normality and independence were checked. Therefore, each demographic and work characteristic was tested to determine which significantly influences the five job stressors. Further, a linear regression analysis was conducted in STATA version 14 to assess which demographic and work characteristics predict the five job stressors. Prior to the regression analysis, a multicollinearity test was conducted using VIF. There was no multicollinearity among the independent variables, according to the data shown in Appendix I. The independent variables were therefore appropriate for the regression analysis.

Objective 2

For the coping strategies adopted by respondents for managing job stress, a psychometric scale comprised of three dimensions with 15 items was

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used. An initial descriptive analysis of percentages of agreement, mean and standard deviation was conducted. Since the scale used was a globally standardised one, only the Cronbach alpha test was carried and afterward, composite variables were created based on the three dimensions of coping. Also, ANOVA and T-test were conducted to examine the effects of demographic and work characteristics on coping strategies. The purpose of using ANOVA and T-test was to measure significant mean differences across demographic and work characteristics. The level of statistical significance was pegged at 0.05, thus at a 95% confidence level. Before the analysis of the ANOVA and T-test, its assumptions of an absence of multicollinearity, normality and independence were checked.

Objective 3

Ryff's PWB scale was employed to analyse the psychological well-being of respondents. This scale had 6 dimensions with 18 items. The descriptive statistics conducted in this section were the percentage of agreement, mean and standard deviation. Moreover, an internal consistency test was conducted using the Cronbach alpha tool. Upon meeting the recommended criterion, composite variables were created for each dimension on PWB.

ANOVA and T-test analyses were conducted to examine the effects of demographic and work characteristics on respondents' PWB. The purpose of using ANOVA and T-test was to measure significant mean differences across demographic and work characteristics. Before the analysis of the ANOVA and T-test, its assumptions of an absence of multicollinearity, normality and independence were checked. The level of statistical significance was pegged at

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0.05, thus at a 95% confidence level. Also, a linear regression analysis was conducted in STATA version 14 to assess job stressors that predict employees' PWB.

Objective 4

With regard to employees' job performance, the Koopmans et al. (2011) scale was used. This scale had 4 dimensions with 22 items. The descriptive statistics conducted in this section were the percentage of agreement, mean and standard deviation. In addition, an internal consistency test was conducted using the Cronbach alpha tool. Upon meeting the recommended criterion, composite variables were created for each dimension on PWB.

The impacts of work variables and demographics on respondents' job performance were looked into using ANOVA and T-test analyses. The purpose of using ANOVA and T-test was to measure mean differences across demographic and work characteristics. Prior to the analysis of the ANOVA and T-test, its assumptions of an absence of multicollinearity, normality and independence were checked. At a 95% confidence level, the threshold for statistical significance was set at 0.05. Additionally, in order to evaluate occupational stresses that predict employees' job performance, a linear regression analysis was performed in STATA version 14.

Structural Equation Modelling

Lastly, the partial least squares (PLS) structural equation modelling (SEM) technique was employed to model the relationship among the variables being studied collectively. Structural equation modelling is an analytical technique to employs several regression analyses to show the relationship

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among variables (Hair et al., 2019; Sarstedt et al., 2017). In addition, this analytical technique evaluated the conceptual framework's utility. Finally, SEM was employed to assess the hypothesized relationships among the variables and explore the Interrelations.

SEM analysis involves the simultaneous evaluation of complex relationships between observed and latent variables (Hair et al., 2019). The most important strength of SEM is that the relationship among numerous latent constructs can be examined to reduce the error in the model (Hair et al., 2019; Sarstedt et al., 2017, 2019). Two methods are used in SEM: the covariance-based structural equation (CB-SEM) and the partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). In simple terms, the difference between these two approaches is about the purpose of analysis, sample size and data distribution. CB-SEM requires a higher sample size with normally distributed data to function optimally, whereas PLS-SEM is flexible with sample size and data distribution issues. On this basis, Ofori (2021) suggests that CB-SEM uses a parametric approach in analysing data, whereas PLS-SEM uses a non-parametric approach.

Prior to beginning the analysis, a normal distribution test was conducted on the observed item to aid in which approach best fits the data using SPSS version 23. It was found that most of the observed items were normally distributed but modelling in AMOS did not work out due to stricter parameter requirements. For that reason, the PLS-SEM technique was utilised for this study. PLS-SEM allows researchers to estimate complex connections with many constructs, indicators, and complex structural routes without imposing distributional assumptions on the data, according to Hair et al.

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(2019). The literature has found that PLS-SEM is currently the most used SEM technique in fields such as accounting, social sciences, hospitality, and tourism management (Dayour et al., 2020; Hair et al., 2019; Sarstedt et al., 2017). However, one of the major limitations is that there is no universally accepted goodness-of-fit measure. Regardless, it poses no effect on the model estimations.

Upon settling on PLS-SEM, the data had to be formatted to meet the SmartPLS version 3 software requirement. This was mainly to ensure all string variables that are not needed were excluded from the data, items were properly labelled and the data file was saved in CSV format. The initial results obtained after importing the data into SmartPLS were the basic statistics on the observed items' mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis. Hair et al. (2019) establish that this table has been reported to give an overview of the data distribution. The structural path was then constructed based on the conceptual framework and run. Finally, considering the purpose of the study, the conceptual framework and the data gathered, the reflective measurement model was adopted compared to the formative measurement model.

According to Sarstedt et al. (2016), the reflective measurement model creates a connection between the latent variable and the observed items or indications that are thought to be prone to errors. One benefit of the reflecting model is that all indicators will change at the same time if the latent variable's evaluation changes (Sarstedt et al., 2016). The analysis was carried out following the completion of the reflective measurement model. A bootstrap analysis with 500 iterations was carried out after an evaluation of the model fit criteria (average variance extracted, composite reliability, Cronbach's alpha,

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factor loadings, and others) revealed that the model was good. In this thesis's ninth chapter, the findings are displayed in tables and charts.

Qualitative Data Analysis

In relation to the qualitative data, the 14 interviews were audio-recorded. For the purpose of analysis, the audio-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim. The transcribed data were later cleaned regarding grammar corrections before using MAXQDA version 2020 for the analysis. Prior to the analysis of the data, codes were defined in the MAXQDA based on the objectives of the study and some emerging issues. Thus, the initial process started with repeatedly reading the interview transcripts to ensure familiarisation with the data. The objectives were transformed into codes, such as job stress or stressor, coping strategies, psychological well-being and job performance.

Afterwards, each transcript was examined and all statements related to each code were assigned. While coding, some emerging views came up and those were defined as sub-codes. These codes and the emerging views formed the themes for the data analysis. Each theme was reviewed against the raw data for coherence and distinctiveness. This rigorous coding process helped in putting the data into themes for robust analysis. The data was then analysed based on thematic and content analysis. The results are presented in the text in chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8.

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Ethical Consideration

Ethical issues are critical to the success of the research endeavour and require sufficient attention in research design. This study considered some ethical issues before, during and after the data collection and processing exercises. The foremost ethical consideration was to gain permission from the University of Cape Coast's Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB subjected the research proposal, especially the data collection instrument, to rigorous scrutiny to protect all parties involved and to obtain the appropriate data. All necessary documents were provided to the board for their perusal and they granted permission to undertake the study (UCCIRB/CHLS/2021/06).

The first point of entry into a hotel was the receptionist leading me to the field manager. The purpose of the research and the need for their employees' participation was explained. These exercises were undertaken before the actual data collection dates in a hotel. During these visits, I discussed with the managers of the various facilities the appropriate dates and times to engage the workers for the actual data collection phase.

During the data collection period, the researcher and her field assistants ensured that the participation of employees was voluntary and that respondents and participants were allowed to withdraw at any point in the data collection process, while their confidentiality was guaranteed. They were also guaranteed that their responses would be anonymised in the presentation of the results. This assurance gave participants and respondents the confidence to participate fully and honestly.

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Field Challenges

The field data collection lasted three months, from 10th March to 30th May 2021. Although the data collection was successful, some challenges were encountered during the fieldwork. However, because measures were taken to systematically resolve these issues, the veracity of the data gathered was unaffected. Some of the challenges encountered during the fieldwork are presented in the subsequent paragraphs.

Firstly, some respondents were not cooperative and thus unwilling to respond to the questionnaire. Some openly stated that they were not interested in the study and that their views were respected. Others took the questionnaires and did not return them. Those who openly declined to participate in the study were replaced with other employees based on the same sampling procedure.

Secondly, there was an outright refusal by two managers who did not allow their workers to participate in the study since their hotel was not in operation due to the effects of COVID-19. As a result, such hotels were excluded from the study.

Thirdly, others complained of research fatigue and not directly benefiting from similar surveys in the past, since researchers did not present their findings after completing the research work. Such respondents were told that the study was purely for academic purposes and its benefit is mainly to develop findings that would help managers implement measures to curtail the phenomenon being studied.

Finally, others were also unwilling to provide information about their age and gross monthly income, which respondents considered personal.

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However, respondents were encouraged to fill in those parts since the research was purely for academic work.

Chapter Summary

This chapter delved into the methods of data collection and analyses. It began with a description of the study area before outlining the research design. Next, the chapter explained the various approaches employed to collect data for the study. The research philosophy used for this study was pragmatism and the research design was explanatory sequential mixed-methods. A mixed-methods approach was employed in data collection and analysis, but the quantitative approach began before the qualitative approach. Furthermore, all ethical considerations were adhered to in the field data collection. Lastly, the statistical tools used in analysing the data were frequencies, percentages, mean, standard deviation, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), T-test, linear regression and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). On the other hand, the qualitative data were coded and analysed using MAXQDA. Finally, the chapter concluded with the challenges encountered during the fieldwork.

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CHAPTER FIVE

JOB STRESS AMONG HOTEL EMPLOYEES IN THE ACCRA METROPOLIS

Introduction

Maintaining high hotel standards, such as working hours, is a demanding task for employees. This often results in job stress among employees in the subsector. The situation is even more difficult with upscale hotels, such as 3-5 star-rated hotels, due to the expectations of higher service delivery standards. Some studies have shown that demographic and work characteristics influence employees' job stress. This chapter delves into the demographic characteristics of respondents and investigates the impact of these characteristics on their experiences with job stress. Furthermore, the chapter investigates the factors that contribute to employment stress.

Demographic and Work Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of respondents are presented in Table 4. Regarding the sex of respondents, an almost equal male (50.5%) and female (49.5%) population participated. This finding suggests that more males than females worked in the subsector, which concurs with similar studies (Ampofo, Owusu-Ansah & Owusu, 2021, Ampofo, 2020; Mensah, 2019) that were conducted among hotel employees in Accra. In addition, the age of the respondents in Table 4 indicates that the hotel subsector had a youthful workforce, as over two-thirds (80%) of the respondents were found to be below 40 years old. Regarding educational level (see Table 4), a little over half (51.4%) of the respondents were also first-degree holders.

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Table 4: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristic	Frequency	Percent (%)
Sex		
Female	154	49.50
Male	157	50.50
Age		
<30years	111	35.70
30-39years	137	44.10
≥40years	63	20.20
Level of education		
SHS	92	29.70
Graduate	160	51.40
Postgraduate	34	10.90
Other	25	8.00
Gross income (monthly GH₵)		
≤1000	94	30.20
1001-2000	140	45.00
2001-3000	51	16.40
≥3001	26	8.40
Religion		
Christian	298	95.80
Muslim	13	4.20
Marital status		
Unmarried	163	52.40
Married	148	47.60
Dependent under 5years		
No	181	58.20
Yes	130	41.80

Exchange rate: $1= GH₵ 8.89

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

It was also revealed in Table 4 that 45% of the respondents earned between GH₵ 1,001 and 2,000, with only a few (8.4%) earning more than GH₵ 3,000 ($ 377.33) per month. Also, evidence from Table 4 shows that Christians dominated (95.8%), with (4.2%) being Muslims. This was unsurprising as the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) reported that (71%) of the country's population are Christians (GSS, 2019).

From Table 4, a little over half (52.4%) of the respondents were found to be unmarried. This result confirms the studies by Appaw-Agbola, Mensah,

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Azila-Gbettor and Abiemo (2020) and Anthony et. al. (2019) who found more unmarried than married people working in hotels in Ghana. Regarding dependents, it was found that less than half (42%) of the respondents had children under five years old.

Alongside the demographic characteristics, the work characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 5. More than half (55%) of the respondents were employees of 4-star-rated hotels, followed by 3-star-rated (27%) and 5-star-rated hotels (18%).

Table 5: Work Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent (%)
Star rating of the hotel		
3-star	84	27.00
4-star	171	55.00
5-star	56	18.00
Department		
Food and Beverage (F&B)	107	34.40
Front Office	87	28.00
Housekeeping	94	30.20
Others	23	7.40
Work experience (years)		
≤5	166	53.40
6-10	102	32.80
≥11	43	13.80
Status of employment		
Full-time	300	96.50
Part-time	11	3.50

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

Concerning departments of work, (34%) of the respondents belonged to the food and beverage department, followed by housekeeping (30%) and front office (28%) (see Table 5). The least respondents (7.4%) were from other departments such as accounts, information technology, maintenance and human resources. Over half of the respondents (53.4%) have had up to 5 years of working experience, as presented in Table 5. Also, nearly one-third (32.8%) had close to a decade of work experience and 13.8% had over a decade of

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work experience. Almost all the respondents (96.5%) were permanent workers, with just a small number (3.5%) being contractual workers.

Demographic Characteristics of Interviewees

The study also captured the demographic and work characteristics of the interviewees for the qualitative data. Out of the 17 interviewees targeted, 14 were interviewed (Table 6). While over half (64%) of the interviewees were males and first-degree holders, respectively, a greater proportion (71.4%) were aged 40 years or older.

Table 6: Demographic and Work Characteristics of Interviewees

R	Sex	Age	Education	WE	Department	Position	SR
A1	Male	50	Graduate	22	Accounts	Finance officer	4
A2	Male	53	Graduate	23	F&B	Supervisor	3
A3	Male	42	Graduate	16	Front Office	Guest Relations	4
A4	Male	43	Graduate	12	Maintenance	Maintenance officer	3
A5	Male	54	Graduate	32	F&B	Manager	4
A6	Male	42	Masters	11	Marketing	Marketing Manager	4
A7	Male	37	Graduate	13	Front Office	Receptionist	4
A8	Male	37	HND	9	F&B	Waiter	3
A9	Female	43	HND	15	Housekeeping	Room Attendant	3
A10	Female	40	Graduate	16	Housekeeping	Assistant Housekeeper	5
A11	Female	40	Graduate	11	Housekeeping	Supervisor	5
A12	Female	28	Graduate	3	Front Office	Receptionist	4
A13	Female	34	HND	9	F&B	Waitress	3
A14	Male	51	HND	21	F&B	Supervisor	3

R=Respondents; WE= Work experience; SR= star-rating; F&B= Food and Beverage; Graduate= completed a first degree.

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

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Regarding work characteristics, forty-three percent of the interviewees (43%) were from 3-star-rated and 4-star-rated hotels, with thirty-five percent (35%) working in the F&B department. Lastly, over two-thirds of the interviewees (71%) had worked in the industry for about 11 years and more.

Factors Inducing Job Stress (Stressors) or Causes of Job Stress

Research on job stress has identified numerous stressors or sources of stress for employees (Burman & Goswami, 2018; Hight & Park, 2019; Lo & Lamm, 2005; Mohamed, 2015). Consequently, this investigation utilised 23 items to investigate the job stressors of hotel employees in the Accra Metropolis who were rated 3-5 stars. The 23 items were categorised into five dimensions: role ambiguity, role conflict, role excess, and strenuous working conditions. Consequently, the initial six items addressed concerns regarding role excess. The subsequent four items examined the issue of role ambiguity. The following five items investigated the topic of character conflict. Poor peer relations and strenuous working conditions were assessed by four of the final eight items. The respondents were requested to designate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each item on a five-point Likert scale, with 1 representing strongly disagree and 5 representing strongly agree. Table 7 illustrates the findings. A composite dimension variable was incorporated to quantify job tension in accordance with the literature. Consequently, a composite variable was developed to quantify job stress.

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Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of Job Stressors

Item	% of agreement	Mean	SD
Role overload			
I have a heavy workload.	8.04	1.76	1.02
The limited number of employees and resources are burdensome	40.50	3.06	1.38
I have to work hurriedly owing to an excessive workload.	31.83	2.67	1.28
My work is looked down on by my higher authorities.	17.00	2.32	1.17
I have to do work that ought to be done by others.	62.70	3.61	1.20
I am not able to carry out my assignment to my satisfaction.	10.30	2.04	1.04
Category overall scores	*28.40*	*2.57*	*1.18*
Role ambiguity			
I do not know the planned goals and objectives for my job.	5.50	1.72	0.89
I do not understand what my responsibilities are.	6.10	1.62	0.90
I do not receive the right amount of work to do.	29.60	2.77	1.25
I know what is expected of me.	8.40	1.85	0.99
Category overall scores	*12.40*	*1.99*	*1.01*
Role conflict			
I do get different instructions regarding my work from my supervisors.	30.90	2.77	1.25
My supervisors do interfere with my work and working methods.	33.50	2.86	1.24
I am not provided with clear instructions regarding a new assignment.	15.80	2.30	1.11
I am not able to follow instructions/working procedures.	7.40	1.83	0.91
It is difficult to implement new working procedures and policies.	25.10	2.60	1.25
Category overall scores	*22.54*	*2.47*	*1.15*
Poor peer relations			
Working with my colleagues is difficult.	17.40	2.31	1.15
My colleagues and subordinates do make fun of my failure at work.	15.40	2.29	1.09
I am not able to cooperate with my colleagues voluntarily.	9.30	2.00	1.00
There is no team spirit among myself	12.60	2.11	1.08

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and my colleagues.			
Category overall scores	*13.68*	*2.18*	*1.08*
Strenuous working conditions			
I do my work under high tense circumstances.	23.50	2.55	1.18
My assignments are risky/complicated.	23.40	2.63	1.11
I feel that this job has made my life cumbersome.	23.80	2.77	1.14
I am not satisfied with the working conditions here.	30.50	2.88	1.24
Category overall scores	*25.30*	*2.71*	*1.17*
Job Stress	*38.60*	*3.37*	*0.51*

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = "Strongly disagree"; 1.50-2.49 = "Disagree"; 2.50-3.49 = "Neither agree nor disagree"; 3.50-4.49 = "Agree"; 4.50-5.0 = "Strongly agree"

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

Based on an index created from all 23 items, it was found that about thirty-nine percent of the respondents (38.60%) agreed to experience job stress. However, 56.3% of the respondents, with a mean score of 3.37, imply that most of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed about experiencing job stress. Interestingly, the overall results show that about a quarter (28.40% and 25.30%) of the (M=2.58 and M=2.7) respondents neither agree nor disagree with role overload and strenuous working conditions as causes of their stress, respectively. On the other hand, a few of the respondents (22.54%, 13.68% and 12.40%) disagreed (M=2.47, M=2.18 and M=1.85) that role conflict, poor peer relations and role ambiguity caused their stress at the workplace, respectively. In other words, most of them neither agreed nor disagreed with experiencing stress caused by role conflict, poor peer relations and role ambiguity. In detail, the subsequent paragraphs explain the five job stressors adopted for this study.

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Evidence from Table 7 shows that only 28% of the respondents agreed with role overload, which means that the majority disagreed. Specifically, 8.04% (M=1.76) of the respondents disagreed that they have a heavy workload and 40.50% (M=3.06) of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed to having a limited number of employees and resources burdens them. Similarly, about 32% (M=2.67) of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed if they often worked hurriedly due to the workload. Also, 17% (M=2.32) of the respondents disagreed that their superiors look down upon their work. From Table 6, about 10% (M=2.04) agreed that they cannot complete assignments to their satisfaction; however, the mean showed that they disagreed. Conversely, most respondents (62.70%, M=3.61) agreed they carry out work that other employees should do.

The qualitative data provided more insights into respondents' perspectives in relation to role overload. It emerged that role overload is a seasonal phenomenon with highs and lows. Even when additional roles are given, the necessary conditions are provided to enable employees to execute those roles easily. This underscores why some respondents did not view role overload as a job stressor. For instance, (A14) a 51-year-old male F&B supervisor of a 3-star hotel opined that;

> "*I understand my role. In some instances that there is more work to do, especially on weekends and holidays when we have a lot of guests coming through which makes me stay a bit late to ensure that all the guests leave the hotel restaurant before I can close from work*"

Additionally, (A10), a 40-year-old female assistant housekeeper of a 5-star hotel, had this to say:

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"*We are provided with the necessary resources to execute every role that is given to us in the department and due to that my work is less stressful.*"

Relatedly, (A11), a 40-year-female housekeeping supervisor of a 5-star hotel said that;

"*I don't think my workload is heavy because I am able to meet tasks each day and that makes me quite happy because I don't have to worry too much about anything*."

Contrary to the studies of Mohamed (2015) and Rao and Goel (2017), role overload was a stressor for hotel employees, which differs from the study's findings. The differences could be attributed to contextual factors such as adequate managerial support, availability of resources, and the seasonal nature of workload in the hotels studied.

Regarding strenuous working conditions, the results in Table 7 indicate that only 25% of the respondents agreed that it is a job stressor. Nonetheless, the mean score (M=2.71) suggests that the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed whether a strenuous working condition was a job stressor. Specifically, about one-fourth (23.5%, M=2.55) of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with going about their duties under highly tense circumstances. Also, about 23% (M=2.63) of the respondents were not sure if their duties were risky or complicated. Similarly, about 24% (M=2.77) of the respondents were indifferent about whether their job made life cumbersome. Finally, about 31% (M=2.88) of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed if they were satisfied with the working conditions.

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Evidence from the qualitative data revealed that strenuous working conditions are contingent on peak demands. Thus, periods when more customers and employees have to attend to all of them. It is only during such periods that employees experience exertion. Since the hotels do not experience peak demand daily, some employees may not go through strenuous conditions frequently and are ambivalent about whether it is a job stressor. For instance, (A11) a 40-year-old female housekeeping supervisor of a 5-star-rated hotel had this to say;

> "*I can say that I work under high-tension circumstances only when there are lots of guests and events being hosted in the hotel and this comes in once in a while which normally happens on holidays and some weekends. Either than that, I feel there isn't much tension with my work."*

Similarly, (A2), a 53-year-old male F&B supervisor of a 3-star hotel, further clarified the issue by stating that "*work could be pressure inducing sometimes, especially during events where we have to cater to a large crowd*."

From a different perspective, (A1), a 50-year-old male finance officer of a 4-star hotel, said, "*Honestly, I am okay with the conditions here. The pay is okay and the management is flexible towards our concerns, and that is good for me"*

Words like "sometimes" and "only when" used in the first two responses confirm the assertion that employees do not experience strenuous working conditions regularly, which is part of why the majority neither agreed nor disagreed if it is a job stressor. However, employee remuneration and management flexibility may influence employees' views of the working

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conditions as strenuous or otherwise. As captured in the last response, an employee felt the working conditions were good due to the pay and management style in place at the facility. These two variables appeared obscure to the respondent's means of interpreting strenuous working conditions; hence, they were undecided. In contrast with the study of Wong and Chan (2020), poor working conditions were identified categorically as job stressors for hotel employees.

With respect to role ambiguity, the mean dimension score (12.40%. M=1.99) demonstrates that the respondents disagreed with role ambiguity as a job stressor at their respective hotels. This is suggestive of individuals being clear about their roles and job descriptions. Evaluation of the individual items shows that (5.50%, M=1.72) respondents disagreed that they do not know the goals and objectives of their jobs. Also, it was found that (6.10%, M=1.62) respondents disagreed that they did not understand their responsibilities. Others (29.60%, M=2.77) neither agreed nor disagreed whether they received the right amount of work. Lastly, 8.40% (M=1.85) of respondents rejected the idea that they do not know what is expected of them.

Given the proportion (12.40%) of respondents in agreement to role ambiguity, it can be implied that role ambiguity is not considered a job stressor among most employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in the Accra Metropolis. Evidence from the qualitative data further gives credence to this conclusion. The qualitative data revealed that participants do not experience role ambiguity due to the clarity of roles, objectives and responsibilities. For example, (A12), a 28-year-old female receptionist at a 4-star rated hotel, disclosed that;

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"*My duties are very clear here; I need to always connect with other departments in the hotel in order to stay abreast with the happenings in the hotel because my office is the first point of call when guests need information. For this reason, I know what is expected of me. It is also expedient that I know my role because my work is quite sensitive and any mishap may cause the image and brand of the organization*."

In addition, (A1), a 50-year-old male finance officer of a 4-star hotel, stated, "*I know exactly what the job objectives are; in fact, it is the more reason why I applied for it*."

Furthermore, (A3) a 42-year-old guest relations manager of a 4-star hotel, disclosed, "*I do find it a bit surprising to hear anyone working here say that they don't know what their roles are because they are clearly stated and we are constantly reminded of them*."

These responses imply that employees' roles, responsibilities and work objectives are clearly spelt out in the hotels. Thus, there is adequate information about employees' roles and that minimises if not eliminates, issues of ambiguity hence the rejection of role ambiguity as a job stressor.

Contrary to the finding of this study, Hodari, Waldthausen and Sturman (2014), Mohamed (2015) and Wireko-Gyebi and Akyeampong (2014) established that role ambiguity is a stressor of hotel employees. In linking this finding to the conceptual framework and the empirical evidence, role ambiguity is a job stressor for some hotel employees.

In assessing role conflict, the dimension mean (22.54%, M=2.47) denotes a rejection of role conflict as a job stressor. Table 7 shows that about (31%) of the respondents were not sure about three of the dimension items,

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including (30.90%, M=2.77) receiving different instructions from supervisors on the same work, (33.50%, M=2.86) interference from supervisors and (25.10%, M=2.60) difficulty to implement new working procedures and policies, (15.80%, M=2.30) disagreed that they are not provided with clear instructions regarding a new assignment. Respondents also disagreed (7.40%, M=1.83) that they were unable to follow instructions/working procedures.

The results show that three items of the dimension role conflict were neither agreed nor disagreed and two were disagreed. This implies that role conflict is not a job stressor among 3-5 star-rated hotel employees in the Accra Metropolis. Furthermore, it was revealed that the systems put in place, as well as employees' roles are clearly defined in the hotels. This enabled employees to go about their duties devoid of doubts and conflicts. These assertions are embedded in the following responses.

> "*With clearly defined roles, I sometimes feel I have not worked enough and it makes me more efficient even with the small tasks that I am assigned. And I make sure I do it to the best of my ability knowing that I do not have to do other people's work*." (A 11, a 40-year-old female housekeeping supervisor of a 5-star hotel)

Going according to their work schedules was mentioned as a way of preventing conflict:

> "*The system here ensures that everyone works, regardless of your position; everyone knows and understands what they are expected to do so that there are no doubts and conflicts about what I am required to do.*" (A14, a 51-year-old male food and beverage Supervisor of a 3-star hotel)

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The current finding contradicts studies by Hodari et al. (2014), Mohamed (2015) and Rao and Goel (2017), where role conflict was found to be a stressor for hotel employees. This could be emanating from contextual variations such as geographic location. In addition, role conflict may be a job stressor or not depending on several factors, such as the individual's perception of the situation, the intensity and frequency of the role conflict, and the individual's coping strategies.

Lastly, concerning the poor peer relations dimension, the results (13.68%, M=2.18) indicated that the respondents did not think poor peer relations constituted a job stressor. To elaborate further, (17.40%, M=2.31) respondents did not think working with their colleagues was difficult. Similarly, (15.40%, M=2.29) did not blame their colleagues for any failure at work. Moreover, the results reveal that (9.30%, M=2.00) respondents rejected the idea that they are unable to cooperate with colleagues. Finally, (12.60%, M=2.11) respondents disagreed that they have no team spirit. These results imply that poor peer relation is not considered a major job stressor among most 3-5 star-rated hotel employees within the Accra Metropolis.

Some participants revealed that establishing a good relationship with peers was the only way to stay long on the job. Others believed that their jobs were interlinked and on the grounds of that basis, they relied on each other to get their jobs done. For example, (A3) a 42-year-old male Guest Relations Manager of a 4-star hotel, had the following to say; "*Imagine if I couldn't get along with my colleagues here, I honestly don't know how long I would last on my job*"

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Relatedly (A10), a 40-year-old female assistant housekeeper of a 5-star hotel stated that;

> "*Working in any human institution is quite hectic due to our different backgrounds and that is a general notion. However, in the housekeeping department, it is always fun because our jobs are somehow linked, so we depend on each other to get the work done to provide quality services to clients who visit the hotel. And although our paths do cross sometimes with personal issues, we are able to resolve them and put work first because we understand that we are a family here and that the success of one is the success of all, especially in our department where every work is intertwined*."

The above responses highlight the importance of good peer relations and how inimical poor peer relations can be to the proper functioning of hotels. However, the interlinked nature of the jobs and how employees depend on each other may have eliminated the issue of poor peer relationships, which explains why most respondents did not consider it a job stressor.

The current finding of poor peer relations not being a major job stressor contradicts studies conducted by Wireko-Gyebi and Akyeampong (2014) and Wong and Chan (2020). They found that poor peer relations were a major inducer of job stress amongst hotel employees. The possible contradiction could be due to the individual's perception, the severity and frequency of the negative interactions, and the individual's coping strategies. However, the finding of this study confirms that of Ko (2020), who found that interpersonal conflict (poor peer relations) is not a significant stressor.

The Transactional Theory of Stress and Coping, which holds that people experience stress when they believe that the demands of their jobs

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exceed their ability or resources to cope, can be used to interpret these findings. Employees who did not perceive role conflict or poor peer relations as stressors may have appraised these demands as manageable due to adequate coping resources, clear communication, work experience, educational levels or supportive social relationships. However, stressors such as role overload and strenuous conditions may have been appraised as threatening because they challenged employees' perceptions to cope. Applying this theory strengthens the understanding that employees' stress levels depend not only on objective job demands but also their subjective appraisal and coping strategies.

Differences in Job Stressors across Employees' Socio-Demographic Characteristics

The effect of job stressors is influenced by the demographic characteristics of individuals, as demonstrated by empirical evidence (Wireko-Gyebi et al., 2017; Wong & Huang, 2014). The study conducted an additional analysis of variance and a t-test to investigate the difference in job stressors across demographic characteristics in an effort to substantiate this assertion. The dependent variables were the five stressors, which have been demonstrated to be interrelated in previous studies. Demographic characteristics comprised the independent variables. In order to quantify the effects of the independent factors on the dependent variables, the eta2 scores were also calculated for each dimension during the ANOVA. According to Cohen (1988), a little effect is indicated by an eta2 score of less than 0.06, a moderate effect by a score between 0.06 and 0.13, and a strong effect by a score of 0.14 and higher. To ascertain which specific group means are substantially different from one another, a post hoc (Tukey) test was also used.

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Overall, the findings in Table 8 show a statistically significant difference between employees perceived levels of occupational stress and their married status. Furthermore, there was a significant discrepancy between the occupational stresses and attributes including salary, marital status, religion, and level of education.

Table 8: Differences in Job Stressors across Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Item	N	JS Mean	RO Mean	RA Mean	RC Mean	PPR Mean	SWC Mean
Sex							
Male	157	2.39	2.62	2.03	2.45	2.21	2.65
Female	154	2.38	2.53	1.95	2.49	2.14	2.77
t		-0.21	-1.65	-0.88	0.473	-0.77	1.23
p-value		0.83	0.1	0.38	0.64	0.44	0.22
Religion							
Christian	298	2.39	2.58	1.20	2.48	2.19	2.73
Muslim	13	2.17	2.54	1.82	2.28	1.83	2.19
t		1.42	-1.33	0.81	0.9	1.53	2.23
p-value		0.16	0.19	0.42	0.37	0.13	0.03*
Marital status							
Unmarried	163	2.31	2.56	1.92	2.38	2.02	2.64
Married	148	2.47	2.59	2.07	2.57	2.34	2.78
t		-2.65	-0.47	-1.79	-2.18	-3.4	-1.37
p-value		0.01*	0.64	0.07	0.03*	0.01*	0.17
Dependent below 5							
Yes	130	2.38	2.61	2.07	2.57	2.24	2.7
No	181	2.44	2.55	1.93	2.4	2.13	2.71
t		-1.44	-1.23	-1.63	-1.84	-1.09	0.16
p-value		0.16	0.22	0.1	0.07	0.28	0.87
Age							
≤29	111	2.37	2.63	2.01	2.49	2.06	2.65
30-39	137	2.4	2.57	2	2.46	2.23	2.74
≥40	63	2.38	2.5	1.93	2.47	2.27	2.74
F		0.11	1.76	0.3	0.04	1.8	0.4
p-value		0.9	0.17	0.74	0.96	0.17	0.67
Eta^2		0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00
Education							
SHS	92	2.41	2.62	2.07	2.54	2.19	2.63
Graduate	160	2.37	2.56	1.97	2.42	2.18	2.73
Postgraduate	34	2.25	2.41	1.72	2.38	1.99	2.74

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Other	25	2.54	2.71	2.18	2.68	2.34	2.79
F		1.45	2.83	2.5	1.21	0.91	0.41
p-value		0.23	0.04*	0.06	0.31	0.44	0.75
Eta^2		0.01	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.00
Income							
≤1000	94	2.45	2.67	2.13	2.55	2.23	2.70
1001-2000	140	2.35	2.51	1.99	2.43	2.11	2.72
2001-3000	51	2.38	2.62	1.89	2.41	2.21	2.76
≥3001	26	2.31	2.51	1.69	2.51	2.27	2.56
F		0.84	2.8	2.87	0.58	0.55	0.34
p-value		0.47	0.04*	0.04*	0.63	0.65	0.80
Eta^2		0.01	0.03	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.00

JS= Job Stress, RA= Role ambiguity, RC= Role conflict, RA= Role ambiguity, PPR= Poor peer relation, SWC= Strenuous working conditions and JS= Job stress, MD=mean difference, Significant difference exists at *=p<0.05, Eta^2 = 0.01= small effect; 0.06 = moderate effect and 0.14+ = large effect.

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

Evidence from Table 8 shows that only marital status revealed a statistically significant difference (t=-2.65, p-value=0.01) in the experience of job stress. It was found that respondents who were unmarried (M=2.31) disagreed more with job stress compared to those who were married (M=2.47). Unmarried employees may disagree with the notion of job stress for various reasons. For instance, many unmarried employees may be more independent and, therefore, less likely to feel that their job is a source of significant stress. Additionally, unmarried employees may not have as many familial obligations as married ones, meaning the work-life balance is less of an issue. They can also prioritise their own leisure activities and interests over job-related obligations, making their work less likely to interfere with their personal lives. Because of this, unmarried employees may be less likely to

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experience job stress than those who are married. Much detail on the job stressors has been presented in the subsequent paragraphs.

Table 8 presents the results of the differences in role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, poor peer relationships and strenuous working conditions across demographic characteristics. The results show that there was a statistically significant difference (F= 2.83, p=0.04, eta^2= 0.02) in employees' view of role overload as a job stressor based on their level of education. An inspection of the mean scores revealed that (M=2.71) respondents who have attained "Other" educational levels, such as certificates neither agreed nor disagreed in their view of role overload as a job stressor than SHS (M=2.62), Graduate (M=2.56) and Postgraduate (M=2.41) employees. Such category of respondents may experience a relatively higher role overload compared to the others due to limited knowledge, support and skills. The Tukey post hoc test showed that there was a significant difference between the mean score of Postgraduate and "Other" (MD=0.29, p=0.05). Thus, respondents with an "Other" level of education recorded about a 0.29 difference in mean score compared to respondents with a Postgraduate level of education.

It is important to note that these factors may contribute to a higher level of role overload among hotel employees with other educational qualifications, but it does not mean that all employees with other educational qualifications will experience role overload or that graduates will not experience role overload. However, role overload can be managed and reduced with the right support and resources. Meanwhile, the eta squared value (0.02) suggests that employees' educational level has little influence on their view of role overload as a job stressor.

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There was also a statistically significant difference (F=2.80, p=0.04, eta^2=0.03) in employees' experience of role overload based on their income levels. The eta square value implies that income level only has about a 3% impact on the employees' view of role overload as a job stressor. Respondents who earned GHC1000 and below (M=2.67) reported slightly higher, neither agreed nor disagreed with role overload as a job stressor, followed by those (M=2.62) who earned between GHC2001-3000, GHC3001+ (M=2.51) and GHC1001-2000 (M=2.51). In addition, the post hoc test portrayed that there was a significant difference between respondents who earned less than or equal to GHC1000 and GHC1001-2000 (MD=0.16, p=0.4). Thus, employees who earned less than or equal to GHC1000 reported a higher mean of role overload compared to employees who earned GHC1001-2000. Employees who earn relatively less monthly income may experience role overload due to limited resources, support and working on multiple jobs. This compels such employees to assume more roles, eventually leading to job stress. It is worth noting that these factors may contribute to a higher level of role overload among hotel employees who earn less; nevertheless, it does not mean that all employees who earn less will experience role overload or that those who earn more will not experience role overload. However, role overload can be managed and reduced with the right support and resources.

Similar trends were observed between income level and role ambiguity, with income level having an insignificant effect (F=2.87, p=0.04, eta^2=0.03) on employees' perception of role ambiguity as a job stressor. The mean values indicate that most employees (M=1.69) who earned GHC3000+ disagreed with experiencing role ambiguity as a job stressor compared to those (M=1.89) who earned between GHC2001-3000, GHC1001-2000 (M=1.99)

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and GHC1000 and below (M=2.13). The post hoc test revealed that there was a significant difference in the mean of less than or equal to GHC1000 and those who earned GHC3000+ (MD=0.44, p=0.04). Specifically, it was found that those who earned less than or equal to GHC1000 had a higher mean score in terms of role ambiguity compared to those who earned GHC3000+.

This finding contradicts the study by Ko (2020), who stated that those who earned more were the least likely to disagree and not to have experienced role ambiguity. According to Ko (2020), those earning more are the managers and are more likely to experience role ambiguity than frontline employees. Employees who earn more may disagree that they experience role ambiguity compared to those who earn less because they may have more clearly defined roles and responsibilities within the organisation. For example, they may hold a higher leadership position and have more decision-making power, which can provide greater clarity and direction in their job. Additionally, they may have more resources and support available to help them understand their roles and responsibilities. On the other hand, employees who earn less may have more fluid roles and responsibilities and may be expected to perform multiple tasks across different departments, increasing the sense of ambiguity in their jobs.

In the case of role conflict and marital status, those who were married (M=2.57) realised to be slightly higher neither agreeing nor disagreeing with role conflict as a job stressor compared to their unmarried counterparts (M=2.38), who disagreed (t=-2.18, p=0.03). This finding corroborates the study of Ko (2020), who claimed that married employees experienced more role conflict as job stress compared to those who are unmarried or never married. Married hotel employees may experience role conflict compared to unmarried employees because they may have additional responsibilities and commitments outside of work, such as caring for children or elderly parents,

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managing a household, and maintaining a relationship with their partner. These responsibilities can sometimes interfere with their work responsibilities and create a sense of conflict. Additionally, married employees may have more responsibilities related to their family and home life, making it harder for them to commit to their work fully, leading to a greater sense of role conflict. On the other hand, unmarried employees may have more flexibility and fewer outside responsibilities, which can make it easier for them to focus on their work and avoid role conflict.

Table 8 shows a significant difference (t=-3.40, p=0.01) between poor peer relations and marital status. Most employees (M=2.02) who were unmarried or never married disagreed with poor peer relations compared to those (M=2.34) who were married. This difference occurred at an eta^2 value of 0.04. This implies that marital status slightly affects employees' experience of poor peer relations. The finding of this study supports some existing literature. According to Ko (2020), married people experience more stress than unmarried or never married. Married hotel employees may experience poor peer relations compared to unmarried employees because they may have less time and energy to devote to their work and colleagues. Due to the responsibilities of managing a household and caring for family members, married employees may not be able to attend work events, socialise with colleagues as much, or be as available for work-related tasks as their unmarried counterparts. This may lead to fewer opportunities to build strong relationships with peers and result in poor peer relations. Additionally, married employees may have different priorities and responsibilities outside of work, making it harder for them to connect with their colleagues, who may not have the same life experiences or responsibilities.

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Finally, the results showed that Christian respondents (M=2.73) expressed higher neither agreeing nor disagreeing to ever experiencing strenuous working conditions than their Muslim (M=2.19) counterparts. This was found to be statistically significant at a 95% confidence level. Thus, while respondents from both religious affiliations neither agreed nor disagreed about the influence of strenuous working conditions, Muslim respondents had a relatively lower mean score. This indicates that one's religious affiliation can influence their experience of strenuous working conditions was minute.

Differences in Job Stressors across Employees' Work Characteristics

Apart from the demographic characteristics, mean differences of work characteristics on job stress and stressors were examined (Table 9). Evidence from Table 9 shows a statistically significant difference ($F=4.34$, $p=0.01$, $eta^2=0.03$) in the star-rating of hotels and employees' job stress. However, the eta squared value (0.03) suggests that the star-rating of hotels has little influence on their view of job stress. From Table 9, it was found that (M=2.52) respondents who work in 3-star hotels were not decisive in their view of job stress compared to those (M=2.31) in 4-star and 5-star (M=2.40) hotels who disagreed with job stress.

The post hoc test revealed that there was a significant difference between employees of 3-star hotels and 4-star hotels in terms of job stress (MD=0.21, p=0.01). Employees in 3-star hotels may be uncertain about their perceived experience of job stress due to smaller budgets, limited logistics and resources. They may not have the logistics and resources that ease the job stress. Also, employees in 3-star-rated hotels may have different expectations for their jobs and working conditions, which can impact their perception of job

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stress. They may be more accepting of working conditions and workloads that would be unacceptable in a 4-5 star-rated hotel.

Table 9: Differences in Job Stressors across Work Characteristics

Item	N	JS Mean	RO Mean	RA Mean	RC Mean	PPR Mean	SWC Mean
Employment status							
Full-time	300	2.39	2.58	2	2.49	2.19	2.72
Part-time	11	2.10	2.55	1.82	1.98	1.89	2.25
t		1.764	0.23	0.78	2.10	1.16	1.81
p-value		0.08	0.82	0.44	0.04*	0.25	0.07
Department							
Food & Beverage	107	2.41	2.58	2.05	2.47	2.25	2.68
Front Office	87	2.39	2.65	2.01	2.47	2.16	2.66
Housekeeping	94	2.39	2.51	2.01	2.52	2.12	2.78
Other	23	2.25	2.54	1.53	2.29	2.13	2.75
F		0.52	1.64	3.29	0.52	0.44	0.38
p-value		0.67	0.18	0.02*	0.67	0.72	0.77
Eta^2		0.01	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.00
Work experience (years)							
≤5	166	2.41	2.61	2.01	2.53	2.18	2.71
6-10	102	2.35	2.55	1.95	2.37	2.18	2.69
≥11	43	2.36	2.5	1.99	2.46	2.15	2.73
F		0.4	1.25	0.21	1.32	0.03	0.05
p-value		0.67	0.29	0.81	0.27	0.97	0.95
Eta^2		0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00
Star-rating							
3-star	84	2.52	2.64	2.1	2.67	2.32	2.88
4-star	171	2.31	2.52	1.93	2.36	2.08	2.66
5-star	56	2.4	2.63	2	2.52	2.25	2.59
F		4.34	2.68	1.49	4.79	2.72	2.46
p-value		0.01*	0.07	0.23	0.01*	0.07	0.09
Eta^2		0.03	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.02

JS= Job Stress, RA= Role ambiguity, RC= Role conflict, RA= Role ambiguity, PPR= Poor peer relation, SWC= Strenuous working conditions and JS= Job stress, MD=mean difference, Significant difference exists at *=$p<0.05$, Eta^2 = 0.01= small effect; 0.06 = moderate effect and 0.14+ = large effect.

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

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In terms of the job stressors, Table 9 also shows a statistically significant difference (F=3.29, p=0.02, eta^2=0.03) among employees of the different departments in terms of their views of role ambiguity as a job stressor. The eta square of (3%), however, implies that the department has little influence on employees' experiencing role ambiguity as a job stressor. Close observation of the mean scores revealed that many employees (M=1.53) from the other departments, such as information technology (IT), human resources and accounts disagreed with role ambiguity as being a job stressor. They were followed by the Front office (M=2.01), Housekeeping (M=2.01) and F&B department (M=2.05). The post hoc test showed that there is a significant difference between employees categorised as "Other" and employees from the other departments in relation to role ambiguity. The mean differences observed were 0.52 (p=0.01), 0.48 (p=0.3) and 0.47 (p=0.03) for employees in Food and Beverage, Front Office and Housekeeping respectively.

This finding confirms Sampson and Ametepeh's (2016) study, where employees' departments influence their experience of role ambiguity. Employees in different departments within a hotel, such as IT, accounts and human resources, may disagree that they experience role ambiguity compared to those in housekeeping, front office and food and beverage (F&B) because their roles and responsibilities may be more clearly defined and stable. For example, employees in accounts may have specific tasks related to financial management and accounting, while employees in housekeeping, front office and F&B may have more customer-facing roles and responsibilities that can change depending on the needs of the hotel and its guests. Additionally,

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employees in accounts may have more access to training and resources to help them understand their roles, whereas employees in other departments may have less.

Further, the study found significant differences between role conflict and employment statuses at a (95%) significance level. From Table 9, many respondents (M=1.98) with part-time employment disagreed with role conflict being a job stressor compared to those (M=2.49) with full-time employment. This contradicts the finding of Sampson and Ametepeh (2016), who established that employees' working status (full-time or part-time) did not significantly influence their experience of role conflict. Part-time employees may disagree that they experience role conflict compared to full-time employees because they may have a more defined set of responsibilities and a more flexible schedule. This may allow them to easily balance other commitments such as education or family. Additionally, part-time employees may be less likely to be given conflicting demands or expectations from multiple supervisors, as they may work in a specific area or during specific hours. On the other hand, full-time employees may have more responsibilities and demands on their time and may be expected to work in multiple departments, which can increase the likelihood of conflicting demands or expectations from different supervisors.

Furthermore, more of the employees (M=2.67) in 3-star-rated hotels neither agreed nor disagreed with experiencing role conflict compared to those (M=2.52) in 5-star-rated hotels and 4-star-rated hotels (M=2.36). With an effect size of 0.03, there was a small difference in neither agreeing nor disagreeing to role conflict being a stressor based on the star-rating of a hotel. However, the post hoc test showed that there was a statistically significant

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difference between 3-star hotel employees and 4-star hotel employees in terms of role conflict (MD=0.32, p=0.01). Employees in 4-star-rated hotels may disagree with experiencing role conflict compared to those in 3-star-rated hotels due to the availability of resources, logistics, clear job description and organisational culture. Employees in 3-star-rated hotels may experience role conflict compared to those in 4 and 5-star-rated hotels because they may have a wider range of responsibilities and a higher workload. 3-star-rated hotels may have fewer resources and staff than 4 and 5-star hotels, which might lead to employees being asked to perform a wider range of tasks and responsibilities, creating conflicts. Additionally, 3-star-rated hotels may have a more "hands-on" approach to management, meaning that employees may have more direct contact with management and more responsibilities, which can lead to a greater sense of conflict. On the other hand, employees in 4 and 5-star-rated hotels may have more specialized roles and responsibilities, which can provide a greater sense of clarity and direction in their jobs, reducing the likelihood of role conflict.

The results presented in Tables 8 and 9 suggest that there are no notable disparities between demographic and work factors such as gender, employees with young dependents, age, education level and work experience and factors such as role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, poor relationships with colleagues and challenging working conditions. These results align with previous research. For example, a study by Sampson and Ametepeh (2016) also found that demographic and work characteristics, including age, gender, education level and work experience, do not significantly impact job stressors.

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Determinants of Job Stress and Job Stressors among 3-5 Star-Rated Hotel Employees in Accra Metropolis.

This section presents the determinants of job stressors. Based on the results from the ANOVA and T-test analyses, the study further assessed the predictors of job stressors using linear regression as a multivariate statistical technique. The literature shows that some demographic and work characteristics influence job stressors. Accordingly, in the analysis, the demographic and work characteristics served as the independent variables, whereas the dependent variables were the job stressors. The results are presented in Table 10, interwoven with the ANOVA and T-Test results, to appreciate the effects of demographic and work characteristics on job stressors.

Overall, the regression models predicted 7-12% of the variation in job stress and its dimensions (job stressors) based on demographic and work characteristics. For example, it was discovered that job stress was significantly predicted by marital status. It was shown that employees' disagreement with workplace stress increased by 21% for every unit increase in the number of married employees. This finding validates the T-test results in Table 8, where married respondents had a relatively higher disagreement to job stress mean score (M=2.47) compared to unmarried (M=2.31). This could confirm the earlier assertion that married employees may disagree with job stress compared to unmarried employees because they may have a stronger sense of support and belonging outside of work. A strong support system, such as a spouse or family, can provide emotional and psychological support, making it easier for an employee to cope with challenges and conflicts in the workplace.

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Table 10: Determinants of Job Stress and Job Stressors

Variable	JS Coef. (Std. Err.)	RO Coef. (Std. Err.)	RA Coef. (Std. Err.)	RC Coef. (Std. Err.)	PPR Coef. (Std. Err.)	SWC Coef. (Std. Err.)
Sex (Ref. Male)						
Female	-0.24 0.07	0.03 0.05	0.04 0.09	-0.10 0.09	0.01 0.10	-0.11 0.10
Star rating (Ref. 3-star)						
4-star	-0.19 0.07*	-0.12 0.06*	-0.14 0.10	-0.29 0.11**	-0.20 0.12	-0.19 0.12
5-star	-0.10 0.10	-0.02 0.08	-0.09 0.14	-0.12 0.14	-0.04 0.15	-0.24 0.16
Employment status (Ref. Full time)						
Part-time	-0.28 0.17	-0.05 0.14	-0.15 0.24	-0.49 0.251*	-0.24 0.27	-0.48 0.28
Dependents under 5 (Ref. No)						
Yes	0.03 0.07	0.04 0.06	0.07 0.10	0.13 0.10	-0.06 0.11	-0.05 0.11
Age (Ref. ≤29 years)						
30-39	-0.02 0.09	-0.08 0.07	-0.05 0.12	-0.13 0.13	0.12 0.14	0.03 0.14
≥40	-0.02 0.13	-0.10 0.10	-0.07 0.17	-0.13 0.18	0.18 0.19	0.03 0.20
Educational level (Ref. SHS)						

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Graduate	0.01	-0.07	0.03	-0.08	0.00	0.17
	0.09	0.07	0.12	0.13	0.14	0.15
Postgraduate	-0.10	-0.27	-0.03	-0.15	-0.30	0.25
	0.14	0.11*	0.19	0.21	0.22	0.23
Other	0.16	0.12	0.16	0.19	0.15	0.18
	0.13	0.13	0.17	0.19	0.20	0.20
Income (Ref. ≤ 1000 Gh)						
1001-2000	-0.14	-0.11	-0.18	-0.08	-0.24	-0.09
	0.09	0.07	0.12	0.13	0.14	0.14
2001-3000	-0.14	0.03	-0.28	-0.09	-0.21	-0.15
	0.13	0.10	0.17	0.19	0.20	0.20
≥3001	-0.20	0.00	-0.45	0.00	-0.12	-0.42
	0.17	0.13	0.23	0.24	0.26	0.27
Religion (Ref. Christian)						
Muslim	-0.26	0.15	-0.21	-0.28	-0.35	-0.59
	0.16	0.12	0.21	0.23	0.24	0.25*
Marital status (Ref. Unmarried)						
Married	0.21	0.06	0.24	0.24	0.35	0.18
	0.08**	0.06	0.11	0.11*	0.12**	0.12
Department (Ref. Food and Beverage)						
Front Office	-0.02	0.08	-0.02	0.01	-0.09	-0.05
	0.08	0.06	0.11	0.12	0.13	0.13
Housekeeping	-0.07	-0.13	-0.09	-0.01	-0.19	0.09
	0.08	0.06*	0.11	0.12	0.13	0.13
Other	-0.03	0.04	-0.35	-0.03	0.05	0.13
	0.14	0.11	0.19	0.20	0.21	0.22
Work						

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experience						
(Ref. ≤5 years)						
6-10	-0.10	-0.05	-0.07	-0.19	-0.13	-0.07
	0.08	0.06	0.11	0.11	0.12	0.13
≥11	-0.10	-0.06	-0.05	-0.13	-0.21	-0.04
	0.11	0.09	0.15	0.16	0.17	0.17
N	311.00	311.00	311.00	311.00	311.00	311.00
R^2	0.10	0.12	0.09	0.10	0.10	0.07
AIC	520.65	363.79	706.09	745.47	785.20	804.97
BIC	599.19	442.33	784.63	824.01	863.73	883.51

Exponentiated coefficients. *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

Ref: reference category; RO: Role overload; RA: Role ambiguity; RC: Role conflict; PPR: Poor peer relations; SWC: Strenuous working conditions; JBS: Job stress

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

In relation to role overload, the star rating of a hotel, the educational level of employees and the department were found to be significant determinants of employees' neither agreeing nor disagreeing at a (95%) confidence level (Table 9). The results showed that an increase in 4-star hotel employees could account for a minimal (11.9%) increase in neither agreeing nor disagreeing about role overload compared to 3-star hotel employees. Thus, an increase in 4-star hotel employees may not significantly change neither agreeing nor disagreeing about role overload. Confirming this, the ANOVA results (Table 9) indicate there were more 3-star hotel employees (M=2.64) who expressed neither agreeing nor disagreeing about role overload than 4-star hotel employees (M=2.52). Additionally, a unit increase in the number of postgraduate employees explains a 26.9% increase in neither agreeing nor

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disagreeing to role overload, which differs from that of SHS. The mean scores in Table 8 suggest that more of the SHS graduates (M=2.621) indicated neither agreeing nor disagreeing about role overload than the postgraduates (M=2.412). Also, the change in the number of housekeeping staff could lead to a 12.8% change in the neither agreeing nor disagreeing status of role overload. The proportion of change signifies that not many housekeeping staff had expressed neither agreeing nor disagreeing about role overload, as confirmed by the ANOVA results (Table 10).

Under role conflict, Table 10 revealed that star rating, employment status and marital status were significant predictors of employees' disagreement with role conflict as a job stressor. Specifically, a unit increase in star-rating explains a (29%) decrease in role conflict as a job stressor at a (99%) confidence level compared to 3-star hotel employees. The margin of increase suggests more 3-star hotel (M=2.674) employees disagreed with role conflict being a job stressor compared to 4-star hotel (M=2.536) employees, as indicated in Table 8. Thus, if the number of 4-star hotel employees increased, they might agree with role conflict as a job stressor. Similarly, an additional number of part-time employees accounts for a (49.3%) decrease in disagreement to role conflict as being a job stressor at a (95%) confidence level different from full-time employees. This means more full-time (M=2.489) employees disagreed with role conflict being a job stressor than their (M=1.982) part-time counterparts, as found in Table 9. Given the negative coefficient value, an increase in the number of part-time workers will mean that more are likely to agree to role conflict as a job stressor. Further, the results revealed that a unit increase in the number of married employees

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explains about a 24.2% increase in disagreement of role conflict as a job stressor. In confirming this, the T-test results revealed that more married (M=2.573) employees disagreed with role conflict as a job stressor compared to unmarried (M=2.378).

Evidence from Table 10 established marital status as a significant determinant of disagreement of poor peer relations as a job stressor at a (99%) confidence level. This was underscored by the fact that a unit increase in the number of married employees accounted for a (35.3%) increase in disagreement with poor peer relations as a job stressor. The margin of influence corroborates with the mean scores recorded in Table 8, where more married (M=2.343) employees indicated their disagreement with poor peer relations as a job stressor different from the unmarried (M=2.023). The current finding deviates from Ko's (2020) findings, which stated that marital status was not found to be a significant predictor of employees' experience of poor peer relations (interpersonal conflict).

Lastly, employees' religious affiliation also significantly predicted their perception of the strenuous working environment being a job stressor at a $p<0.05$. The negative coefficient indicates that a unit increase in Muslim employees accounts for a (58.8%) decrease in neither agreeing nor disagreeing about strenuous working conditions as a job stressor. This corresponds with the ANOVA results as more Christians (M=2.73) than Muslims (M=2.19) expressed neither agreeing nor disagreeing about the strenuous working environment being a job stressor.

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Chapter Summary

This chapter conducted an analysis of the demographic and occupational characteristics of the respondents and participants. It also addressed the factors that contribute to employment stress among employees of hotels with a rating of 3–5 stars in the Accra Metropolis. The ANOVA and T-test analyses yielded statistically significant differences in certain demographic and occupational characteristics, including income, hotel star rating, marital status and religion, and job stress and its dimensions. Additionally, the linear regression results indicated that employee job stress and its stressors could be influenced by demographic and work characteristics, including education, religion, gender, star rating, marital status, and department. Coping strategies for managing job tension among hotel employees of 3–5 star-rated hotels in the Accra Metropolis will be the primary focus of the subsequent chapter.

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CHAPTER SIX

COPING STRATEGIES FOR MANAGING JOB STRESS AMONG HOTEL EMPLOYEES

Introduction

Managing job stress is key to boosting employee productivity and the strategies for managing job stress vary from one employee to another. This chapter presents the findings related to coping strategies adopted by 3–5-star hotel employees. In addition, the effects of demographic and work characteristics on coping strategies are also presented in this chapter. Finally, interpretations of the findings are discussed based on existing literature on coping strategies.

Coping Strategies for Managing Job Stress

The second objective of this study was to examine job stress coping strategies adopted by 3-5 star-rated hotel employees in the Accra Metropolis. When experiencing job stress, people develop means of managing or coping with it. However various people perceive the stress phenomena in different ways. Stronger and more resilient people are better able to manage stress. When under stress, some people do well (Lazarus, 1990; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). On the other hand, people with less endurance strength may become paralyzed when confronted with stress (Darvishmotevali, Arasli & Kilic, 2017). Due to the labour-intensiveness of the subsector, efficient management practices are necessary to help hotel staff manage stress and maintain productivity. These practices must be based on thoroughly understanding employees' coping strategies (Huang et al., 2018).

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Accordingly, 15 items obtained in the course of the literature were used to measure employees coping strategies. The 15 items were disaggregated into three dimensions namely, avoidance-focused, emotion-focused and problem-focused. The first 5 items were used to measure problem-focused. The second 5 items also measured emotion-focused and the last 5 looked at avoidance-focused. A five-point Likert scale (1= "strongly disagree", and 5= "Strongly agree") was used and respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with each item. The results are presented in Table 11.

Generally, (65.45%, M=3.61) respondents coped with job stress through problem-focused, emotion-focused or avoidance-focused (Table 11). However, a disaggregation of the coping strategy adopted by the employees revealed that most of them (76.28%, M=3.90) agreed with problem-focused and avoidance-focused (61.54%, M=3.56) approaches. The following paragraphs detail the coping strategies adopted by 3-5 star-rated hotel employees in the Accra Metropolis.

With the problem-focused dimension, Table 11 displays that about (76%) of the respondents agreed that they do not always dwell perpetually on any job stressor or problem that comes their way. In other words, they always focus on addressing the root cause of the problem or distress. This was reflected in the responses to the individual items. For instance, 82.0% (M=4.01) of the respondents agreed that they take steps to eliminate any work-related problems that confronts them. Also, (82%, M=4.00) of the respondents think about dealing with work-related problems. While over two-thirds wait for the right time to act (71.10%, M=3.85) and solve the problem (70.10%, M=3.74), a greater proportion (75.90%, M=3.92) seek advice from others. This outcome means that employees take calculated steps to minimise or

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eliminate any problem (job stressors) that they are confronted with in their respective line of duties. Hu and Cheng (2010) noted how overt and direct action are used to seek solutions for hotel staff problems, which may contribute to reducing job stressors.

Table 11: Coping Strategies Adopted by Respondents (N=311)

Item	% of agreement	Mean	SD
Problem-focused			
I take steps to eliminate work-related problems.	82.00	4.01	0.80
I think about dealing with work-related problems.	82.30	4.00	0.86
I focus on work-related problems.	70.10	3.74	1.03
I wait for the right moment to act.	71.10	3.85	0.97
I seek advice from others.	75.90	3.92	0.92
Category score	*76.28*	*3.90*	*0.91*
Emotion-focused			
I reframe the stressor in positive terms.	66.90	3.72	0.89
I learn to accept work-related problems.	71.70	3.74	0.95
I refuse to believe work-related problems are real.	59.50	3.02	1.20
I use faith for support.	59.50	3.55	1.14
I seek sympathy from others.	35.10	2.81	1.27
Category score	*58.54*	*3.37*	*1.09*
Avoidance-focused			
I talk to others about work-related problems.	43.10	3.10	1.24
I give up trying to deal with work-related problems.	83.00	4.03	0.91
I distract myself from thinking about work-related problems.	49.50	3.28	1.12
I use alcohol or drugs to reduce stress.	85.50	4.24	1.20
I pay less attention to work-related problems.	46.60	3.13	1.28
Category score	*61.54*	*3.56*	*1.15*
Coping strategy	*65.45*	*3.61*	*1.05*

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = Strongly disagree; 1.50-2.49 = Disagree; 2.50-3.49 = Neither agreed nor disagreed; 3.50-4.49 = Agree; 4.50-5.0 = Strongly agree

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

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Using the qualitative data, the study further unpacked how employees negotiate their way out under any job stressor via the problem-focused strategy. It was found that respondents employed three coping strategies whenever they were faced with any issue, which was solely based on the individuals' efforts. The first involved taking personal initiative to address the issue. For instance, a participant noted that:

> "…, *Once there is any situation that is likely to go out of hand, I take steps to eliminate the problem especially if it is something that I have already informed my supervisors about and they seem not to have an immediate response to the problem. This helps me because then matters do not escalate beyond something I can't control".* (A12, a 28-year-old female receptionist at a 4-star hotel)

Another participant's perspective was about whether the action to be taken was approved by the hotel:

> "….. *So, most of the time, if I am faced with situations that involve supplies or equipment, I think about the problem and how it can cause further problems. After making the initial complaint to my supervisor, I prepare and act if taking appropriate action to resolve what I'm facing is in line with my duty and within my authority".* (A9, a 43-year-old room attendant of a 3-star hotel).

The second involves bringing in people to help with the situation. Deducing on the respondents' views, getting people to help reduces the effects of job stress. These are embedded in the following responses;

> *"…, when a lot of unexpected guests arrive without reservations, but there are few employees at the front desk, it creates some pressure*

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which leads to job stress. To be able to survive, I have to be smart, think fast get people who would come and help me''. (A11, a 40-year-old female Housekeeping Supervisor of a 5-star hotel).

Lastly, the employees plan ahead of time to avoid workload. Some participants opined that this helps them mitigate the effects of job stress. This can be found in the following quote;

"I do my roster with two weeks intervals. The roster that I am going to paste tomorrow starts on Monday and ends two weeks later. That means for the next couple of weeks, I have arranged my people, although there are unforeseen circumstances like someone calling in sick and at least making provisions for who will be at where and at what time. This helps to reduce job stress". (A4, a 43-year-old male Maintenance Manager of a 3-star hotel).

The above findings illustrate that employees resort to the problem-focused approach in coping with job stressors. Similar findings were arrived at by Wireko-Gyebi et al. (2017), Huang et al. (2018) and Kahar and Wee (2020), where a majority of hotel employees coped with job stress using the problem-focused strategy.

Unlike the problem-focused coping mechanism that seeks to solve any challenge or problem, the emotion-focused coping mechanism involves efforts to minimize or eliminate the symptoms of stress. It aims to reduce and manage the undesirable and disturbing feelings that accompany certain situations in one's line of duty by helping one recover (Shaiful, Kahar & Wee, 2020). As conveyed by the individual statements, employees adopt various emotion-focused coping strategies to negotiate their way out of stressors. According to

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Lazarus and Folkman (1984), the emotion-focused strategy is employed when the stressor cannot be changed or eliminated. This could explain why some employees of hotels adopted this strategy.

Also, with the emotion-focused dimension, about (59%) of the respondents agreed that they cope with job stressors by resorting to various emotional negotiation strategies. Specifically, two-thirds (66.90%, M=3.72) of the respondents reframe from stressors in positive terms. Over two-thirds (71.70%, M=3.74) learn to accept the job stressor, which spares them some emotional drain. Less than two-thirds (59.50, M=3.02) neither agreed nor disagreed if they always refused to acknowledge any job stressor's reality. While over half (59.50%, M=3.55) resorted to faith to cope with job stressors, only a few (35.10%, M=2.81) sought sympathy from others.

The study uncovered revealing strategies adopted by the respondents under the emotion-focused domain to cope with job stressors. It was found that some employees resort to the professional training given to them about the fact that the customer is always right. So, in instances where they meet difficult customers, they appear non-confrontational. Also, colleagues are brought in to help when a situation gets out of hand. Additionally, some participants disclosed that they often cry or express their frustrations. Thus, after crying or talking out, they often feel recovered. The last strategy included looking at the positive side of the stressor. Some participants revealed that anytime they are faced with difficult or demanding tasks, they look at the positive side of it, possibly what the hotel stands to benefit from, as captured in the following responses;

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> *''...., Some customers are very annoying, but then it is said the customer is always right. This causes some level of job stress. During such situations, I just hold my palms or do not talk. If you realised things are getting out of your hands, sometimes you call a colleague to step in. Sometimes I go and wash my face to freshen up.* (A3, a 42-year-old male guest relations manager of a 4-star Hotel).

Another narrative was about how shedding tears could bring some relief:

> "…, *I am not shy to say that I shed tears away from my colleagues during very stressful periods. Interestingly, I feel much better afterward".* (A14, a 51-year-old male F&B conference and banqueting supervisor in a 3-star hotel)

Another mentioned how a little ranting could do the trick for him:

> *"..., I have found a little ranting helpful in dealing with stressful situations. My subordinates and colleagues say I am fond of being emotional during times like that but I know it helps me to destress. That is my secret."* (A 2, a male F&B Supervisor in a 3-star hotel).

In all, motivating oneself is key to recovery, as the quote below implies:

> "…, *Work here can be extremely tedious and stressful, especially on occasions which require that we work overtime. In such situations, I tend to look at the brighter side of the work, which is eventually getting it done and satisfying our guests and the bosses here. For me, the more important thing is looking at the positive side of the situation at hand and making sure it doesn't put me under unnecessary stress".* (A13, a 34-year-old female waitress in a 3-star hotel)

The above responses show that employees rely on various emotion-focused strategies to cope with job stressors. Moreover, the findings concur

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with similar studies which were done in hotels. For instance, Wireko-Gyebi et al. (2017) and Kahar and Wee (2020) all reported that hotel workers employed emotion-focused strategies in coping with job stress.

Lastly, about (62%) of the respondents employed an avoidance-focused strategy as a coping mechanism for job stressors. The avoidance coping strategy refers to an individual's approach to consciously overlook the negative aspects of events and focus solely on positive aspects, thereby causing the underlying issues that trigger a stressful situation to diminish in awareness (Hu & Cheng, 2010). Accordingly, about (86%) (M=4.24) of the respondents reported using alcohol or drugs to evade the unpleasantness of stress. In addition, (83%) (M=4.03) of the respondents indicated they often give up trying to deal with the stressor. Some respondents (43.10%, M=3.10), however, neither agreed nor disagreed with respect to talking to others about the stressor, getting distracted in trying to think about the stressor (49.50%, M=3.28) and paying less attention to the stressor (46.60%, M=3.13).

The quantitative results were affirmed by the disclosures made in the interviews. The participants detailed alcohol intake, sharing challenges with colleagues and ignoring or giving up on the job stressor. These are embedded in the following responses;

> *"Sometimes, when we are stressed up, alcohol provides very much respite from all the stress. While I acknowledge that it doesn't make the stress go away necessarily, I like that brief moment it provides me to forget about the problem and its attendant stress."* (A2, a 53-year-old male F&B Supervisor of a 3-star hotel).

The responses below show how sharing their challenges work to relieve them:

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> "…., *I have found sharing challenges with my colleagues as an effective way of dealing with the stress that comes with them. It is said a problem shared is half-solved and that is why I do not hesitate to tell those around me about any work-related stress situations.* (A11, a 40-year-old female housekeeping supervisor of a 5-star hotel).

There is true diversity in how employees deal with their challenges, as shown below:

> "…, *Normally, on several attempts, I give up on trying to deal with the problem, because once I put in my best and it fails to solve the problem, then I just relax. As a light smoker, a stick of cigarette helps me with the distractions I need to forget about the problem for some time.* (A1, a 50-year-old male finance officer of a 4-star hotel).

Paying less attention to a challenge was mentioned as a coping strategy:

> *"…, one of my mantras, is what you pay attention to what stays; therefore, I pay less attention to the problem especially if it is beyond my capability or if I have put in my best, yet, the problem still lingers. Then, in my mind, I know I tried, so once I pay less attention to something that I have tried dealing with but could not succeed, I focus on the one I can solve rather than the ones that take me aback.* (A6, a 42-year-old male marketing manager of a 4-star hotel).

These responses reveal certain avoidance-focused strategies employed by hotel personnel in the Accra Metropolis who are rated 3-5 stars, which is consistent with the existing literature. Some hotel employees employed avoidance-focused strategies to manage job stress, according to Huang et al. (2018).

The mean score of each of the three dimensions indicates that the majority of respondents engage in problem-focused (76.28%) and avoidance-

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focused strategies to manage job stressors in hotels. Emotion-focused stress-coping strategies were the least frequently employed (58.54%). Problem-focused coping strategies are designed to directly address and resolve the source of the stressor, thereby reducing stress levels and fostering a sense of control. Avoidance coping is a method that entails avoiding the source of stress, which can provide immediate relief from stressors. Conversely, emotion-focused coping strategies involve the management and regulation of emotions in response to stress, which may not be adequate for addressing the underlying cause of stress. Employees may opt for problem-focused and avoidance coping strategies over emotion-focused ones based on their personal preferences, stress type, and prior experiences with various coping strategies. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) posited that a problem-focused strategy is primarily employed when the stressor is variable. As the majority of respondents reported that the stressors they are experiencing are seasonal or occasional, this explains the dominance of problem-focused thinking.

On average, the composite variable "coping strategy" indicated that approximately (65%) of the respondents were willing to implement any of the three strategies. All workers should learn how to handle stress at work since it can negatively impact their mental health and productivity. Hotel employees can enhance their job performance by implementing stress coping strategies to manage their stress levels and maintain their psychological well-being. They propose that a situation would be classified as stressful based on the individual's perception of it, linking this result to the Transactional Theory of Stress and Coping proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984). When a situation is perceived as stressful, the individual solely determines how to manage it. It is this that accounts for the discrepancy in the results across the dimensions. The theory posits that effective coping is achieved when the stressor that the

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individual is facing is compatible with the appropriate form of coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The Transactional Theory of Stress and Coping, which maintains that people use coping mechanisms according to their assessment of control over stressors, is consistent with the pattern of coping mechanisms found. Employees' strong preference for problem-focused coping indicates that they think personal action can alter or manage work-related pressures. The simultaneous use of avoidance and emotion-focused coping indicates situations where stressors are appraised as less controllable, prompting employees to regulate their emotions or disengage. This theoretical interpretation contextualises the coping styles observed and clarifies why different strategies coexist in the hotel work environment.

Differences in Coping Strategies across Employee's Demographics Characteristics

Inferring from literature, demographic characteristics influence the coping strategies adopted by hotel employees. On the basis of that, the study examined the differences in coping strategies across demographic and work characteristics using the ANOVA and T-test statistical tools. In conducting the analysis, the demographic characteristics were the independent variables and the dependent variables were the three coping strategies. The results are presented in Table 12.

Evidence from Table 12 shows that none of the demographic characteristics significantly differed in terms of coping strategies. However, there was a significant difference in the adoption of avoidance-focused coping strategies in relation to employees' monthly income.

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Table 12: Differences in Coping Strategies among Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Item	N	PF	EF	AF	CS
Sex					
Male	157	3.92	3.39	3.56	3.62
Female	154	3.89	3.35	3.56	3.6
t		-0.41	-0.42	0.02	-0.35
p-value		0.68	0.67	0.98	0.73
Dependent below 5					
Yes	130	3.94	3.41	3.52	3.62
No	181	3.88	3.34	3.59	3.6
t		-0.82	-0.93	0.93	-0.36
p-value		0.41	0.35	0.35	0.72
Religion					
Christian	298	3.9	3.36	3.55	3.6
Muslim	13	4	3.69	3.77	3.82
t		-0.57	-1.74	-1.2	-1.53
p-value		0.57	0.08	0.23	0.13
Marital status					
Unmarried	163	3.91	3.37	3.59	3.62
Married	148	3.9	3.37	3.52	3.6
t		0.15	0.12	0.86	0.48
p-value		0.88	0.9	0.39	0.63
Age					
≤29	111	3.86	3.35	3.52	3.58
30-39	137	3.91	3.39	3.64	3.65
≥40	63	3.9	3.38	3.45	3.6
F		0.63	0.11	2.13	0.6
p-value		0.54	0.9	0.12	0.55
Eta^2		0	0	0.01	0
Education					
SHS	92	3.88	3.39	3.47	3.58
Graduate	160	3.9	3.33	3.56	3.6
Postgraduate	34	4.06	3.46	3.79	3.77
Other	25	3.83	3.43	3.58	3.61
F		0.87	0.46	2.03	1.29
p-value		0.46	0.71	0.11	0.28
Eta^2		0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01
Income					
≤1000	94	3.82	3.36	3.44	3.54
1001-2000	140	3.92	3.36	3.58	3.62
2001-3000	51	3.95	3.39	3.75	3.71
≥3001	26	3.95	3.39	3.46	3.6
F		0.83	0.04	2.69	1.21

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p-value	0.48	0.99	0.04*	0.31
Eta^2	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.01

*=p<0.05; PF= Problem-focused; EF= Emotion-focused; AF= Avoidance-focused

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

In detail, the study found that there is a statistically significant difference (F=2.69, p=0.04, eta^2=0.03) in the adoption of avoidance-focused strategies across various income levels. Specifically, employees who earned between GHC2001-3000 (M=3.75) agreed to adopt the avoidance-focused strategy. Employees who earn between GHC1001-2000 came second (M=3.58) in the use of avoidance-focused strategy. The least income group to use avoidance-focused strategy were those who earn less than 1000gh (M=3.44). Hotel employees who earn more may use avoidance-focused coping strategies despite their higher income. Numerous factors, including high job demands, an unbalanced work-life schedule, a lack of control over work-related duties, and job discontent, may be to blame. Avoidance-focused coping mechanisms may be adopted as a result of these stressors, which can cause burnout. Additionally, high-earning employees may have higher expectations and feel a greater sense of responsibility, leading to increased stress and the use of avoidance coping. It must be pointed out that the margin of difference across the income groups was small, as shown by the eta square (0.03).

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Differences in Coping Strategies across Employees' Work Characteristics

Overall, the composite variable, coping strategies, established that employees differ significantly in adopting coping strategies based on their work experience (F=3.12, p=0.04, eta^2=0.02). Inspection of the mean scores shows that (M=3.54) respondents with less than 5 years of experience were the least to agree with employing coping strategies compared to employees (M=3.61) who had 6-10 years of working experience and those (M=3.70) with more than 11 years of experience. The plausible explanation is that employees with less than 5 years of work experience had a lower coping strategy than those with 6-10 years and 11+ years of working experience. This could be due to their limited working experience because those with six or more years would have devised means of coping with work-related stress. The effect size showed a small variation between employees' working experience across coping strategies. The finding reinforces the assertion of Huang (2014) that work experience influenced hotel employees' coping strategies for job stress.

Table 13: Differences in Coping Strategies among Work Characteristics

Item	N	PF	EF	AF	CS
Employment status					
Full-time	300	3.9	3.36	3.56	3.60
Part-time	11	4.16	3.75	3.49	3.80
t		-1.41	-1.86	0.35	-1.27
p-value		0.16	0.06	0.73	0.21
Department					
Food and Beverage	107	3.96	3.46	3.54	3.65
Front Office	87	3.86	3.31	3.58	3.58
Housekeeping	94	3.88	3.38	3.54	3.6
Other	23	3.92	3.16	3.67	3.58
F		0.54	1.61	0.31	0.4
p-value		0.66	0.19	0.82	0.76
Eta^2		0.01	0.02	0.00	0.00
Work experience (years)					
≤5	166	3.81	3.3	3.52	3.54
6-10	102	4.01	3.43	3.61	3.61

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≥11	43	4.00	3.51	3.59	3.70
F		3.86	2.08	0.62	3.12
p-value		0.02*	0.13	0.54	0.04*
Eta^2		0.02	0.01	0	0.02
Star-rating					
3-star	84	3.8	3.36	3.48	3.55
4-star	171	3.99	3.39	3.6	3.66
5-star	56	3.79	3.33	3.54	3.55
F		3.72	0.23	1.01	1.95
p-value		0.02*	0.8	0.36	0.14
Eta^2		0.02	0.00	0.01	0.01

*=p<0.05; PF= Problem-focused; EF= Emotion-focused; AF= Avoidance-focused

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

There was a statistically significant difference in the use of the problem-focused strategy in coping with job stressors among employees with different levels of work experience (F=3.86, p=0.02, eta^2=0.02). The mean scores revealed that (M=4.01) employees with 6-10 years of experience highly agreed to use problem-focused coping strategies. This was followed by employees with more than 11 years of experience (M = 4.00). In contrast, employees with less than five years of experience recorded the lowest mean score (M = 3.81) in the use of problem-focused coping strategies. Post hoc analysis revealed a statistically significant mean difference (MD = 0.20, p = 0.03) between employees with ≤5 years of work experience and those with 6–10 years of experience, indicating greater utilisation of problem-focused strategies among the latter group. This could mean that those with less than five years of working experience had low problem-focused coping techniques compared to their experienced counterparts. They may also not have enough experience in adopting problem-focused strategies. However, the margin of

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influence (2.4%) implies that work experience does not greatly determine the use of problem-focused strategies in coping with job stress. This corresponds with the finding of Wong and Huang (2014) that employees' working experience influences their coping strategy.

Star-rating was also significantly related to a problem-focused strategy ($F=3.72$, $p=0.03$, $eta^2=0.02$). Employees ($M=3.991$) in 4-star-rated hotels highly agreed to use problem-focused coping strategies as against those in 3-star-rated hotels ($M=3.80$) and 5-star-rated hotels ($M=3.79$). This could mean that 4-star rated hotels have spelt out systems in addressing challenges or difficulties that arise from employees' line of duty than the other categories of hotels. It could also be that 4-star-rated hotel employees were experienced and, as such, knew the measures to take to resolve certain job challenges. Furthermore, employees in 4-star-rated hotels may use problem-focused coping strategies to effectively manage their workload and meet customer expectations in a challenging environment with limited resources. However, there was a small (eta =0.02) magnitude of the differences in the means.

Although the research revealed a notable disparity between respondents' working experience and the star-rating of hotels concerning problem-focused strategy, there was no notable difference in respondents' sex, employees with dependents under five years, religion, marital status, level of education, department, income, and problem-focused strategy. This suggests that the problem-focused coping method chosen by respondents was statistically insignificant across the different factors. These results were comparable to those of Wireko-Gyebi et al. (2017). By contrast, Wireko-

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Gyebi et al. (2017) discovered a notable disparity between the degree of schooling and problem-focused coping technique.

No statistically significant difference across demographic and work characteristics regarding emotion-focused strategy existed. This could be because people have realised that taking certain issues personally or attaching emotions does not help resolve the situation. In terms of respondents' sex, employees with dependents below five years, religion, marital status, level of education, department, income and star rating were not significant. This implies that respondents' adoption of emotion-focused coping strategies in relation to these variables was relatively the same. Thus, employees' use of emotion-focused strategy did not vary significantly across the demographic and work characteristics. The absence of a statistically significant difference between demographic and work characteristics and emotion-focused coping strategies can be due to several reasons.

In one instance, the absence of substantial differences in emotion-focused coping strategies may be the consequence of examining respondents with homogeneous demographic and work characteristics. In addition, the type and severity of the job stressor may necessitate the implementation of distinct coping strategies, irrespective of the individual's demographic and occupational characteristics. Finally, while some individuals may employ distinct coping strategies, others may employ a combination of various coping strategies, which complicates the identification of a substantial correlation with a particular demographic and work characteristics. This supports the conclusions of Wireko-Gyebi et al. (2017), who asserted that there was no considerable distinction between emotion-focused coping strategy and

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demographic and work characteristics (including sex, age, marital status, level of education, religion, and department).

The study failed to identify any substantial disparities in the sex, religion, marital status, level of education, department, income, star rating, and coping strategies of respondents, as well as those with dependents under the age of five. This result is consistent with the results of Wireko-Gyebi et al. (2017). Additionally, they were unable to document any substantial contrast between the use of coping strategies among hotel employees and demographics such as age, marital status, gender, and religious background. This suggests that the adoption of coping strategies by respondents was comparatively consistent across the aforementioned variables.

Chapter Summary

The chapter concentrated on the coping strategies implemented by hotel employees in the Accra Metropolis who were rated 3-5 stars. Avoidance-focused strategies, buffering strategies, problem-focused strategies, and emotion-focused strategies were implemented. The ANOVA test results indicated a substantial distinction between the problem-focused, avoidance-focused, and coping strategies in terms of demographic and work characteristics, including income, working experience, and hotel star ratings. Conversely, the emotion-focused Strategy did not exhibit any substantial disparities in terms of demographic and occupational characteristics.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

EFFECTS OF JOB STRESS ON THE PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES

Introduction

This chapter explores the impact of job stress on the psychological well-being of employees in three- to five-star rated hotels within the Accra Metropolis. It also analyses the relationships between demographic factors, work-related characteristics, and psychological well-being. Finally, the chapter examines how specific job stressors influence employees' psychological well-being.

Psychological Well-Being

Psychological well-being (PWB) represents the holistic psychological condition of an individual, encompassing cognitive, emotional, and behavioural attributes and outcomes (Bar-On, 1988). Empirical scholarship has established that PWB is a multidimensional construct shaped by the dynamic interaction of emotional regulation processes, personality traits, identity formation, and life experiences (Macleod & Moore, 2000; Ryff, 1989; Helson & Srivastava, 2001). Evidence further indicates that stress and coping processes significantly influence psychological well-being, thereby justifying the examination of stress effects among hotel employees, whose work environments are widely recognised as highly demanding and stressful.

Accordingly, psychological well-being was measured among employees of three- to five-star rated hotels using the psychological well-being scale developed by Ryff (1989) and Ryff and Keyes (1995). The

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instrument comprised 18 items structured into six dimensions: self-acceptance, purpose in life, positive relationships with others, personal growth, environmental mastery, and autonomy. Each dimension was operationalised using three (3) items. Respondents were required to indicate their level of agreement with each statement on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). The results are presented in Table 14.

Table 14: Employees' Psychological Well-Being

Item	% of agreement	Mean	SD
Self-acceptance			
I like my personality.	92.20	4.44	0.82
I am pleased with how things have turned out so far in my life.	66.60	3.79	1.05
I am pleased with my achievements in life.	57.20	3.57	1.12
Category	*72.00*	*3.93*	*1.00*
Purpose in life			
I don't wander aimlessly through life.	77.20	4.00	1.00
I live life one day at a time.	73.60	3.93	1.05
I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life.	27.70	2.62	1.23
Category	*59.50*	*3.52*	*1.09*
Positive relations with others			
I am able to maintain close relationships with others.	74.00	3.91	1.00
People would describe me as giving, and willing to share my time with others.	75.30	3.99	0.93
I have experienced warm and trusting relationships with others.	76.50	3.97	0.89
Category	*75.27*	*3.96*	*0.94*
Personal growth			

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Life has been a continuous learning, changing, and growth process for me.	84.30	4.21	0.94
Having new experiences that challenge how I think about myself and the world is important.	86.10	4.22	0.88
I keep trying to improve or change my life a long time ago.	81.70	4.10	0.90
Category	*84.03*	*4.18*	*0.91*
Environmental mastery			
The demands of everyday life do not get me down.	77.10	3.99	0.95
I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.	73.30	3.89	0.99
I manage well the responsibilities of daily life.	82.60	4.10	0.76
Category	*77.67*	*3.99*	*0.90*
Autonomy			
People with strong opinions do not influence me.	70.50	3.89	1.03
I have confidence in my own opinions.	86.20	4.22	0.88
I judge myself by what I think is important.	83.60	4.15	0.88
Category	*80.10*	*4.09*	*0.93*
Psychological well-being	**74.76**	**3.94**	**0.96**

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = "Strongly disagree"; 1.50-2.49 = "Disagree"; 2.50-3.49 = "Neither agreed nor disagreed"; 3.50-4.49 = "Agree"; 4.50-5.0 = "Strongly agree"
Source: Fieldwork (2021)

Overall, the findings indicate that the majority of respondents exhibited relatively good psychological health (Table 14). Moreover, respondents demonstrated agreement across all six dimensions of psychological well-being. For example, within the self-acceptance dimension, the results show

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that 72% of respondents expressed agreement with statements reflecting self-acceptance. In other words, they recognised their identity as consistent with their occupation. In particular, the majority of respondents (92.20%, M=4.44) expressed satisfaction with their dispositions. Moreover, approximately (67%) (M=3.79) expressed satisfaction with the progress of their lives thus far, while (57.20%, M=3.57) expressed satisfaction with their circumstances. The responses suggest that hotel employees experience a sense of satisfaction from their work, which is indicative of their self-esteem and accomplishments. Although this implies a positive psychological state, it also contributes to productivity.

The qualitative data uncovered that employees derive their self-acceptance or satisfaction from varied streams of work-related activities. The participants disclosed that their ability to address difficult situations was counted as an achievement and it was often a delight. Some alluded to customer and employer appreciation of their outputs. If customers or their employers get to appreciate their work, they feel satisfied. Others referred to their ability to balance family and work life and the fact that they are able to earn a living from work. These were presented in the following responses;

> "*I'm always pleased with my achievements. You see, one of the things is that when you have a problem/challenge before you, you need to solve it before you can get on to do something else. It is always stressful, but when you are able to solve it, it is always a delight. That is an achievement, a personal achievement and you are happy about it.*" (A 14, a 51-year-old Food and Beverage Supervisor at a 3-star hotel)

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"Sometimes I feel I am not doing much, but since I am human, I have strengths and weaknesses. Sometimes you get stubborn guests who are not satisfied with everything that you do, that makes me angry and sometimes self-doubt" (A 13, a 34-year-old female waitress at a 3-star hotel).

"I am very happy. I believe I have been able to build a good CV for myself by the Grace of God. But when it comes to you being appreciated, it affects you negatively if you are not appreciated by your employers" (A6, a 42-year-old male marketing manager at a 4-star hotel).

".. I think being able to balance my life as a mother and my work gives me a sense that I am doing something right. It hasn't always been easy but I feel I have done the best I could and I am really happy about it. (A10, a 40-year-old female assistant housekeeper at a 5-star hotel).

".... Sometimes the demands of work turn out to be a bit more daunting, especially during residential conferences. But with time, I have found motivation in knowing that this job is what keeps me going and helps me take care of my needs and that of my family." (A6, a 42-year-old male guest relations manager at a 4-star hotel)

The above responses bring to bear the importance of self-acceptance in the general performance of the individual employee. The high percentage of agreement of self-acceptance from the respondents indicates that they have a positive attitude and improved satisfaction about their lives which is a fundamental component of psychological well-being (Goodman, Kashdan, Short & Jarden, 2016; Ryff, 2015). According to Ryff's model (1989) of

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psychological well-being, self-acceptance can be considered as the act of embracing and accepting all aspects of oneself, including one's strengths and weaknesses, thoughts, emotions and behaviours. In sum, self-acceptance involves recognizing and accepting one's limitations and embracing one's individuality and unique qualities.

Furthermore, (60%) of the respondents said they know their purpose in life and, by extension, that of their respective places of work (Table 12). In more detail, about 77% (M=4.00) of the respondents indicated they do not wander in life. Also, 74% (M=3.93) lived their lives simultaneously. Nonetheless, 28% (M=2.624) neither agreed nor disagreed if they sometimes feel they have done all there is to do in life. In support of the quantitative results, the following responses were provided. For instance, (A1), a 50-year-old male finance officer of a 4-star hotel, said that;

> *"You must have time for your family; you must have time for your personal development, you must have time for recreational activities. So, my job does not actually take much of my time. I'm ready to apportion my time.*

Additionally, (A4), a 43 -year-old male maintenance manager at a 3-star hotel, indicated that;

> *"……I have always loved the idea of working in the hospitality space and when I got the chance to work here, I was thrilled. But with the past years that I have moved up the ranks, I know there is nothing I'd rather do. I just love working here.*

Also, (A11), a 40 -year-old female housekeeping supervisor at a 5-star hotel, had this to say:

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> "…, o*bviously, my work here at the hotel gives me that sense of purpose. I have gone from not knowing exactly what I needed to do to being here. And for the past eleven years that I have been here, I have discovered that I Iove my work each day and that gives me the purpose for me to continue.*

Finally, (A2) a 53 -year-old male food and beverage supervisor at a 3-star hotel said this;

> "*It is not easy but we are managing, because the work can take all your time to the extent that if you don't force it will be difficult for you to do investment. Why am I saying this? Because you need time to do your sorting, what do I do for my children, what do I do for my family you are always on the job because you love your job that is what brings money to your pocket and you have other things to do. As I am talking to you, I have been cheated financially like three times to acquire a piece of land because you will not get the time to do some investigations about the land always because your time is wasted at the job and when you get time for family issues you have to go and resolve it.*"

Purpose in life considers the perceived significance of one's existence and involves setting and reaching goals (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). The above responses highlighted how employees had planned their time and the need to achieve set goals. In fact, the responses shed light on the fact that employees do not just work in the hotels but are passionate and driven, which denotes a sense of purpose. Furthermore, despite the time-demanding and daunting nature of their work, some employees were still able to create time for their

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families, which further underscores the point that they know their purpose in life.

Also, about (75%) of the respondents agreed to have a positive relationship with others. Additionally, 74% (M=3.91) were able to maintain close relationships with others. In addition, 75% (M=3.99) believed people would describe them as generous. Lastly, 77% (M=3.97) have experienced these results, it is worth the conclusion that most respondents have a positive relationship with others, which directly influences their psychological well-being. This is because people with positive or good relationships with others are happy (Ryff & Keyes, 1995).

Findings from the qualitative dimension of the study further elaborated on how and why the employees arrived at that positive relationship with others. In other words, how the work influences their relationship with others. Most participants asserted that the hospitality sector thrives on a good relationship with guests, which is why they have to establish good relations. Some added that the work environment fosters positive relationships. These claims are expressed below;

> "…., b*ecause hospitality thrives on good relations with guests and co-workers, there is no compromise here. I now have very cordial relationships with my colleagues and the guests who come here. I have learnt to do that by giving off a smile no matter what."* (A12, a 28 - year-old female receptionist at a 5-star hotel).
>
> "*This work environment fosters a lot of positive relationships and if there is one thing I have learnt, it's the ability to accommodate other people's views; although they may be different from mine. And this has*

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improved my people skills." (A13, a 34-year-old female waitress of a 3-star).

Even though the work environment did influence employees' positive relationships with others, there were contrasting views on how the nature of the work negatively affects employees' social relationships. Some interviewees claimed they were unable to relate with family members after work. Others added that they were unable to attend social functions like weddings, funerals and naming ceremonies due to their work, as captured in the following responses;

"Yes, when I am tired, I just don't want mother, wife and all those things I just want to rest. Sometimes instead of showing love or being patient with my children, everything irritates me, especially when I come from work and I scream unnecessarily. Unless I calm myself down and listen to some cool music and meditate before I come around.". (A9, a 43 -year-old female room attendant at a 3-star).

"Yes. I am mostly unable to attend the functions of my friends and they always like I am always working. My relatives come to the house and they don't get to see me. I don't get time for my kids, house chores and studies as well. So, I don't get time to socialize" (A13, a 34 -year-old female waitress at a 3-star hotel).

"...Sometimes, because of the nature of the work, you might not be able to be with your family when they need you" (A10, a 40 -year-old female assistant housekeeper of a 5-star hotel)

The results from both the survey and interviews of the study point to a reality that employees of 3-5-star-rated hotels have positive relations with

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others. However, this positive relationship was limited to the workplace as employees do not even go home for days due to work demands, especially when residential conferences last for about a week. This negatively affects their relations with their families. Ryff and Keyes (1995) assert that when people have a positive relationship with others, it aids in their development of trust, which makes them feel belonging to a network of communication and support.

In terms of personal growth assessment, 84% of the respondents reported that they had observed personal growth. This was demonstrated by the fact that 84% of the respondents (M=4.21) concurred that life has been a continuous process of learning, change, and development for them. Additionally, a comparable percentage of respondents (86.10%, M=4.22) emphasised the importance of acquiring novel experiences that challenge their perceptions of the world and themselves. Above all, a significant number of respondents (81.70%, M=4.10) are persistent in their efforts to enhance various aspects of their lives. It is sufficient to assert that employees of hotels with a rating of 3-5 stars undergo personal development in light of these findings.

The interviews further revealed how hospitality work impacts employees' personal growth. There were two opposing views to it. While working in hotels helps some employees to improve, it limits others from improving. With the latter, some interviewees disclosed that they had learnt a lot from working on the job. They claimed they learn new things daily on the job, as portrayed in the responses below.

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"Being able to draw linkages between all the things I was taught in class and what I am still learning on the job has been the biggest growth for me personally. If I hadn't sometimes put aside the classroom knowledge, trust me, there's no way I'd still be here." (A9, a 43 -year-old female room attendant at a 3-star hotel)

"…… If there is something that I am thankful for being here, it is the opportunity it gives me to learn something new each day. This has had a tremendous effect on the things I know and what I can do and I am glad I am able to bring it to bear in my work." (A1, a 50 -year-old male finance officer of a 4-star hotel).

On the contrary, some interviewees claimed that the industry is a difficult place to be and that it has not helped many hoteliers. Others added that working in the hotel affects their education which seeks to ensure their personal growth. These concerns are deep-rooted in the following responses;

"To be honest with you, hospitality is an area if you are not strong-minded, you cannot achieve anything. You only wait on your salary because it takes all your time from you, so you need to be a very multi-tasked person and focused on being able to make proper ends meet for yourself. For you to achieve goals in your life, you must sacrifice and it has not helped a lot of hoteliers. The pay is terrible, but self-control, dedication and focus are what you need. You need to define who you want to be after work. Those who are doing well are the ones who are focused. Personally, I think it is about how you define yourself and how you focus". (A5, a 54 -year-old male food and beverage manager at a 4-star hotel).

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"*It affects me in my education because sometimes, I have to submit assignments and my job too can be stressful at times and it weighs me. I am mostly in a hurry so I usually don't get enough time for research"* (A13, a 34 -year-old female waitress at a 3-star hotel).

Once employees feel their jobs or roles affect their personal growth, their psychological well-being will be threatened. In the long run, this affects the individual and the organisation in which he/she works. For instance, the study by Payne (2016) indicated that stress affects employees' emotions which trickles down to their PWB.

About (78%) of the respondents confirmed they had garnered mastery over their work environment, including their roles and responsibilities. In particular, 71.10% (M=3.99) indicated that the demands of everyday life do not weigh them down. Also, 73.30% (M=3.89) claimed they are in charge of situations in their lives. A greater proportion (82.60%, M=4.10) also claimed they manage the responsibilities of daily life well.

Given the above results, the qualitative data offered interesting revelations on how the employees have gained mastery of their work environment. The standout issues were that some of the work demands do not come extempore and as such, employees were able to plan ahead of time. Aside from exerting deep sacrifices to meet both job and family demands, some had support from their bosses in meeting working demands. These are captured in the responses;

"I am a finance officer and my job could be stressful. So, once you know it, you just psyche yourself up, it is not something that comes up all of a sudden and you don't know what to do. Fortunately, you are

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able to foresee and are able to put mechanisms in place to deal with the stress that comes along with the job demand." (A1, a 50 -year-old male finance officer at a 4-star hotel).

"As a working mother, the demands to care for my children have necessitated that I make certain sacrifices in order to still meet my responsibilities at work. Thankfully, I have very understanding bosses who have helped me through both demands. Over the years, I have learned to be in full control of any situation at home and at work and even at times when they clash, I find a way of dealing with it" (A11, a 40 -year-old female housekeeping supervisor of a 5-star hotel).

Lastly, with the autonomy dimension, about (80%) of the respondents had a clear sense of independence in their decision-making, actions and opinions. For instance, 71% (M=3.89) of the respondents said people with strong opinions do not influence them. On the other hand, a greater proportion (86.20%, M=4.22) had confidence in their own opinions. Also, about 84% (M=4.15) judged themselves by what they think is important.

The qualitative results painted an accurate picture of employees' understanding of autonomy. The interviewees made various disclosures about autonomy, as expressed below;

"*I am a very strong person when it comes to that. I consult just to seek people's opinions but I don't let them influence my decision. And although I love to learn and tap into other people's knowledge, nobody can convince me to make a decision I don't want to. I'm grateful to God that I have that strength".* (A5, a 54 -year-old male food and beverage manager at a 4-star hotel)

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*"I remember in my application for this work, I stated I could work independently and with little or no supervision. Having been here for the past seven years, that claim has been tested severally and with each test, I have come to learn how to take charge and be in control and I can confidently say I have come far in this regard." (*A7, a 37 -year-old male receptionist at a 4-star hotel)

"Honestly, it hasn't always been smooth trying to make my opinions heard but thanks to my supervisors, I have learned to trust the things I say and do and stand by them." (A12, a 28 -year-old female receptionist at a 4-star hotel).

"It's difficult not to get swayed by the opinions of those who have been working here for years and I came to meet. They seem to know everything, and initially, I was always nervous even speaking at meetings, but with time, I have come to appreciate the needfulness of speaking up and it has really helped me". (A8, a 34 -year-old male waiter at a 3-star hotel).

The psychological well-being of employees is clearly demonstrated, with approximately 74.8% of respondents indicating agreement across the dimensions of self-acceptance, positive relationships with others, purpose in life, personal growth, autonomy, and environmental mastery. This finding is consistent with the World Health Organization's conceptualisation of psychological well-being, which characterises it as a state in which individuals recognise their capabilities, engage in productive and meaningful work, effectively manage life's pressures, and contribute positively to their work environment (Ariza-Montes et al., 2019). This investigation has implemented

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these fundamental principles. It is important to mention that the psychological well-being of employees, especially hospitality employees is critical to both individuals and organisations (Wang et al., 2020). Kersemaekers et al. (2018) reckoned that employees with positive psychological well-being tend to exhibit positive attitudinal and behavioural tendencies, which ensure high performance and productivity. Therefore, given the nature of the current findings, it thus suggests that employees of 3-5-star rated hotels will exhibit the right attitude and behaviour that yield the benefits of the hotels.

These findings can be better understood through Ryff's Psychological Well-Being model, which conceptualises well-being across six dimensions. Considering the holist nature of this model, it offers a detailed understanding of the employees perspective of their well-being.

Differences in Employees' Psychological Well-Being across Demographics Characteristics

Since there is an established link between demographics characteristics and the psychological well-being of hotel employees, the study further examined the difference in the six dimensions of psychological well-being across the demographic characteristics using ANOVA and T-test. As a result, a composite variable of the six dimensions named psychological well-being was created. In the ANOVA and T-test, the demographic characteristics served as the independent variables, whereas the dependent variables were the six dimensions, including the composite variable. The results are presented in Table 15.

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Generally, the respondents demonstrated significant variations in psychological well-being (composite variable) based on only marital status and income levels at a (95%) confidence interval (Table 15). Regarding marital status, the unmarried reported greater (M=4.00) psychological well-being as against those who were married (M=3.88) at a p=0.04. The plausible explanation for these results could be the availability of discretionary time and income to the unmarried rather than the married to invest in themselves.

Additionally, respondents who earn GHC3001 or more were found to have a higher (M=4.14) psychological well-being compared to those who earn between GHC1001-2000 (M=3.97) and GHC2001-3000 (M=3.94). Respondents earning GHC1000 or less (M=3.83) had the least psychological well-being. The post hoc test revealed that there was a significant difference between those who earned less than or equal to GHC1000 and those who earned GHC3000 or more (MD=0.31, p=0.04). Given Cohen's (1988) general acceptance criteria, the eta^2 value of 0.03, which represents 3%, means that only a small margin of variance in psychological well-being can be explained by the independent variable (income levels). Even though the eta square value of 0.03 suggests income level has little impact on one's psychological well-being, the results thus associate income with psychological well-being as those with higher income reported higher psychological well-being.

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Table 15: Differences in PWB across Demographic Characteristics

Item	N	Self-acceptance	Purpose in life	Positive relations with others	Personal growth	Environmental mastery	Autonomy	PWB
Sex								
Male	157	3.88	3.45	3.98	4.18	3.99	4.05	3.92
Female	154	3.99	3.59	3.94	4.17	4.00	4.13	3.97
t		1.25	1.72	-0.54	-0.09	0.19	1.01	0.84
p-value		0.21	0.09	0.59	0.93	0.85	0.31	0.40
Dependent below 5								
Yes	130	3.82	3.57	3.96	4.16	3.95	4.11	3.93
No	181	4.02	3.48	3.96	4.19	4.02	4.07	3.96
t		2.23	-1.1	-0.02	0.36	0.97	-0.52	0.45
p-value		0.03*	0.27	0.98	0.72	0.33	0.6	0.66
Religion								
Christian	298	3.93	3.5	3.95	4.16	3.99	4.07	3.93
Muslim	13	4.08	3.92	4.26	4.41	4.08	4.39	4.19
t		-0.69	-1.98	-1.45	-1.14	-0.46	-1.48	-1.69
p-value		0.49	0.04*	0.15	0.26	0.65	0.14	0.09
Marital status								
Unmarried	163	3.98	3.54	3.98	4.26	4.10	4.16	4.00
Married	148	3.88	3.49	3.94	4.08	3.88	4.01	3.88
t		1.09	0.62	0.47	2.08	2.94	1.72	2.03
p-value		0.28	0.54	0.64	0.04*	0.00*	0.09	0.04*
Age								
≤29	111	3.89	3.4	3.88	4.18	4	4.09	3.91

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30-39	137	3.95	3.59	4.01	4.2	3.99	4.09	3.97
≥40	63	3.96	3.57	4	4.12	3.99	4.08	3.95
F		0.3	2.07	0.91	0.21	0.02	0	0.45
p-value		0.75	0.13	0.4	0.81	0.98	1	0.64
Eta^2		0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Education								
SHS	92	3.94	3.34	3.87	4.09	3.97	4.00	3.87
Graduate	160	3.89	3.56	4.02	4.19	4.01	4.10	3.96
Postgraduate	34	4.26	3.70	3.93	4.34	4.08	4.04	4.10
Other	25	3.72	3.71	3.95	4.17	3.84	4.04	3.90
F		2.73	3.11	0.75	0.94	0.68	1.4	1.71
p-value		0.04*	0.03*	0.52	0.42	0.57	0.24	0.16
Eta^2		0.03	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02
Income								
≤1000	94	3.81	3.4	3.88	4.02	3.91	3.95	3.83
1001-2000	140	3.91	3.58	4.01	4.21	4.03	4.09	3.97
2001-3000	51	4.01	3.46	3.97	4.19	3.99	4.24	3.94
≥3001	26	4.33	3.71	3.97	4.49	4.06	4.28	4.14
F		3.37	1.73	0.58	2.92	0.72	2.38	2.93
p-value		0.02*	0.16	0.63	0.03*	0.54	0.07	0.03*
Eta^2		0.03	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.03

PWB= Psychological Well-Being; Significant difference exists at *=$p<0.05$, Eta^2 = 0.01= small effect; 0.06 = moderate effect and 0.14+ = large effect.

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

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Regarding self-acceptance, the results revealed a statistically significant difference between employees with dependents below 5 years and those with no dependents below five years (F=4.99, p=0.03). Inspection of the mean scores revealed that employees with no dependents below 5 years had higher (M=4.02) self-acceptance than those with dependents below 5 years (M=3.82). Although the margin of variation may be small, respondents with dependants below five years may experience low self-acceptance because having young children can be demanding and challenging, resulting in impacting one's level of self-acceptance. Raising young children requires a significant amount of time, energy and patience. This can lead to feelings of stress, exhaustion and self-doubt. On the other hand, individuals without young children may have more free time and resources for self-care and personal growth, which can contribute to a higher level of self-acceptance.

Additionally, there was a statistically significant difference in self-acceptance among respondents based on their levels of education (F=2.73, p=0.04, eta^2=0.03). A close check of the mean values discovered that respondents with postgraduate education (M=4.26) had higher mean scores of self-acceptances compared to SHS (M=3.94), first degree holders (M=3.89) and others (M=3.72). The post hoc test showed that there is a statistically significant difference between respondents with postgraduate education and those with "Other" educational status (MD=0.53, p=0.04). Deductively, this means that employees with higher education have higher self-acceptance than their counterparts with lower educational status. This result may be explained by the fact that higher education may provide individuals with greater opportunities for personal and professional growth, which can positively

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impact one's level of self-acceptance. Furthermore, attaining the postgraduate level of education can also increase one's knowledge and understanding of oneself and the world, leading to greater self-awareness and personal insight. Additionally, higher education may provide individuals with greater financial stability and a sense of achievement, which can contribute to a higher level of self-acceptance. Nevertheless, the estimated eta^2 value (0.03) suggests that the impact of education on self-acceptance was minimal in the current study.

Lastly, under the self-acceptance dimension, respondents vary in their self-acceptance based on their income levels ($F=3.37$, $p=0.02$, $eta^2=0.03$). Respondents earning GHC3001 and above had the highest mean score ($M=4.33$) compared to those with income of GHC1000 and below ($M=3.81$), GHC1001-2000 ($M=3.91$) and GHC2001-3000 ($M=4.01$). The post hoc test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between respondents who earned income of GHC1000 and below and those who earned more than GHC3000 ($MD=0.53$, $p=0.01$). This means those who earned GHC3001 and above had higher self-acceptance than the rest of the income groups. This finding could mean that financial stability and security can have a direct impact on one's level of self-acceptance. A higher income can provide individuals with greater financial security, reducing feelings of stress and worry and contributing to a higher level of self-acceptance. On the other hand, those with a lower income may face financial insecurity and struggle to make ends meet, leading to stress, frustration, and self-doubt. Financial stress can detract from one's overall well-being and self-acceptance in these situations.

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With respect to the purpose of life, a statistically significant difference was observed between Christians and Muslims (F=3.92, p=0.04). The mean scores suggested that Muslims (M=3.92) had a better sense of purpose in life compared to their Christian (M=3.50) counterparts. Religious beliefs and practices can affect an individual's sense of purpose in life. For some individuals, religious beliefs and practices can provide a strong sense of direction, meaning, and connection to a higher power, contributing to a higher sense of purpose in life. Although it was found that Muslims had the greatest sense of purpose in life, meaning the purpose of life can vary greatly based on the individual's level of religious observance, interpretation of their religion, and other personal factors.

The respondents also significantly varied in their purpose in life based on educational levels (F=3.11, p=0.03, eta^2=0.03). Judging from the mean scores, respondents with other educational levels, such as certificate holders, had the greatest sense of purpose (M=3.71). They were followed by postgraduates (M=3.70) and undergraduates (M=3.56). Respondents with secondary education had a less sense of purpose (M=3.34). Respondents with other levels of education, such as certificates, may find a sense of purpose in life due to their specialized skills and expertise. On the other hand, an individual with postgraduate, graduate and SHS levels of education may find their sense of purpose in life in other areas, such as family, community or personal interests. However, an eta square value of 0.03 downplays the effects of educational level on an employee's purpose in life.

Table 15 revealed there was a significant variation in personal growth between unmarried employees and those who were married (F=4.08, p=0.04).

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Unmarried employees (M=4.26) reported having higher personal growth than those married (M=4.08). This finding could be attributed to two factors. First, the unmarried may have free time compared to the married to undertake activities or programmes to improve themselves. Secondly, they may also have discretionary income to invest in improving themselves, unlike those who may be saddled with children and family demands.

Additionally, respondents varied significantly in their personal growth based on income levels (F=2.92, p=0.03, eta^2=0.03). Respondents (M=4.49) who earned around GHC3001 or higher had significant personal growth. They were followed by those who earned between GHC2001-3000 (M=4.21) and GHC1001-2000 (M=4.19), respectively. Those who earned GHC1000 and below (M=4.02) had the least personal growth. Evidence from the post hoc test showed that there is a statistically significant difference between those who earned GHC1000 and below and those who earned GHC3001 or higher (MD=0.47, p=0.03). The finding associates high income with higher personal growth since those with higher income had significant personal growth.

With environmental mastery, the respondents significantly differed across only marital status at a (95%) confidence level. In terms of marital status, unmarried respondents had higher (M=4.26) mastery of the working environment than those who were married (M=4.08). Thus, the margin of difference between the two categories was small. Environmental mastery refers to an individual's perception of control and influence over their physical and social environment. Unmarried individuals may feel a strong sense of control and mastery over their environment due to their independence. On the other hand, married people may have relatively low mastery of their

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environment since they may feel that their marriages have limited their freedom and control.

Differences in Employees' Psychological Well-Being across Work Characteristics

In addition to investigating the impact of demographic characteristics on psychological well-being, an additional test was conducted using ANOVA and T-test to investigate the variation in psychological well-being across work characteristics. The composite variable, psychological well-being, and employees' hotel star-rating were statistically significantly different, as evidenced by Table 16. It was discovered that individuals employed in 4-star rated (M=4.03) hotels exhibited a higher level of psychological well-being than those employed in 5-star (M=3.90) and 3-star rated (M=3.81) hotels. Furthermore, the post hoc test demonstrated a substantial disparity between individuals employed in 4-star rated hotels and those employed in 3-star rated hotels (MD=0.22, p=0.01).

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Table 16: Differences in PWB across Work Characteristics

Item	N	Self-acceptance	Purpose in life	Positive relations with others	Personal growth	Environmental mastery	Autonomy	PWB
Employment status								
Full-time	300	3.93	3.52	3.97	4.17	3.99	4.08	3.94
Part-time	11	4.03	3.49	3.73	4.33	4.06	4.30	3.99
t		-0.427	0.15	1.05	-0.70	-0.34	-0.99	-0.29
p-value		0.67	0.88	0.30	0.48	0.73	0.33	0.77
Department								
Food and Beverage	107	3.97	3.57	3.94	4.1	4	4.02	3.94
Front Office	87	3.82	3.46	3.92	4.08	3.96	4.1	3.89
Housekeeping	94	3.89	3.48	3.98	4.27	3.95	4.12	3.95
Other	23	4.33	3.67	4.13	4.49	4.25	4.23	4.18
F		2.89	0.77	0.54	2.59	1.3	0.66	1.9
p-value		0.04*	0.51	0.67	0.05	0.27	0.58	0.13
Eta^2		0.03	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01
Work experience (years)								
≤5	166	3.86	3.44	3.89	4.14	3.96	4.01	3.88
6-10	102	4.04	3.61	4.08	4.21	4.06	4.14	4.02
≥11	43	3.97	3.59	3.95	4.23	3.95	4.27	4.00
F		1.72	1.88	2	0.41	0.74	2.61	2.44

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p-value		0.18	0.16	0.14	0.66	0.48	0.08	0.09
Eta^2		0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.02
Star-rating								
3-star	84	3.85	3.44	3.79	4.02	3.85	3.91	3.81
4-star	171	3.95	3.61	4.09	4.26	4.09	4.17	4.03
5-star	56	4.01	3.36	3.83	4.13	3.91	4.12	3.90
F		0.84	2.97	5.66	2.93	4.35	3.61	5.26
p-value		0.43	0.05	0.01*	0.06	0.01*	0.03*	0.01*
Eta^2		0.01	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.03

PWB= Psychological Well-Being; Significant difference exists at *=p<0.05, Eta^2 = 0.01= small effect; 0.06 = moderate effect and 0.14+ = large effect.

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

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Further, a statistically significant variation in self-acceptance was established among respondents of the different departments (F=2.89, p=0.04, eta^2=0.03). Those who work in other departments, such as accounts, Information Technology (IT) and human resource, recorded the highest (M=4.33) self-acceptance, followed by F&B (M=3.97), Housekeeping (M=3.89) and Front office (M=3.82). Results from the Tukey post hoc test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between respondents who worked in the Front Office and those who worked in the "Other" department (MD=0.52, p=0.02). From this finding, it can be explained that certain job roles may offer different levels of challenge and fulfilment, which can impact one's self-acceptance. For example, positions in other departments, such as IT, human resources and accounts, may require a high degree of technical proficiency, problem-solving skills and attention to detail, which can lead to a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction. On the other hand, positions in the front office, food and beverage, and housekeeping may involve interacting with customers, performing physically demanding tasks and working in a fast-paced environment, which can lead to feelings of stress and, if possible, burnout. However, the eta^2 value (0.03) shows that the difference margin was small.

Under positive relations with others, the employees only significantly varied based on the star rating of their hotels (F=5.66, p=0.01, eta^2=0.04). In other words, employees' relationships with others differed based on hotel ratings. Though the margin of difference was small (4%), employees from 4-star hotels were found to have greater (M=4.09) positive relationships with others than those from 5-star (M=3.83) and 3-star (M=3.79) hotels. The post

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hoc test showed that there was a significant difference between respondents who worked in 4-star rated and 3-star rated hotels (MD=0.30, p=0.01). Positive relationships with others can be influenced by a multitude of factors, including but not limited to the work environment, personality, communication skills and personal circumstances. Notwithstanding, certain work environments can impact the quality of relationships with others. For example, hotels with higher levels of service and amenities, such as 4-star may attract a more upscale clientele, create a more pleasant work environment and foster positive relationships among employees. Additionally, the resources available to employees in higher-end hotels, such as training programs and support systems, may contribute to a more positive work environment and stronger relationships with co-workers'.

Also, it was found that respondents who work in 4-star-rated hotels had a greater (M=4.09) mastery of the environment compared to those who work in 3-star-rated (M=3.85) and 5-star-rated (M=3.91) hotels. The post hoc test showed that there was a significant difference between respondents who worked in 4-star rated and 3-star rated hotels (MD=0.25, p=0.02). However, the estimated eta square value of 0.03 portrays a small margin of influence of a hotel star-rating on a respondent's mastery of the work environment. Although the margin is small, a hotel's star-rating can impact an individual's sense of control and influence over their environment. However, this can vary greatly based on the individual's experiences and circumstances. For example, employees in 4-star hotels may feel a strong sense of control and mastery over their environment due to the resources and opportunities available in their

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workplace, while such as those in 3-star-rated hotels may feel limited by the demands, resources and expectations of their job.

With autonomy, Table 16 revealed there was a statistically significant difference in employees' sense of independence based on the star-ratings of hotels. ($F=3.61$, $p=0.03$, $eta^2=0.02$). Observation of the mean scores indicates that employees in 4-star-rated hotels have higher ($M=4.17$) autonomy than employees in 5-star-rated hotels ($M=4.12$) and 3-star-rated hotels ($M=3.91$). The post hoc test revealed that there was a significant difference between respondents who worked in 4-star rated and 3-star rated hotels ($MD=0.0.26$, $p=0.02$). The star-rating of a hotel can impact an individual's autonomy, but this can vary greatly based on the individual's role, responsibilities, and experiences. For example, employees in 4-star-rated hotels may have more opportunities for decision-making and independent work due to the smaller size and more personal nature of the hotel, while employees in larger, 5-star-rated hotels may have more defined roles and be subject to more strict policies and procedures. Similarly, employees in 3-star-rated hotels may have a more relaxed, informal work environment that allows for greater autonomy but may also lack the resources and support necessary to carry out their responsibilities effectively. Nevertheless, an effect size of 0.02 denoted a thin difference in autonomy among employees of the different categories of hotels.

Job Stressors Predicting Employees' Psychological Well-Being

This section of the chapter assessed the predictive effects of job stressors on employees' psychological well-being and its disaggregated dimensions, purpose in life, personal growth, self-acceptance, positive

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relationships with others, autonomy, and environmental mastery, using linear regression analysis. The results are presented in Table 17. The R^2 values indicate the proportion of variance in each dependent variable explained by the independent variables. Specifically, the R^2 values for self-acceptance, purpose in life, positive relationships with others, personal growth, environmental mastery, autonomy, and overall psychological well-being were 0.24, 0.13, 0.25, 0.19, 0.25, 0.18, and 0.37, respectively, reflecting substantive explanatory relationships between the job stressors and the outcome variables.

Table 17 revealed that two job stressors predict hotel employees' self-acceptance at a (99%) confidence level. They included role ambiguity and strenuous working conditions. The results show that a unit increase in role ambiguity accounts for a (35%) increase in employees' self-acceptance. They imply that employees who survive increasingly complex work demands tend to be more self-acceptable. Also, a unit increase in strenuous working conditions explains a (19%) change in employees' self-acceptance. Thus, employees who withstand exertions tend to experience improved self-acceptance. Generally, there was a positive relationship between role ambiguity, strenuous working conditions and employees' self-acceptance. Although poor peer relations were not statistically significant, it is worth mentioning since they established a negative relationship with self-acceptance. Thus, a unit increase in poor relations accounts for a (4.3%) decrease in employees' self-acceptance. In other words, employees have low self-acceptance when they increasingly fail to establish relationships.

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Table 17: Predictors of Employees' Psychological Well-Being among Employees of 3-5 Star-Rated Hotels in AMA

Variable	SA Coef. (Std. Err.)	PIL Coef. (Std. Err.)	PRWO Coef. (Std. Err.)	PG Coef. (Std. Err.)	EM Coef. (Std. Err.)	AT Coef. (Std. Err.)	PWB Coef. (Std. Err.)
Role overload	0.01 (-0.08)	0.04 (0.078)	0.14 (-0.07)	0.11 (-0.08)	0.07 (-0.31)	0.04 (-0.08)	0.07 (-0.05)
Role ambiguity	0.35 (0.07)**	0.17 (0.07)*	0.24 (0.07)**	0.29 (0.07)**	0.12 (0.06)**	0.28 (0.07)**	0.27 (0.05)**
Role conflict	0.06 (-0.07)	0.07 (0.07)	0.17 (0.07)*	0.04 -0.07	0.12 (0.06)*	0.037 (0.07)	0.08 (-0.04)
Poor peer relations	-0.04 (-0.07)	0.03 (0.07)	0.08 (0.07)	0.116 (0.07)	0.06 (-0.06)	0.15 (-0.07)	0.07 (-0.04)
Strenuous working conditions	0.19 (0.06)**	0.15 (0.06)*	0.03 (-0.06)	-0.03 (0.06)	0.001 (0.05)	-0.05 (-0.06)	0.05 (0.04)
N	311.00	311.00	311.00	311.00	311.00	311.00	311.00
R2	0.24	0.13	0.22	0.15	0.24	0.16	0.34
AIC	655.55	675.08	641.90	674.54	563.98	652.41	371.80
BIC	677.99	697.52	664.34	696.98	586.42	674.85	394.24

Exponentiated coefficients *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

SA= Self-acceptance, PIL= Purpose in life, PRWO= Positive relations with others, PG= Personal growth, EM= Environmental mastery, AT= Autonomy and PWB= Psychological well-being

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

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The study further identified role ambiguity and strenuous working conditions as significant predictors of employees' purpose in life at the 95% confidence level. As shown in Table 17, a one-unit increase in role ambiguity was associated with a 17% increase in employees' sense of purpose in life, while a one-unit increase in strenuous working conditions corresponded to an approximate 15% increase in purpose in life. These findings suggest that, when effectively managed, increasing levels of role ambiguity and strenuous work demands may contribute to a stronger sense of purpose among employees.

Additionally, two stressors, role ambiguity and role conflict, were found to be positive predictors of employees' positive relationships with others. The results indicate that a one-unit increase in role ambiguity explains a 24% increase in positive relationships with others at the 99% confidence level, while a one-unit increase in role conflict accounts for a 17% increase at the 95% confidence level. Qualitative evidence from the interviews further revealed that employees frequently relied on friends and colleagues for support when confronted with role ambiguity and role conflict, highlighting the role of social support as a coping mechanism. Therefore, such frequent consultation may have fostered employee relationships with others, which partly affirms the regression results.

Additionally, only one stressor, role ambiguity, was found to predict personal growth (Table 17) positively. Thus, a unit increase in role ambiguity causes about a 29% increase in employees' personal growth at a 99% confidence level. This is possible as employees subscribe to new programmes and events to acquire new knowledge to deal with constantly emerging job

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complexities at the workplace. However, it was found that strenuous working conditions negatively predict employees' personal growth. This was not statistically significant but worth mentioning since strenuous working conditions may make employees exhausted and unable to make time to acquire more knowledge about their jobs.

Furthermore, Table 17 indicates that role ambiguity and role conflict exert statistically significant effects on employees' environmental mastery. Specifically, a one-unit increase in role ambiguity is associated with a 12% increase in environmental mastery at the 99% confidence level. Similarly, a one-unit increase in role conflict results in a 12% increase in employees' environmental mastery, also at the 99% confidence level.

The results (Table 17) only found role ambiguity as a positive predictor of employees' autonomy. A unit increase in role ambiguity explains a 28% increase in employees' autonomy at a 99% confidence level. However, strenuous working conditions were not statistically significant and negatively impacted employee autonomy. This result confirms the findings of studies by Ariza-Montes et al. (2019) and Wong and Chan (2020), which found that stressful work environments had a detrimental impact on hotel staff members' psychological health.

Overall, the results indicate that role ambiguity is a significant positive predictor of employees' psychological well-being. Specifically, a one-unit increase in role ambiguity corresponds to a 27% improvement in employees' psychological well-being at the 99% confidence level.

In general, this chapter focused on empirically testing the effects of job stressors on the psychological well-being of employees in three- to five-star rated hotels within the Accra Metropolis.

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The findings demonstrate that job stressors, particularly role ambiguity, strenuous working conditions, and role conflict, serve as positive determinants of respondents' psychological well-being. This outcome is consistent with the findings of Ariza-Montes et al. (2018), who reported a direct and positive relationship between job stressors and the psychological well-being of hotel employees. However, these results contradict other empirical evidence. For example, Wong and Chan (2020) reported that poor working conditions, peer relationships, and role ambiguity negatively affect hotel employees' psychological well-being. Conversely, other studies have found that poor peer relations do not exert a significant effect on respondents' psychological well-being.

Linking the findings to the theories of transactional theory of stress and coping and Ryff's PWB model, it can be explained that stressors such as role ambiguity and strenuous working conditions directly undermine employee's environmental mastery. This occurs by diminishing employees' sense of control over work demands. Similarly, role conflict can undermine autonomy and purpose by creating contradictory expectations. Thus, applying Ryff's model explains why these stressors significantly predicted psychological well-being, where their presence disrupts core psychological needs essential for personal growth and functioning.

Chapter Summary

This chapter examined the psychological well-being of employees. It was found that respondents agreed to be psychologically well. The ANOVA and T-test results showed that demographic and work characteristics such as employees without dependents below 5 years, level of education, departmental status, income levels, star rating, religion and marital status had significant

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differences in psychological well-being and its six dimensions. In addition, the linear regression model depicted that some job stressors, such as role ambiguity, strenuous working conditions and role conflict, significantly predicted psychological well-being and its six dimensions.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

EFFECTS OF JOB STRESS ON JOB PERFORMANCE OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES

Introduction

This chapter examines the job performance of employees of 3-5-star-rated hotels in the Accra Metropolis. The major issues covered include examining the difference in job performance by demographic and work characteristics of the employees. Finally, the chapter examines the effect of job stress on employee performance.

Job Performance

A company's objectives are contingent upon employee performance (Aryanta et al., 2019). In recent years, the study of employee job performance has become increasingly essential, particularly in the hospitality industry, as employees are confronted with a multitude of distractions in their work (Nam & Park, 2019). Average employee performance can have a detrimental impact on hotel revenue and repeat visits due to the direct interaction between employees and consumers during the service delivery process.

In order to evaluate employees' job performance, the investigation implemented the Job Performance scale developed by Koopmans et al. (2011). The scale consisted of 22 items that were categorised into four dimensions: adaptive, contextual, counterproductive, and task performance. The first five items assessed task performance, the second eight items assessed contextual performance, the subsequent five items investigated counterproductive performance, and the final four items examined adaptive performance. These items were evaluated on a five-point Likert scale, with 1 representing firmly disagree and 5 representing strongly agree. Respondents were requested to

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specify the degree to which they concurred or disagreed with each item. Table 18 illustrates the findings. The reliability and convergence of the items employed resulted in the generation of composite variables for the four dimensions of job performance (Koopmans et al., 2016).

Table 18: Job Performance of Employees of 3-5 Star-Rated Hotels

Item	% of agreement	Mean	SD
Task performance			
I manage to get my work done on time.	91.30	4.27	0.78
My planning is optimal.	81.30	4.03	0.80
I keep in mind the results I must achieve in my work.	90.30	4.25	0.76
I am able to separate main issues from side issues at work.	86.80	4.18	0.82
I am able to perform my work well with minimal effort.	73.70	3.84	1.04
Category	84.68	4.11	0.84
Contextual performance			
I have taken on extra responsibilities.	75.30	3.95	1.04
I start new tasks myself when my old ones are finished.	74.30	3.86	0.96
I take on challenging work tasks when available.	79.70	4.02	0.93
I work at keeping my job knowledge up-to-date.	88.70	4.19	0.76
I work at keeping my job skills up-to-date.	88.10	4.22	0.76
I come up with creative solutions to new problems.	80.00	3.97	0.88
I keep looking for new challenges in my job.	72.00	3.85	0.98
I actively participate in work meetings.	69.10	3.80	1.01
Category	78.40	3.98	0.92
Counterproductive performance			

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I complain about unimportant matters at work.	46.60	3.21	1.19
I make problems greater than they are at work.	16.10	2.23	1.17
I focus on the negative aspects of a work situation instead of the positive ones.	19.60	2.23	1.24
I speak with my colleagues about the negative aspects of my work.	33.70	2.77	1.26
I speak with people from outside the organization about the negative aspects of my work.	23.80	2.27	1.31
Category	27.96	2.54	1.23
Adaptive performance			
I demonstrate physical adaptability whenever there are changes.	70.40	3.80	0.97
I show cultural adaptability at work.	87.40	3.80	0.84
I maintain an adaptive interpersonal relationship with my colleagues.	85.20	4.12	0.83
I master tasks, technical tools and work procedures.	82.30	4.07	0.83
Category	81.33	3.95	0.87
Job performance	*68.09*	*3.65*	*0.96*

Scale: 1.0-1.49 = "Strongly disagree"; 1.50-2.49 = "Disagree"; 2.50-3.49 = "Neither agree nor disagree"; 3.50-4.49 = "Agree"; 4.50-5.0 = "Strongly agree"

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

Regarding task performance, about 85% (M=4.11) of the respondents carry out their mandatory duties as expected. Specifically, most (91.30%, M=4.27) of the respondents manage to get their work done on time. Also, 90% (M=4.25) of the respondents remember the expected results each day at work. Furthermore, about 89% (M=4.18) are able to separate main issues from side issues while at work. Also, 81.30% (M=4.03) plan optimally and about 74%

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(M=3.84) can perform their work well with minimal effort. These results imply that employees of 3-5-star rated hotels undertake their core duties very well in terms of task performance.

Evidence from the in-depth interviews suggests that the employees knew what was expected of them and carried out those duties accordingly. Some moved to the extent of keeping themselves up-to-date with all happenings in the hotel. By that, they were able to deliver on their duties. One major condition that facilitated employees' ability to execute their responsibilities well was the fact that their tasks were clearly spelt-out. As such, employees do not find it difficult to go about their duties. These issues are embedded in the following responses;

> *"My job description includes attending to enquiries from guests, welcoming them and facilitating their check-in as a front office person. What really helps me to perform well on the job is staying up-to-date with activities in the various department which equips me with the necessary information I need for all the enquiries that come through"* (A7, a 37-year-old male receptionist of a 4-star hotel)
>
> *"..., what is expected of me at work always is clear; therefore, I know the goals and objectives that I am supposed to achieve at the end of the day. My performance is significant and is in line with the job requirements because my work commences at the point of check-in until a guest checks out."* (A10, a 40-year-old female assistant housekeeper at a 5-star hotel)
>
> "*Keeping a list of things and aligning priorities to them is a very important part of my work. Knowing what issues are directly related to*

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my work and how to attend to them also helps with my meeting my responsibilities. This is because, at any point in time, I know what to attend to, even though there will be a series of activities to undertake. This helps me to get my work done with minimal effort" (A6, a 42-year-old male Marketing Manager at a 4-star)

The above responses prove that employees of 3-5-star-rated hotels knew their duties and did execute them thoroughly. The dimension percentage score of 84.6% means that, in terms of task performance, the majority of the employees were up and doing. The findings from both the survey and interviews support the findings of Koopmans et al. (2014), who found that task performance accounted for a higher percentage of employees' job performance compared to the other dimensions.

With contextual performance, 78% (M=3.98) of the respondents indicated they engaged in behaviours or activities that were not part of their core duties but significantly impacted the organisation's social and psychological contexts. This is suggestive of citizen behaviour. This was manifested in the fact that 75.30% (M=3.95) of the respondents took on extra responsibilities. Also, about 75% (M=3.86) start new tasks of their own volition when the old ones are finished. It was revealed that 79.70% (M=4.02) of the respondents took on challenging tasks when available. Additionally, 89% (M=4.19) of respondents work at keeping their job knowledge and job skills (88.10%, M=4.22) up-to-date, respectively. While 80% (M=3.97) come up with innovative ideas for new problems, 72% (M=3.85) continually search for new challenges and 69% (M=3.80) reported always actively participating in work meetings.

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It is obvious from the above results that employees of 3–5 star hotels go the extra mile to discharge their duties. Thus, employees perform extra tasks, including their regularly assigned tasks. This suggests there is self-sacrifice among the employees in discharging their duties. According to Shin and Shin (2022), self-sacrifice is an important trait that contributes positively to employees' job performance.

To add depth to the quantitative findings, the employees made various disclosures through the interviews, which showed that they go beyond their core mandates or engage in behaviours that have additional benefits to the hotels. The revelations also show they understand contextual performance in the context of their duties and the organization. These are captured in the ensuing responses.

> "*My biggest strength I have is being initiative. I have been taking a lot of initiatives even outside of my regular job description*" (A5, a 54-year-old male Food and Beverage Manager at a 4-star hotel).
>
> *"I understand the full extent of my work and I am able to find creative and innovative ways to solve new problems within the scope of my work. This gives me some level of flexibility in my line of work as it helps me to grow on the job by taking challenging tasks as they come my way because I am always prepared for every task and any new challenge that is in line with my work"* (A4, a 42-year-old Male Maintenance Manager at a 4-star hotel).
>
> *"Having such a mindset makes me open-minded and ready to acquire new skills once the opportunity presents itself. Also, I always read to stay up to date with the knowledge in my field of work as it is*

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important. People have become particular about their lifestyle and whatever they put in their body in terms of food and nutrition is very important to them and that always influences my effort to stay up to date in knowledge and in skill. (A14, a 51-year-old Male Food and Beverage Supervisor of a 3-star hotel)

"My work is quite versatile. I always look for new challenges in my job area and how to provide solutions to them. In doing that, I am able to come up with suggestions in line with my work and how to satisfy the hotel guests. My work can be hectic sometimes, especially when dealing with difficult clients. But my exposure to finding new challenges and finding creative ways of solving them gives me a wider perspective and understanding of these challenges as they occur." (A3, 42-year-old Male Guest Relations Manager of a 4-star hotel).

Contextual performance refers to the competencies and behaviours employees exhibit when undertaking extra-role activities, demonstrating initiative, accepting challenging assignments, and developing new knowledge and skills (Koopmans et al., 2011). The results indicate that employees in three- to five-star rated hotels actively engage in extra tasks, show initiative, embrace challenging responsibilities, and acquire additional knowledge and skills to enhance their performance. With a dimensional score of 78% (M = 3.98), contextual performance ranked second to task performance. This finding is consistent with Koopmans et al. (2014), who similarly reported contextual performance as second only to task performance in proportional contribution.

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As with adaptive performance, about 81% (M=3.95) of the respondents claimed they easily understand and adjust to changes in their line of duties and the organisation at large. Relatedly, 70% (M=3.80) of the respondents agreed to demonstrate physical adaptability whenever there are changes. Additionally, 87% (M=3.80) show cultural adaptability at work. Similar proportions maintain an adaptive interpersonal relationship with colleagues (85.20%, M=4.12) and master tasks, technical tools and work procedures (82.30%, M=4.07).

Having adaptive abilities is a critical requirement for high-performing employees in the hospitality sector, considering the inseparability of the service and seasonal upsurge in demand. Employees have to adapt to deal with difficult customers as well as situations. Additionally, they have to adapt to working longer hours in peak seasons, which may also demand new technologies or tools to meet teeming pressures. Accordingly, through the in-depth interviews, the employees provided instances at which they exhibited various adaptive skills, as captured in the ensuing responses.

> "*Working as a receptionist at the front office exposes me to people with diverse cultures, backgrounds and upbringings and because of this, I have learnt a lot about how to deal with each guest's concerns. And over the years, I can say that I have mastered how to handle situations whenever they arise"* (A7, a 37-year-old male receptionist at a 4-star hotel).
>
> "*As a room attendant in the housekeeping department, my job can be tiresome; especially when there is high occupancy at the hotel. Thankfully, I have been able to develop ways of coping so that I'm not*

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overwhelmed when the job demands more from me." (A9, a 43-year-old female room attendant at a 3-star hotel)

"My job as a Food and Beverage Manager, concerned with ensuring the preparation of meals and serving people of different nationalities, cultures and backgrounds demands that I am adaptive to all of these diversities in line with the hotel's standards of catering to all without prejudice." (A5, a 54-year-old Food and beverage Manager at a 4-star)

These responses bring to bear the reality of adaptive performance among 3-5 star-rated hotel employees in the Accra Metropolis. Despite the over 80% agreement rate, adaptive performance is ranked third after contextual and task performances, respectively. This implies that employees have higher scores in tasks and contextual performances than adaptive performance. The finding concurs with the study of Koopmans et al. (2014), who found adaptive performance the third highest among the four dimensions.

Finally, with the counterproductive performance dimension, only a few (28%, M=2.54) of the respondents agreed to engage in behaviours or conducts that are inimical or have the potency of injuring the organization, such as tardiness, theft, sexual harassment, absenteeism, bullying, substance abuse and sabotage. About 72% (M=2.54) neither agreed nor disagreed about their counterproductive acts. Nevertheless, from the individual items, 16% (M=2.23) of the respondents disagreed with causing problems at work. About 20% (M=2.23) also disagreed, focusing on the negative aspects of a work situation instead of the positive ones. While about 24% (M=2.27) of the respondents denied having to speak with people from outside the organization about the negative aspects of the work and close to half (46.60%, M=3.21)

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neither agreed nor disagreed about whether they complain about unimportant matters at work.

Considering the mixed responses to this dimension, evidence from the qualitative results painted a similar picture. The interviewees disclosed that sometimes they need to engage in counterproductive acts and sometimes they should not. Thus, explaining the indifferent response to the dimension. For example, a female participant stated that;

> *"Yes, I complain, honestly speaking. This is because sometimes you can't just keep mute over something that is wrong"*. (A12, a 28-year-old female receptionist at a 4-star hotel)

> *"I do not escalate problems beyond what they actually are. However, there are some problems. If I do not make them greater than they are, my departmental head may not attend to them. These times, I find it convenient to exaggerate the problems in order to get what I need to function properly." (*A10, a 40-year-old female assistant housekeeper of a 5-star hotel.

> *"While this may sound not a good thing to do as an employee of the hotel, sometimes I overstate problems beyond what they really are with the sole purpose of attracting quick responses from my bosses. Unfortunately, it hasn't always had the desired effect as I am often chided when it is realised that the problem was not as bad as I made it look." (*A3, a 42-year-old male guest relations manager of a 4-star hotel)

Linking the survey results to the interview results, it was found that employees engage in counterproductive activities on a relatively lower scale.

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This is in line with the study by Koopmans et al. (2014), which states that counterproductive performance recorded the lowest percentage, a sign of positive behaviour on the part of employees. The issue of counterproductive performance could stem from a number of factors, including job stress. For instance, the study by Bani-Melhem et al. (2020) revealed that job stress caused employees to engage in counterproductive performance.

From the lens of Job Performance Theory which conceptualises performance across task, contextual, adaptive and counterproductive dimensions, provides a better approach to assessing employees' perspectives on their job performance. This theory ensures that all indicators that influences an employee are captured.

Differences in Job Performance across Employee Demographic Characteristics

Inferring from the literature, demographic characteristics influence the job performance of hotel employees. Based on this premise, this section of the study examined the differences in job performance and its dimensions by demographic characteristics of employees using the ANOVA and T-test statistical tool. The results are presented in Table 19.

With regards to job performance, level of education established significant variations at a 95% confidence level. Under the level of education, the mean scores show that employees with postgraduate degrees recorded the highest (M=3.87) job performance. Those with first degrees (Graduates) recorded the second (M=3.67) highest job performance, followed by Others (M=3.66). Employees with SHS backgrounds reported the least (M=3.61) job

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performance rate. The Tukey post hoc test showed that there was a statistically significant difference between employees with postgraduate degrees and those with SHS certificates (MD=0.26, p=0.01). Even though the effect size (0.03) demonstrates that the margin of difference was small, this finding implies that employees with a high level of education tend to have higher job output rates in the hotels than those with a lower level of education.

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Table 19: Differences in Job Performance among Employees with Different Characteristics

Item	N	Task performance	Contextual performance	Counterproductive performance	Adaptive performance	Job performance
Sex						
Male	157	4.10	4.01	2.50	4.06	3.67
Female	154	4.13	3.95	2.58	4.05	3.68
t		0.37	-0.88	0.85	-0.16	0.21
p-value		0.71	0.38	0.39	0.88	0.84
Dependent below 5						
Yes	130	4.16	4.02	2.45	4.04	3.67
No	181	4.08	3.95	2.6	4.07	3.68
t		-1.16	-1.04	1.47	0.36	0.13
p-value		0.25	0.30	0.14	0.72	0.90
Religion						
Christian	298	4.1	3.98	2.54	4.05	3.67
Muslim	13	4.39	4.13	2.52	4.27	3.83
t		-1.64	-0.65	0.05	-1.20	-0.97
p-value		0.10	0.53	0.96	0.23	0.351
Marital status						
Unmarried	163	4.16	4.0	2.53	4.11	3.7
Married	148	4.07	3.96	2.55	4.0	3.65
t		1.38	0.62	-0.27	1.44	1.13
p-value		0.17	0.54	0.79	0.15	0.26
Age						
≤29	111	4.09	3.89	2.66	4.08	3.68
30-39	137	4.13	4.05	2.44	4.06	3.67

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≥40	63	4.12	4.01	2.56	4.02	3.68
F		0.19	2.37	1.95	0.18	0.02
p-value		0.83	0.1	0.14	0.83	0.98
Eta^2		0.00	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.00
Education						
SHS	92	4.07	3.83	2.58	3.96	3.61
Graduate	160	4.12	4.02	2.49	4.05	3.67
Postgraduate	34	4.27	4.27	2.67	4.26	3.87
Other	25	4.02	3.92	2.54	4.16	3.66
F		1.08	5.31	0.46	1.96	3.19
p-value		0.36	0.01*	0.71	0.12	0.02*
Eta^2		0.01	0.05	0.00	0.02	0.03
Income						
≤1000	94	4.01	3.80	2.64	3.94	3.60
1001-2000	140	4.13	4.03	2.55	4.10	3.70
2001-3000	51	4.18	4.04	2.46	4.06	3.68
≥3001	26	4.31	4.24	2.29	4.25	3.77
F		2.05	5.17	1.25	1.97	1.7
p-value		0.11	0.01*	0.29	0.12	0.17
Eta^2		0.02	0.05	0.01	0.02	0.02

TP= Task Performance, CP= Contextual performance, CTP= Counterproductive performance, AP= Adaptive performance, and JP= Job performance, Significant difference exists at *=$p<0.05$, Eta^2 = 0.01= small effect; 0.06 = moderate effect and 0.14+ = large effect.
Source: Fieldwork (2021).

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In relation to contextual performance, educational level and income level variables all established significant differences at a 95% confidence level. With the level of education, employees with postgraduate degrees recorded higher agreement (M=4.27) to contextual performance than those with first degree (M=4.02), SHS (M=3.83) and Others (M=3.92) at p=0.001. The post hoc test showed that there was a statistically significant difference between employees with postgraduate degrees and those with SHS certificates (MD=0.44, p=0.01). This could be attributed to the fact that employees with postgraduate degrees leverage the skills and knowledge acquired from higher learning to undertake extra activities to benefit their organisations. In addition, attaining higher education, such as postgraduate, can help employees to develop their emotional intelligence and enable them to understand better and respond to the emotions of customers and colleagues. Largely, the effect size of 0.04 indicates that the margin of difference across the levels of education was small.

As with income, employees who earned GHC3001 and above had a higher agreement (M=4.31) to extra duties in addition to their core duties compared to employees who earned GHC1000 or less (M=4.01), GHC1001-2000 (M=4.13) and GHC2001-3000 (M=4.18) at p=0.001. The post hoc test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between employees who earned less than or equal to GHC1000 and those who earned GHC1001-2000 (MD=0.23, p=0.02). Also, the post hoc test showed that there is a significant difference between those who earned less than or equal to

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GHC1000 and those who earned GHC3000 and above (MD=0.43, p=0.01). Usually, top-level management earns the most in hotels. As a result, they are expected to work extra high to keep the hotels running. This partly explains why they reported a higher contextual performance. However, other factors such as increased motivation, better job security, improved job satisfaction and better resources may influence those who earn higher to have higher contextual performance. For instance, higher pay can contribute to higher job satisfaction, which is positively correlated with higher performance. In addition, employees who feel valued and satisfied with their jobs are more likely to engage in contextual performance.

Differences in Job Performance across Employee Work Characteristics

Additionally, an exploration of differences in employees' work characteristics and job performance was conducted using ANOVA and T-test. Evidence from Table 20 shows that employees who had 11 years or more of working experience reported higher (M=3.84) job performance levels than employees with 6-10 years of working experience (M=3.64) and those with 5 years or less (M=3.65). The post hoc test revealed that there was a significant difference between employees who have worked for 5 years or less and those who have 11 years or more work experience (MD=0.19, p=0.02). Also, there was a significant difference between those who have work experience of 6-10 years and those with 11 years or more work experience (MD=0.20, p=0.3). Experience comes with refined skills and abilities, which of course might have

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translated into work outputs as seen in the results. In contrast, Akgunduz (2015) revealed that employees with shorter work experience tend to have higher job performance than those with longer work experience. This may result from factors such as eagerness to work and less burnout.

Also, employees in 4-star hotels were found to have relatively higher (M=3.75) job performance than those in 3-star (M=3.58) and 5-star (M=3.58) hotels. Furthermore, the post hoc test revealed that there is a significant difference between employees who work in 3-start and 4-star hotels in terms of job performance (MD=0.18, p=0.01). Similarly, the post hoc test showed that there is a significant difference between employees who work in 4-star and 5-star hotels (MD=0.17, p=0.02). With an effect size of 0.04, the margin of influence of a hotel rating on job performance was negligible. It must be mentioned that there was no statistically significant difference between employees' characteristics and their counterproductive performance. However, slight variations were observed in the mean scores as captured in Table 20.

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Table 20: Differences in Job Performance and Employees Work Characteristics

Item	N	Task performance	Contextual performance	Counterproductive performance	Adaptive performance	Job performance
Employment status						
Full-time	300	4.11	3.98	2.56	4.05	3.67
Part-time	11	4.36	3.94	2.13	4.27	3.68
F		1.93	0.05	2.53	1.24	0
p-value		0.17	0.83	0.11	0.27	0.98
Department						
Food and Beverage	107	4.07	3.97	2.53	3.94	3.63
Front Office	87	4.09	4.02	2.57	4.09	3.69
Housekeeping	94	4.15	3.9	2.52	4.11	3.67
Other	23	4.24	4.21	2.54	4.26	3.82
F		0.61	1.84	0.07	2.19	1.38
p-value		0.61	0.14	0.98	0.09	0.25
Eta^2		0.01	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.01
Work experience (years)						
≤5	166	4.09	3.89	2.66	4.08	3.65
6-10	102	4.13	4.05	2.44	4.06	3.64

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≥11	43	4.12	4.01	2.56	4.02	3.84
F		0.19	2.37	1.95	0.18	3.91
p-value		0.83	0.1	0.14	0.83	0.02*
Eta^2		0.00	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.03
Star-rating						
3-star	84	3.91	3.85	2.58	3.97	3.58
4-star	171	4.23	4.07	2.56	4.15	3.75
5-star	56	4.09	3.9	2.41	3.91	3.58
F		8.12	4.70	0.71	3.88	6.90
p-value		0.01*	0.01*	0.49	0.02*	0.01*
Eta^2		0.05	0.03	0.01	0.03	0.04

TP= Task Performance, CP= Contextual performance, CTP= Counterproductive performance, AP= Adaptive performance, and JP= Job performance, Significant difference exists at *=$p<0.05$, Eta^2 = 0.01= small effect; 0.06 = moderate effect and 0.14+ = large effect.

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

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From Table 20, only the star-rating variable established a statistically significant difference in relation to task performance. Thus, employees who worked in 4-star-rated hotels reported higher agreement (M=4.23) to task performance compared to their counterparts in 3-star-rated (M=3.91) and 5-star-rated (M=4.08) hotels. Based on the post hoc test, there was a significant difference between the task performance for employees in 3-star and 4-star rated hotels (MD=0.32, p=0.01). It can be observed that respondents from 4 and 5-star hotels had a higher mean score and this can be attributed to increased motivation, better training and resources. Also, such hotels tend to have better management practices, including clear goals, effective communication and a positive work environment. Despite this difference, the effect size of 0.05 suggests that star-rating explains only about 5% of the variation in task performance. This implies that star-rating has little impact on task performance.

Also, employees who work in 4-star-rated hotels recorded higher agreement (M=4.07) to contextual performance compared to those who work in 3-star-rated (M=3.85) and 5-star-rated hotels (M=3.90). In the post hoc test, there was a significant difference between the contextual performance for employees in 3-star and 4-star rated hotels (MD=0.22, p=0.01). However, the effect size value was 0.03 which indicates a small margin of difference. This may result from several factors, including better training and resources, higher customer expectations, increased motivation, better management practices and improved job satisfaction. For instance, hotels with higher ratings, such as 4-star and 5-star, may have more resources to invest in their employees,

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including better training programs and access to better equipment and technology. This can enable employees to perform their tasks more efficiently and effectively, resulting in higher contextual performance. However, the estimated small effect size implies that the type of hotel has a minimal impact on an employee's contextual performance.

With respect to adaptive performance, only the star-rating variable established a significant difference at p=0.02. However, the mean scores revealed that employees in 4-star-rated hotels (M=4.15) were better able to understand and adapt to emerging issues than their counterparts in 5-star-rated hotels (M=3.91) and 3-star-rated hotels (M=3.97). Moreover, the post hoc test showed that there was a significant difference between employees in 4-star and 5-star rated hotels (MD=0.24, p=0.04). Factors such as better training and resources, higher customer expectations, increased motivation, better management practices and improved job satisfaction may account for employees in highly star-rated hotels having high adaptive performance. For instance, customers at higher-rated hotels have higher expectations for service, and employees are often aware of this. This can motivate employees to perform their tasks at a higher level in order to meet these expectations. This can enable employees to perform their tasks more efficiently resulting in higher contextual performance. Meanwhile, an effect size of 0.04 suggested that a hotel's star-rating barely has a 4.5% impact on employees' ability to adapt to changes.

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Predictors of Job Stressors on Employees' Job Performance

The ANOVA and T-test results indicate a substantial correlation between job performance and demographic and work characteristics. The interplay of the independent variables (job stressors) on each dependent variable (job performance and its dimension) is, therefore, crucial. This is supported by research conducted by Akgunduz (2015), Bora (2017), Goonetilleke et al. (2018), and Karatepe and Uludag (2008), which asserted that job stress has an impact on the performance of hotel employees. Using a multivariate causality analysis, this section evaluated the predictive capabilities of work stressors in relation to employees' job performance. Additionally, a linear regression model was fitted, with job stressors serving as independent variables and job performance and its dimensions as dependent variables. Table 21 illustrates the findings.

In general, job performance, role overburden, and role ambiguity were identified as significant predictors. The R2 value indicates that the model accounted for approximately 19.2% of the variation in job performance. At a 95% confidence level, role overburden accounted for approximately 10.4% of the variation in job performance. In the same vein, at a 99% confidence level, role ambiguity was responsible for 15.2% of the variations in job performance. Poor peer relations, role conflict, and strenuous working conditions were responsible for insignificant margins of 2.2%, 6.6%, and 2.0% of the variations in job performance levels, respectively. Table 21 indicates that employees' task performance is significantly predicted by role ambiguity, role excess, and role conflict. The R2 value indicated that the model, which

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included role ambiguity, role conflict, role excess, and strenuous working conditions, accounted for approximately 3-24% of the variation in job performance.

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Table 21: Predictors of the Job Performance of Employees of 3-5 Star-Rated Hotels

Variable	TP	CP	CTP	AP	JP
	Coef. (Std. Err.)	Coef. (Std. Err.)	Coef. (Std. Err.)	Coef. (Std. Err.)	Coef. (Std. Err.)
Role overload	0.12 (0.06)*	0.03 (0.06)	0.17 (0.10)	0.10 (0.07)	0.10 (0.03)*
Role ambiguity	0.25 (0.06)**	0.27 (0.05)**	-0.05 (0.09)	0.14 (0.06)*	0.15 (0.04)**
Role conflict	0.14 (0.05)**	0.05 (0.05)	-0.17 (0.09)	0.08 (0.06)	0.024 (0.04)
Poor peer relations	0.02 (0.05)	0.05 (0.05)	0.11 (0.08)	0.08 (0.06)	0.07 (0.04)
Strenuous working conditions	0.03 (0.05)	0.05 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.07)	0.02 (0.05)	0.02 (0.03)
N	311.00	311.00	311.00	311.00	311.00
R^2	0.24	0.22	0.03	0.11	0.19
AIC	498.21	488.37	802.58	594.28	290.15
BIC	520.65	510.81	825.03	616.72	312.59

Exponentiated coefficients.

*p<0.05, **p<0.01.

TP= Task Performance, CP= Contextual performance, CTP= Counterproductive performance, AP= Adaptive performance and JP= Job performance

Source: Fieldwork (2021)

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With the individual stressors, it was found that a unit increase in employees' role overload accounts for a 12% rise in task performance at a 99% confidence level. This implies that as employees' role overload increases, their task performance increases by 12%.

Again, it was found that a unit increase in employees' role ambiguity results in a 24.5% rise in their task performance at a 99% confidence level. Also, a unit increase in employees' role conflict accounted for a 14% rise in task performance at a 95% confidence level. Poor peer relations and strenuous working conditions did not significantly influence employees' task performance revealed by the coefficient values of 0.02 and 0.03, respectively. The findings of role conflict and role ambiguity as positive determinants of employees' task performance contradict studies of Akgunduz (2015), Karatepe and Uludag (2008) and Unguren and Arslan (2021) found that role ambiguity and role conflict negatively influenced employees' performance.

The results showed that only role ambiguity significantly influenced contextual performance at a 99% confidence level. That is, a unit increase in role ambiguity leads to about a 27% increase in contextual performance. All the other stressors did not have any significant influence on contextual performance. For instance, role overload only explains a negligible margin (3.3%) of the variation in contextual performance. The same was said about role conflict (4.8%), poor peer relations (4.6%) and strenuous working conditions (5.0%). The finding of role ambiguity as a positive determinant of employees' contextual performance deviates from previous findings. For example, studies by Goonetilleke et al. (2018) and Unguren and Arslan (2021) found that role ambiguity negatively influences employees' performance.

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Relatedly, only role ambiguity significantly influenced adaptive performance at a 95% confidence level. The results indicate that a unit change in role ambiguity could explain a 14.2% change in adaptive performance. None of the other stressors significantly influenced adaptive performance, as shown in Table 17.

Contrasting the current findings, Goonetilleke et al. (2018) and Unguren and Arslan (2021) found role ambiguity as a negative influencer of employees' performance in hotels. Similarly, Chang and Chang (2007) disclosed that job stressors such as role ambiguity and role conflicts affect the job performance of hospitality employees. Their study showed a negative relationship between role ambiguity and job performance and a positive relationship between role conflict and job performance. However, their findings are different from those of Karatepe and Uludag (2008), who realised that role ambiguity which is a stressor, decreased job performance, while role conflict as a stressor enhanced job performance. This implies that not all job-related stress negatively affects the job performance of hotel employees. However, the relationship between role stress and job performance varied with the service capability of employees (Chang & Chang, 2007).

From the integration of the transactional theory of stress and coping and job performance theory, the non-significant positive effect of job stress suggests that mild or challenge-type stress may enhance certain performance dimension. For instance, task focus or adaptive performance may motivate employees to organise tasks more efficiently. However, excessive or hindrance type of stress typically undermines contextual performance and increases counterproductive behaviours. This theoretical framing clarifies why

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some stressors improved aspects of job performance while others did not, highlighting the complex relationship between job stress and employee job performance.

Chapter Summary

This chapter examined the effects of job stressors on the job performance of hotel employees. The descriptive statistics of the dimensions measuring job performance revealed that over half of the respondents and participants agreed they engage in positive job performance acts (task, contextual and adaptive performance). The bivariate analysis using ANOVA and T-test showed that demographic and work characteristics such as star rating, level of education, income levels and work experience statistically influence job performance and dimensions. Considering the main objective of this chapter, the multivariate analysis using linear regression showed that job stressors such as role overload, role ambiguity and role conflict significantly predict job performance and some of its dimensions.

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CHAPTER NINE

MODELLING THE INTERACTION AMONG JOB STRESS, COPING STRATEGY, PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Introduction

The variables of workplace stress, coping strategy, psychological well-being, and job performance were the focus of the previous chapters. Nevertheless, this chapter employs the partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) method to model the interactions between the four variables (job stress, coping strategy, psychological well-being, and job performance). The primary objective of the study is to evaluate the impact of employment stress on the psychological well-being and performance of employees at hotels with a rating of 3-5 stars in Accra Metropolis, Ghana. The chapter strives to address this objective. This chapter is organised in the following order: data characteristics, model reliability and validity assessment, structural model, and path relationship.

Data Characteristics

Covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) and partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) are the two methodologies employed in statistical analysis to evaluate theoretical models and investigate relationships in the context of structural equation modelling (SEM). Although these two methods address the same issue (the cause-effect relationship between latent constructs), their estimation procedures and outcomes are distinct. The maximum likelihood (ML) estimation method is

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employed in CB-SEM to minimise the discrepancy between the estimated covariance and the observed matrix (Hair et al., 2011). The R2 (coefficient of determination) is a by-product of the overarching statistical objective of attaining a satisfactory model fit in CB-SEM (Hair et al., 2014). Conversely, PLS-SEM implements a regression-based ordinary least square (OLS) estimation procedure to account for the variance of latent constructs. This is accomplished by optimising the R2 values of the endogenous construct and reducing the error terms (Hair et al., 2014). The PLS-SEM was implemented due to the fact that this chapter concentrates on the evaluation of the predictive accuracy of job stress on psychological well-being and performance. Furthermore, the adoption of the software (SmartPLS) was also influenced by the flexibility to model parameters compared to AMOS and the software's adaptability. In Tables and Figures, the SmartPLS results are presented in the subsequent subsections.

The data characteristics are presented as the initial result of the PLS-SEM. The diagnostics of the data are the primary focus of the data characteristics. The mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis are the primary metrics for data diagnostics. Table 18 illustrates the diagnostic. A code is assigned to each indicator that is assessed on the questionnaire using a variety of items, as illustrated in Table 18. Composite indicators were derived prior to the PLS-SEM in the context of this study. In order to streamline the analysis and mitigate its intricacy, this determination was implemented. Therefore, the main constructs focused on the data characteristics are presented in Table 22.

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Table 22: PLS-SEM Items and Distribution

Code	Items	M	SD	EK	ES
RO	Role overload	2.56	0.52	-0.20	0.11
RA	Role ambiguity	4.01	0.74	1.70	-1.01
RC	Role conflict	3.53	0.79	-0.08	-0.25
PPR	Poor peer relations	3.83	0.84	0.50	-0.79
SWC	Strenuous working conditions	3.29	0.86	-0.03	-0.20
PF	Problem-focused	3.90	0.62	1.16	-0.77
EF	Emotion-focused	3.37	0.68	0.61	-0.42
AF	Avoidance focused	3.56	0.65	0.79	-0.50
SA	Self-acceptance	3.93	0.78	0.42	-0.67
PIL	Purpose in life	3.52	0.75	-0.34	-0.13
PRWO	Positive relations with others	3.96	0.75	0.89	-0.70
PG	Personal growth	4.18	0.76	2.19	-1.27
EM	Environmental mastery	3.99	0.67	0.41	-0.49
AT	Autonomy	4.09	0.74	1.17	-0.88
TP	Task performance	4.11	0.61	2.76	-1.04
CP	Contextual performance	3.98	0.59	0.37	-0.46
CTP	Counterproductive performance	2.54	0.88	-0.17	0.33
APT	Adaptive performance	4.06	0.66	3.03	-1.06

M= Mean, SD= Standard Deviation, EK= Excess Kurtosis, ES= Excess Skewness

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

From Table 22, it was found that the counterproductive indicator performance had the lowest mean score, whereas personal growth recorded the highest mean score. The estimated standard deviations show no outliers in the data; for that matter, the data meets the criteria for PLS-SEM. According to Aburumman, Al Shbail, Omar and Aldoghan (2022), if the values of the kurtosis and skewness range between +3 to -3, the data can be qualified as

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normally distributed. Accordingly, except for the adaptive performance indicator that had a kurtosis value above +3 (3.03), all the indicators were normally distributed.

Assessment of Reliability and Validity Test

After a brief description of the data characteristics, the next step is to assess the model fit of the data. To determine the right model fit to adopt, the conceptualisation of the constructs and their variables must be understood. In the context of this study, the reflective measurement model was adopted. This measurement model is hypothesized on the basis that causality flows from the construct to the indicators (variables). This section examined the indicator loading, internal consistency, reliability and discriminant validity.

Evidence from Table 23 shows that most of the indicators had loadings greater than 0.7. However, only four indicators, avoidance focused, purpose in life, positive relations with others and self-acceptance, had loadings of less than 0.7, but they were more than 0.6. According to Hair et al. (2019), indicator loadings are recommended to be above 0.708, indicating that the construct explains more than 50% of the variance. Nevertheless, those below 0.708 but beyond 0.6 is considered to be acceptable (Sarstedt et al., 2019). Therefore, all the indicators were found to have met another requirement for PLS-SEM.

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Table 23: Reliability and Validity Results

Variables	Indicator Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	CR	AVE
JS		0.84	0.84	0.89	0.67
RA	0.84				
RC	0.83				
PPR	0.85				
SWC	0.76				
CS		0.67	0.69	0.82	0.60
AF	0.70				
EF	0.80				
PF	0.83				
JP		0.76	0.79	0.86	0.68
TP	0.90				
CP	0.88				
APT	0.71				
PWB		0.81	0.82	0.86	0.52
AT	0.71				
EM	0.79				
PG	0.74				
PIL	0.64				
PRWO	0.70				
SA	0.69				

AVE= Average Variance Extracted; CR= Composite Reliability

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

The internal consistency of the four broad variables (job stress, coping strategy, psychological well-being, and job performance) was evaluated in this study using two methodologies (Table 23). Composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach's Alpha (CA) are employed in these methodologies. It is recommended that three of the four broad variables have values above 0.7, as

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indicated by the CA values. The only variable that recorded a CA value above 0.6 was the coping strategy variable, which is also acceptable (Sarstedt et al., 2019). In addition, the CR reported values that exceeded the widely recognised threshold value of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2019). Consequently, the internal consistency reliability of the model in this analysis is proven. The discovery confirms that the data satisfies the criteria for PLS-SEM. According to Hair et al. (2019), composite reliability yields result that are liberal. The results of this study were consistent with those of both the composite reliability and Cronbach's Alpha, as it provides a reasonable understanding of the internal consistency of the observed items in relation to their latent variable. The average variance extracted (AVE) was employed to evaluate the convergent validity of the data for structural equation modelling.

The objective of evaluating the convergent validity of the data was to verify that all indicators that were designed to measure a specific construct are indeed measuring that construct. The AVEs of all four latent variables were greater than 0.5, as demonstrated in Table 23 (Hair et al., 2019). This value is deemed acceptable. This suggests that the observed items uniformly integrate in the measurement of their respective latent variables across all four constructs. Once more, the AVE results indicate that the data is appropriate for PLS-SEM. The discriminant validity was evaluated in addition to the aforementioned criteria for evaluating the validity of the data for structural equation modelling.

Hair et al. (2019) assert that discriminant validity quantifies the empirical extent to which a construct is distinct from other constructs in the structural model. The discriminant validation was conducted using the

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Fornell-Larcker Criterion (Table 24). The Fornell-Larcker Criterion (Table 24) is typically explained by the following rule: the correlation value of one latent variable and its corresponding indicators must be significantly different from the correlation values of other latent variables and their corresponding indicators. The results of Table 24 demonstrate that the four latent variables can be distinguished. This suggests that the latent variables are measuring distinct entities, and there is no indication of any conflict between the variables. Nevertheless, Henseler et al. (2015), as cited in Hair et al. (2019), cautioned that this criterion does not provide reliable results, particularly when the factor loadings on a construct differ minimally. For this reason, Henseler et al. (2015) suggested the utilisation of the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) correlation ratio to evaluate the discriminant validity of a model.

Table 24: Fornell-Larcker Criteria

	Coping strategy	Job performance	Job stress	Psychological well-being
Coping strategy	**0.77**			
Job performance	0.51	**0.82**		
Job stress	0.49	0.51	**0.82**	
Psychological well-being	0.499	0.75	0.57	**0.72**

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

Hair et al. (2019) defined HTMT as "the mean value of the item correlations across constructs relative to the mean of the average correlations for the items measuring the same construct." The HTMT results are presented in Table 25. The results reveal discriminant validity among all the variables except psychological well-being and job performance.

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Table 25: Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	Coping strategy	Job performance	Job stress	Psychological well-being
Coping strategy				
Job performance	0.71			
Job stress	0.64	0.62		
Psychological well-being	0.67	0.93	0.68	

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

The estimated HTMT value (0.933) between psychological well-being and job performance is greater than 0.90, as Hair et al. (2019) stated. Therefore, considering the results from both the Fornell-Larcker Criterion and HTMT, it can be said that there is a discriminant validity among the variables being studied.

Assessment of Structural Model

The next phase assesses the structural model on the data, meeting all measurement criteria and required thresholds. Ofori (2021) asserts that the structural model displays the hypothesized relationship among variables. However, prior to establishing the relationship and its significance among the variables, Hair et al. (2019) suggest that some additional model fit indices are examined. These model fit indices include the collinearity, R-square (R^2), F-square (f^2) and Q-square (Q^2).

Evidence from Table 26 reveals that the collinearity test generated variance inflated factor (VIF) values ranging from 1 to 1.617. The collinearity test ensured that no two indicators were highly correlated. This was done by computing the VIF values. The recommended VIF threshold values include

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less than or equal to 3 (Mason and Perreault, 1991; Becker et al., 2015). Accordingly, given the VIF values in Table 26, it can be said there was no collinearity among the variables.

Table 26: Collinearity

	Coping strategy	Job performance	Job stress	Psychological well-being
Coping strategy		1.44		1.31
Job performance				
Job stress	1	1.60		1.31
Psychological well-being		1.62		

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

The next structural model assessment criterion is the R^2 measurement. The R^2 explains the variance of the dependent (endogenous) variable by the independent (exogenous) variable in the model. The results presented in Table 27 showed that coping strategy, job performance and psychological well-being had 0.236, 0.597 and 0.382, respectively, for R^2. This implies (23.6%) change in coping strategy is explained by job stress. Additionally, (59.7%) of the change in job performance can be explained by job stress and (38.2%) of the variation in psychological well-being is also explained by job stress. In other words, while the independent variable (job stress) had moderate (59.7%) predictability on job performance, it had weaker predictability on coping strategy (23.6%) and psychological well-being (38.2%).

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Table 27: SS

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Coping strategy	0.24	0.23
Job performance	0.60	0.59
Psychological well-being	0.38	0.34

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

Regarding f^2, this structural assessment criterion deals with the effect size of the independent variable on a dependent variable. The effect sizes are paired between two variables. The results presented in Table 28 show that the highest effect size (0.62) was between psychological well-being and job performance. On the contrary, the lowest effect size (0.01) was between job stress and job performance. Variables that can be considered to have a large effect were job stress and coping strategy (0.31), psychological well-being and job performance (0.62), and job stress and psychological well-being (0.22).

Table 28: F-Square

	Coping strategy	Job performance	Job stress	Psychological well-being
Coping strategy		0.05		0.10
Job performance				
Job stress	0.31	0.01		0.22
Psychological well-being		0.62		

Eta^2: <0.01= small effect; <0.06 = moderate effect and 0.14+ = large effect.

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

Prior to the main structural model description, the Q^2 criterion was assessed. Q^2 examines the model's predictive accuracy. The Q^2 values range between 0 and 1, and Q^2 values larger than 0 indicate the model has predictive relevance, whereas Q^2 values of 0 and below suggest the model has no

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predictive relevance. The results presented in Table 29 revealed that job performance had the highest (0.39) predictive relevance compared to coping strategy (0.13) and psychological well-being (0.19).

Table 29: Q-Square

	SSO	SSE	Q^2 (=1-SSE/SSO)
Coping strategy	933	809.35	0.13
Job performance	933	565.82	0.39
Job stress	1244	1244	
Psychological well-being	1866	1510.63	0.19

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

Based on meeting all the requirements structural model, this paragraph describes the structural model presented in Figure 5. The structural model shows the hypothesized relationships among job stress, coping strategy, psychological well-being and job performance. Of the five job stressors, role overload had a low factor loading, so it was excluded from the model. The details of the model's relations are explained and discussed in the subsequent sub-themes.

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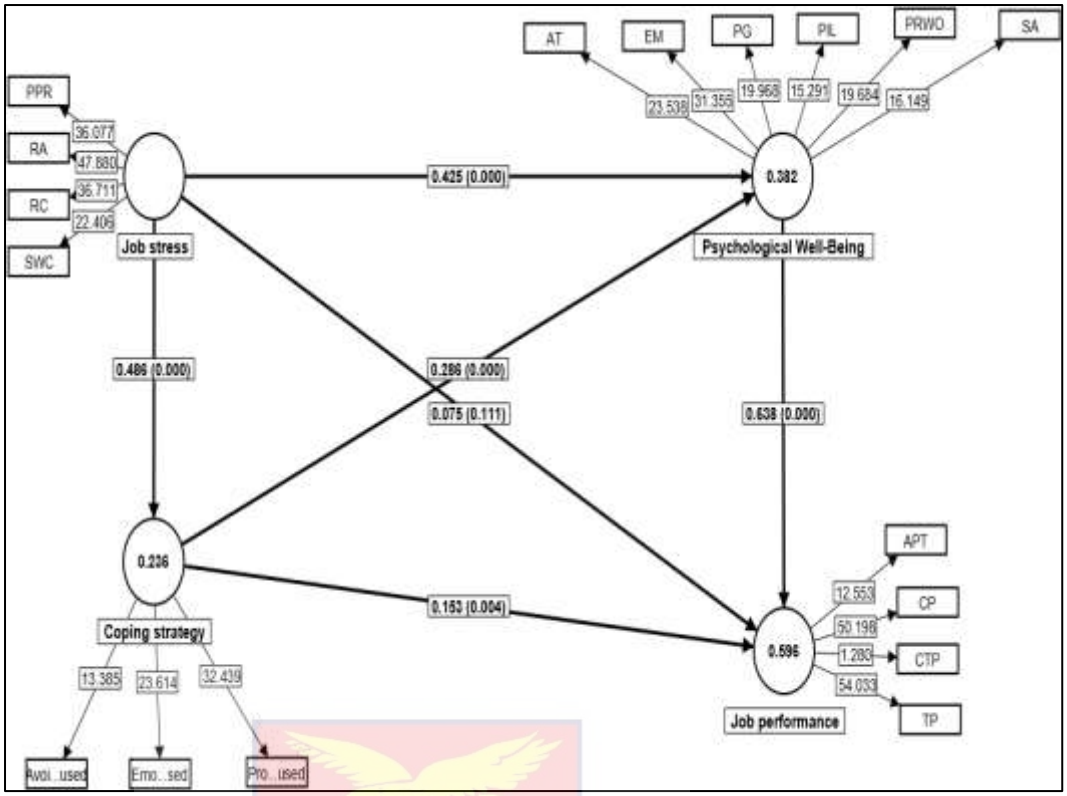


Figure 5: Structural Model of Job Stress, Coping Strategy, Psychological Well and Job Performance.

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

Assessment of Path Relationships

This subsection explains the relationships hypothesized for this study. The independent variable was job stress, the moderator was coping strategy and the dependent variables were psychological well-being and job performance. The results are presented in Table 30. The results revealed that there is a positive relationship between job stress and job performance (β=0.075, p-value=0.111). This implies that as job stress increases, job performance increases. However, this was not statistically significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected because there is no statistically significant relationship between job stress and performance. Although the result was not statistically significant, the positive relationship

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contradicts studies by Chang and Chang (2007), Hon et al. (2013), Akgunduz (2015), Nguyen and Trinh (2017) and Goonetilleke, Priyashantha and Munasinghe (2018) where job stress had a negative relationship with job performance. Karatepe and Uludag (2008) arrived at two opposing results to further explain the current findings. They found that role ambiguity as a stressor decreased job performance, while role conflict as a stressor enhanced job performance. This implies that not all job-related stress negatively affects the job performance of hotel employees.

The result of job stress on job performance may not be significant but reflects the findings in chapter eight, where job stressors such as role overload and role ambiguity positively and significantly affect job performance. This might be due to some employees developing coping mechanisms, such as improved time-management skills or the ability to prioritize tasks that help them to be more effective.

Table 30: Path Coefficients of Job Stress, Coping Strategy, Psychological Well-Being and Job Performance

Structural Path	Path	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics (|O/STDEV|)	p-values	Hypothesis
Coping strategy -> Job performance	0.15	0.05	2.9	<0.01**	Supported
Coping strategy -> Psychological Well-Being	0.29	0.06	4.95	<0.01**	Supported
Job stress -> Coping strategy	0.49	0.06	8.05	<0.01**	Supported
Job stress -> Job performance	0.08	0.05	1.60	0.11	Not supported
Job stress -> Psychological Well-Being	0.43	0.05	8.20	<0.01**	Supported
Psychological Well-Being -> Job performance	0.64	0.05	13.63	<0.01**	Supported

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

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Employees' psychological well-being and coping strategies were substantially influenced by job stress, which was the primary independent variable in this study. According to Table 30, employees' coping strategies are positively influenced by their job stress (β=0.486, p-value=<0.001) at a 99% confidence level. The null hypothesis is rejected as a consequence of this finding, as employees' coping strategies increase in response to increased job stress. This discovery is consistent with the research conducted by Tsaur and Tang (2012), which demonstrates that psychological well-being is significantly positively correlated with coping strategies. Coping strategies may be positively correlated with job stress, as individuals may be motivated to identify methods of managing or reducing it when they encounter stress. This can result in the creation of coping strategies that enable individuals to effectively manage stressful situations and mitigate the detrimental effects of stress on their mental and physical health.

Furthermore, it was determined that there is a direct correlation between the psychological well-being of employees and their employment stress (β=0.425, p-value= <0.001) at a 99% confidence level. This suggests that the psychological well-being of personnel increases as their job stress levels rise. This result rejects the null hypothesis, which posits that there is no statistically significant correlation between the psychological well-being of employees and their work stress. This discovery corroborates the research conducted by Fiksenbaum, Jeng, Koyuncu, and Burke (2010) and Ariza-Montes, Arjona-Fuentes, Han, and Law (2018), which assert that job stress has a substantial positive impact on the psychological well-being of hotel employees. Coping strategies that assist individuals in managing stress more

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effectively may be developed as a result of job tension. These strategies may include engaging in physical exercise, cultivating mindfulness or meditation, or seeking support from colleagues. By lessening the detrimental effects of stress on mental health and encouraging a more optimistic perspective on work, these coping strategies can enhance psychological well-being. Furthermore, the experience of job tension can prompt individuals to reassess their work-life balance and implement modifications to prioritise their psychological well-being. This may involve establishing boundaries regarding work hours and taking time off when necessary.

Conversely, research conducted by Amin and Akbar (2013), Ariza-Montes, Hernández-Perlines, Han and Law (2019), and Wong and Chan (2020) demonstrated that the psychological well-being of hotel employees is adversely affected by job stress. The variation may be attributed to the location of the study area, demographic characteristics, and the differences in data collection instruments. Furthermore, the psychological well-being of an individual can be influenced by job stress in a variety of ways, dependent on the nature, duration, and intensity of the stress, as well as the individual's coping strategies and resources.

Further, the results presented in Table 30 showed that coping strategy positively affects employees' job performance (β=0.153, p-value=0.004). Thus, job performance increases at a 99% confidence level as the coping strategy increases. Based on this finding, the null hypothesis that coping strategy does not statistically affect employees' job performance was rejected. This finding validates the study by Hu and Cheng (2010), who claimed that coping strategies positively affect job performance. Coping strategies can

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positively affect job performance by helping employees manage job stress and maintain their focus and productivity. When individuals experience job stress, it can lead to decreased job satisfaction, motivation, and engagement, ultimately impacting job performance. However, coping strategies can aid individuals manage their stress and avoid these negative consequences. Effective coping strategies (seeking social support, practising mindfulness, or engaging in physical exercise) can help individuals manage their stress levels, reduce negative emotions, and improve their mental well-being. When individuals are less stressed and have better mental health, they are more likely to be engaged in their work, have higher levels of job satisfaction, and perform better in their roles.

Similarly, it was found that coping strategy positively affects employees' psychological well-being (β=0.286, p-value=<0.001). This was statistically significant at a 99% confidence level. Accordingly, the null hypothesis that coping strategy does not statistically affect employees' psychological well-being was rejected. Coping strategies can positively affect employees' psychological well-being by helping them manage stress and develop resilience. When individuals experience stress, it can lead to negative emotions such as anxiety, depression, and burnout, which can have a detrimental effect on psychological well-being. Coping strategies can help individuals manage these negative emotions and reduce the impact of stress on their psychological well-being. A person's stress levels can be managed, negative emotions can be diminished and their mental health can be improved by using effective coping skills, including asking for social support,

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exercising, or relaxing. Coping strategies can also help individuals develop resilience by adapting to changing circumstances and challenges.

Also, Table 30 showed that there is a direct statistically significant relationship between employees' psychological well-being and their job performance (β=0.638, p-value=<0.001) at a 99% confidence level. This suggests that as employees' psychological well-being increases, their job performance also increases. As such, the study fails to accept the null hypothesis that psychological well-being does not statistically affect employees' job performance.

Indirect Effect of Job Stress, Coping Strategy, Psychological Well-Being and Job Performance of Employees

Table 31 presents additional analysis that concentrated on the indirect relationships among the variables. The findings indicated that all indirect relationships were statistically significant. It was determined from Table 31 that employees' work stress had a positive correlation with job performance through psychological well-being (β=0.271, p-value=<0.001). Table 30 demonstrates that there was no statistically significant correlation between job tension and job performance. Nevertheless, the relationship is statistically significant due to the psychological well-being of employees. This implies that the psychological well-being of employees contributes to the enhancement of job performance during periods of workplace stress.

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Table 31: Specific Indirect Effect of Job Stress, Coping Strategy, Psychological Well-Being and Job Performance

	Original sample (O)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T statistics (|O/STDEV)	p-values	Hypothesis
Job stress -> Psychological Well-Being -> Job performance	0.271	0.039	7.008	<0.01**	Supported
Job stress -> Coping strategy -> Psychological Well-Being -> Job performance	0.089	0.024	3.681	<0.01**	Supported
Job stress -> Coping strategy -> Psychological Well-Being	0.139	0.036	3.899	<0.01**	Supported
Coping strategy -> Psychological Well-Being -> Job performance	0.183	0.039	4.675	<0.01**	Supported
Job stress -> Coping strategy -> Job performance	0.074	0.027	2.764	<0.01**	Supported

Source: Fieldwork (2021).

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It was also found that job stress positively affects psychological well-being through the moderation of coping strategy (β=0.139, p-value=<0.001). Linking this result to that of Table 30, out of the β=0.425 directly from job stress to psychological well-being, coping strategy contributes β=0.286. Meanwhile, the results suggest that coping strategy enhances psychological well-being.

Additionally, Table 31 indicates that psychological well-being moderates the positive relationship between job performance and employees' coping strategies (β=0.183, p-value=<0.001). The direct effect of coping strategy on job performance was lower (β=0.153) when psychological well-being moderated that relationship (β=0.183), as inferred from Table 30 (Table 27). This discovery corroborates the notion that the impact of coping strategies on job performance is positively influenced by psychological well-being. This discovery corroborates the research conducted by Hu and Cheng (2010), which demonstrated that employees' job performance is positively influenced by their coping strategies. Coping strategies can enhance the psychological well-being of employees, resulting in a positive correlation with job performance. Table 31 demonstrated that work stress was positively correlated with job performance, as evidenced by the moderated effect of coping strategy (β=0.074, p-value=0.006) at a 99% confidence level. The results (Table 31) indicated that there is no statistically significant correlation between job stress and job performance. Nevertheless, the relationship became statistically significant as a result of the coping strategy's moderation effect. This discovery corroborates Karatepe and Uludag (2008), who demonstrated that job performance was improved by a certain degree of job stress, despite the absence of a moderating variable. Job stress can have a

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positive impact on job performance through the moderated effect of coping strategies. This is due to the fact that effective coping strategies can assist employees in managing stress and enhancing their resilience, resulting in enhanced job performance.

Lastly, the moderating function of psychological well-being and coping strategy results in a positive statistically significant relationship between job stress and job performance (β=0.089, p-value=<0.001). This suggests that job performance is positively impacted by the psychological well-being of employees and the implementation of an effective coping strategy in the presence of workplace stress. This result is in direct opposition to Rao and Goel's (2017) research, which asserted that the consequences of employment stress on psychological well-being are reflected in a decrease in the performance of employees. Nevertheless, research conducted by Chang and Chang (2007), Hon et al. (2013), Akgunduz (2015), Nguyen and Trinh (2017), and Goonetilleke, Priyashantha, and Munasinghe (2018) demonstrated that job stress has a detrimental impact on job performance. The moderate effect of the coping strategy and psychological well-being may have contributed to the substantial positive relationship that was established. By implementing effective coping strategies, employees can enhance their job performance by fostering adaptability and resilience. Furthermore, greater job satisfaction and a more optimistic outlook towards work can result from enhanced psychological well-being, which in turn can enhance job performance.

The SEM findings further reinforce the theoretical propositions across the three theories underpinning this study. The significant effect of job stress on coping strategies confirms the transactional theory, which emphasises coping as a mediator of stress responses. The strong influence of PWB on job

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performance aligns with Ryff's model which indicates that well-being enhances personal functioning and social relations which are key prerequisites for optimal job performance. Lastly, the positive effect of coping strategies on performance supports job performance theory, demonstrating how employees' adaptive behaviours contribute to efficiency and reduced counterproductive actions.

Chapter Summary

Using the Partial Least Square Structural Equation Model (PLS-SEM), this chapter examined the association among job stress, coping technique, psychological well-being and job performance. Every criterion needed for the outcomes of the study to be legitimate was met. With respect to the results of this study, it was discovered that there is a statistically significant positive correlation between employees' coping strategy and job performance, coping strategy and psychological well-being, job stress and coping strategy, job stress and psychological well-being and psychological well-being and job performance. Regarding the indirect impacts, it was shown that there is a statistically significant positive correlation among employees' job stress, psychological well-being and job performance, job stress, coping strategy and job performance, job stress, coping strategy and psychological well-being, coping strategy, psychological well-being and job performance and job stress, coping strategy and job performance. In the end, it was discovered that psychological well-being and coping strategy helped to mitigate the influence of occupational stress on job performance.

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CHAPTER TEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter concludes the study and focuses on the summary of the entire thesis, conclusions and recommendations. The chapter first summarises the study's background, methodology, main findings, conclusions and recommendations. The study's contributions to both knowledge and practice were also discussed in the chapter. Conclusions are subsequently drawn based on the results of the study and finally, recommendations are suggested.

Summary of the Study

Job stress has been found to impact the psychological well-being and job performance of employees of hospitality establishments. However, there is limited empirical evidence on the causal and predictive relationship among job stress, coping strategy, psychological well-being and job performance of hotel employees. Therefore, this study sought to assess the effects of job stress on the psychological well-being and performance of employees of 3-5 star- rated hotels in the Accra Metropolis, Ghana. Specific objectives were to:

i. examine the factors that induce job stress among employees;
ii. analyse the coping strategies for managing job stress by employees;
iii. examine the effect of job stress on the psychological well-being of employees; and
iv. examine the effect of job stress on the performance of employees.

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Six hypotheses were developed to obtain the causal and predictive link among the variables. Reviews both theoretical and empirical were done. With respect to the theoretical review, important ideas were examined to explicitly specify all the factors (stress, psychological well-being and performance) under consideration. While job performance was linked to the heuristic conceptual framework of individual work performance, stress was placed in the transactional theory of stress and coping and psychological well-being was matched with Ryff's psychological well-being model.

This study's research design was explanatory sequential mixed-method, and its research philosophy was pragmatism. Data gathering and analysis using a mixed-methods strategy began with the quantitative approach followed by the qualitative approach. This study's 14 interviews were sampled using purposive sampling; 311 respondents were sampled using a multistage sampling technique. The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board granted ethical approval. While the qualitative data were analysed using MAXQDA, the quantitative data were analysed using Frequencies, Percentages, Mean, Standard Deviation, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Linear Regression and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

Summary of Findings

Factors inducing job stress among employees of 3–5 star-rated hotels in the Accra Metropolis were examined to tackle the first objective. Generally, about 39% of the respondents agreed to experience job stress. ANOVA and T-test revealed statistically significant differences across certain demographic and work characteristics such as income levels, hotel star rating, marital status

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and religion and the various job stressors. Linear regression results showed that demographic and work characteristics such as education, religion and gender, star rating and the department are determinants of employee job stressors.

The results of the second objective focused on the coping strategies employed by hotel employees in the Accra Metropolis who were rated 3-5 stars. Strategies that were utilised included coping strategies, avoidance strategies, emotion-focused strategies, and problem-focused strategies. The results of the ANOVA and T-test indicated a substantial distinction between problem-focused, avoidance-focused, and coping strategies among various work characteristics. Nevertheless, there were no substantial disparities between the emotion-focused Strategy and the broader demographic and work characteristics.

The third objective investigated the impact of employment stress on the psychological well-being of hotel employees in Accra Metropolis (3–5-star rating). A more thorough examination of the data revealed that certain demographic and occupational characteristics, including dependents under the age of 5, religion, marital status, level of education, department, income, and hotel star rating, had a substantial impact on psychological well-being. The linear regression model also demonstrated that certain job stressors, including role ambiguity and strenuous working conditions, significantly predicted psychological well-being.

Lastly, the fourth objective investigated the impact of work stress on the job performance of hotel employees. Over half of the respondents and participants engaged in effective job performance acts (task, contextual, and

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adaptive performance), as indicated by the descriptive statistics of the dimensions measuring job performance. According to the bivariate analyses conducted using ANOVA and T-tests, job performance was statistically influenced by demographic and work characteristics, including income, level of education, work experience, and hotel star rating. Job performance was substantially predicted by job stressors such as role overload, role ambiguity, and role conflict, as demonstrated by the multivariate analysis using linear regression, which was conducted with respect to the primary objective of this chapter.

Generally, the Partial Least Square Structural Equation Model (PLS-SEM) was employed to investigate the correlation between job stress, coping strategy, psychological well-being, and job performance. According to the findings, there is a statistically significant positive correlation between the psychological well-being, job performance, coping strategy, and job stress of employees, as well as the relationship between the psychological well-being and job performance. On the indirect effects, it was discovered that there is a statistically significant positive correlation between employees' job stress, psychological well-being, and job performance, as well as between their job stress, coping strategy, and psychological well-being. Ultimately, it was determined that the impact of work stress on job performance was mediated by psychological well-being and coping strategies.

Conclusions

The objective of this investigation was to evaluate the impact of job stress on the psychological well-being and job performance of employees at

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hotels with a star rating of 3-5 in Accra Metropolis, Ghana. These conclusions are derived from the specific objectives and the primary findings of the study:

Based on the first objective, it can be concluded that job stress experienced by hotel employees in the Accra Metropolis is a result of the strenuous working conditions and role overload. These employees work in hotels with a rating of 3-5 stars. Job stressors, including role ambiguity, role excess, role conflict, and strenuous working conditions, are influenced by demographic and work characteristics in order to induce job stress among employees of 3–5 star-rated hotels in the Accra Metropolis. This discovery indicates that the employment stress of hotel employees is influenced by their individual and professional characteristics. Clearly, this implies that the management of hotels in the Accra Metropolis with a star rating of 3-5 should prioritise the demographic and work characteristics of their employees in order to mitigate job stress, which can have a detrimental effect on employee performance.

Secondly, employees of hotels with a star rating of 3-5 in the Accra Metropolis manage their job tension by employing problem-focused and avoidance-focused strategies. This implies that employees of hotels in Accra with 3-5 stars engage in strategies such as reducing stress, obtaining advice from others, and paying less attention to job stressors in order to reduce their stress. In conclusion, employees must make a deliberate effort to manage job tension through their coping strategies. This suggests that job stress has the potential to affect employees and that it is important to take the necessary measures to promote a healthy work environment and provide resources to help employees manage their stress.

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Thirdly, the psychological well-being of hotel personnel in the Accra Metropolis who are employed in hotels with a star rating of 3-5 is influenced by job stress. This implies that employees' psychological well-being can be influenced by job tension in both positive and negative ways. Furthermore, the psychological well-being of employees is influenced by employment stress, as well as by individual and work characteristics. This suggests that hotel management should prioritise the psychological well-being of their employees and take measures to mitigate employment stress.

Fourthly, the job performance of hotel personnel who are employed at hotels with a rating of 3-5 stars is influenced by job stress. This suggests that job tension can either positively or negatively impact the job performance of employees in hotels with higher ratings. The results of the study suggested that the effects of employment stress on the performance of employees are facilitated by their individual and work characteristics. It is evident that employment stress has the potential to affect the performance of employees, and it is imperative that management take measures to mitigate it.

In general, job tension has an impact on psychological well-being and coping strategies. Nevertheless, the impact of workplace stress on job performance is positively influenced by psychological well-being and coping strategies. This suggests that the impact of work stress on employees' job performance is mitigated by an appropriate coping strategy and psychological well-being.

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Contribution to Knowledge

This investigation contributes to the field of occupational health psychology in the hotel sector in numerous ways. The study primarily drew principles from a variety of theories, such as the transactional theory of stress and coping, Ryff's psychological well-being, and the heuristic model of individual work performance. Stress was located within the transactional theory of stress and coping, while psychological well-being was in accordance with Ryff's psychological well-being model. Job performance was linked to the heuristic model of individual work performance. The findings of the investigation were satisfactorily elucidated by the theories. This implies that the research contributes to the refinement of the theories by offering empirical evidence that corroborates the existing theories.

Secondly, the research contributes to the modelling of the relationship between job stress, coping strategies, psychological well-being, and job performance. It is a fact that employees' psychological well-being and performance are both positively and negatively impacted by employment stress. Additionally, the implementation of an appropriate coping strategy can mitigate the detrimental effects of job stress on the psychological well-being and job performance of employees. Existing literature on the impact of job stress on the psychological well-being and job performance of hotel employees in Ghana lacks a comprehensive understanding of the intricate interactions between these variables, which is facilitated by modelling the relationship. Consequently, this investigation makes a substantial contribution to the field by providing innovative perspectives on the interrelationships

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between these variables and the effective management of them in the workplace.

In conclusion, this investigation evaluated the relationships among variables that were suggested by Cardoso and Jordão (2017) in the adapted conceptual framework (Holistic model of stress). Although Cardoso and Jordão (2017) expressed their opinions on the impact of job stress on variables such as psychological well-being and job performance, this study expands the framework by investigating the moderating influence of coping strategies and psychological well-being on job performance. In-depth explanations of the phenomenon under investigation were provided by the qualitative results. This contribution contributes to the theoretical and conceptual framework by offering practical insights into the promotion of the psychological well-being and job performance of employees in the hospitality industry.

Contribution to Practice

The study makes some contributions to the practice of the hospitality industry, particularly the hotel subsector, based on the findings of this study. Initially, it is imperative that hotel employees and managers, particularly human resource managers, are cognisant of the diverse job stressors (role excess, role ambiguity, role conflict, poor peer relations, and strenuous working conditions) and the ways in which individual and work-related characteristics contribute to job stress among employees. This would assist employees and managers in the implementation of measures such as the promotion of work-life balance, the provision of training and support to employees to manage job stress, and the enhancement of working conditions

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to resolve it. These measures have the potential to alleviate the tension experienced by employees. Secondly, managers should provide resources and support to enable employees to use problem-focused and avoidance-focused coping strategies to manage their job stress.

Thirdly, because job stress has both positive and negative effects on employees' psychological well-being and job performance, it is important for employees and managers to acknowledge and take action to mitigate the negative effects while leveraging the positive ones. This includes identifying and addressing sources of job stress, promoting work-life balance, and creating a supportive work environment. Lastly, managers should guarantee that employees have access to resources and support to enhance their psychological well-being and promote the implementation of suitable coping strategies to mitigate the impact of job stress on job performance. Hotel managers can foster a productive and healthy work environment for their employees by implementing these measures, which will ultimately benefit the hotel's bottom line.

Implications of the Study

In terms of the study's implications, the findings indicate that employees undergo job stress, which is caused by a combination of workplace stressors and specific demographic and work characteristics. It is widely recognised that job tension has a variety of adverse effects on the physical, mental, and job performance of employees. Nevertheless, the primary focus of this investigation was on job performance and psychological well-being. It was determined that employees' psychological well-being and job performance

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were both positively and negatively impacted by job stress. The physical and mental health of employees may be impacted by the potential adverse effects.

The research demonstrated that job stress is experienced by employees in hotels with a star rating of 3-5 in the Accra Metropolis as a result of demographic factors and work characteristics. The physical and mental health of employees, as well as their job performance, can be adversely affected by this job tension. Nevertheless, the investigation also discovered that employees' psychological well-being and job performance can be positively influenced by the implementation of appropriate coping strategies and a positive attitude.

It is crucial to acknowledge that hotel employees may be experiencing workplace stress, which can have a negative impact on their overall well-being and performance, as a customer of these hotels. Customers can alleviate job tension and foster a positive work environment by treating employees with respect and understanding. Furthermore, consumers have the opportunity to express their gratitude for the dedication of hotel employees and provide positive feedback, which can enhance their job satisfaction and overall well-being. Customers can contribute to the guarantee of a positive experience for all parties by advocating for the welfare of hotel employees.

The implications of the study for the hotel and hospitality industry are substantial. The results indicate that job tension is a common occurrence among hotel employees in the Accra Metropolis, which can have a detrimental effect on their job performance and psychological well-being. This, in turn, can result in a decrease in customer satisfaction and potentially lower revenue for hotels, as it can impact the grade of service provided to guests.

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In order to resolve this matter, the hotel and hospitality sector may implement measures to mitigate occupational stressors and enhance employee well-being. This may involve providing training and assistance to employees in the development of coping strategies for managing job stress, fostering a positive work environment with effective communication channels and opportunities for employee feedback, and addressing specific job stressors, such as role excess and strenuous working conditions.

There are numerous advantages for hotels to invest in employee well-being, such as increased job satisfaction, reduced absenteeism, and improved employee retention. These factors can result in improved customer service and increased revenue. In summary, the results of this study indicate that the hospitality industry and hotels should prioritise the well-being of their employees and address employment stressors in order to enhance the experiences of both they and their customers.

Recommendations

First, the study found that job stressor such as role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict and strenuous working conditions significantly influenced the psychological well-being and job performance employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in Accra Metropolis, Ghana. Based on this, it is recommended that hotel management establish a comprehensive and continuous stress management training programme. This programme should focus on time management, emotional regulation, problem-solving and conflict resolution skills. This should be implemented in the form of quarterly workshops and facilitated by the human resources managers, occupational

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psychologist or trained consultant. Also, management should review existing workload allocation, introduce flexible shift systems, especially during peak periods and ensure adequate staffing to minimise excessive job demands. In addition, employees can contribute by openly communicating workload challenges, seeking clarification on unclear tasks and engaging in peer collaboration to distribute tasks more effectively. This recommendation would ensure employees have enhanced ability to cope with job stress, leading to improved well-being and job performance.

Secondly, it was found that employees relied more on problem-focused coping, but also used avoidance and emotion-focused coping when stressors felt uncontrollable. Since coping strategies significantly influenced both psychological welling and job performance, it is recommended that hotel management strengthen employees' coping capacity through ongoing training. Training focused on developing adaptive skills such as problem-solving, emotion regulation, communication and conflict management. Human Resource managers should organise biannual or quarterly workshops, integrate coping-skills module during orientation programmes and provide access to psychological support. On the employees' part, they should make use of these learning opportunities, practise healthy coping behaviours such as seeking social support and avoiding withdrawal behaviours that may worsen stress. This will enable employees to manage stress more effectively to foster a healthier and more productive workforce.

Thirdly, stressors such as role ambiguity, role conflict and strenuous working conditions significantly affected various psychological well-being dimensions of 3-5 star-rated employees in Accra Metropolis, Ghana. To address this, hotel managers should improve the clarity in job roles and

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communication processes to minimise confusion and enhance employees' sense of control. This can be implemented by revising job descriptions, providing clear written role statements, organising regular departmental meetings and training supervisors to communicate expectations more consistently. Human resource managers and departmental leaders should lead these efforts. Employees can also take active steps to protect their psychological well-being by asking for clarification when expectations are unclear, practising self-care, seeking support from peers and supervisors and reporting early signs of stress before it escalates. The expected benefits are improved autonomy, environmental mastery and overall well-being among employees.

Fourthly, the study revealed that certain job stressors influence job performance outcomes differently but psychological well-being is a significant predictor of employee job performance. Based on this finding, it is recommended that hotel management establish systems that support employees' mental health, in-service training and work engagement. For instance, employee assistance programmes can improve physical working environments and peer support structures. Implementation should involve the human resource departments through counselling support, ergonomic improvements, regular team building activities and the provision of adequate work tools. Also, employees can enhance their performance by adopting positive coping strategies, maintaining open communication with supervisors and engaging in in-service training. The intended benefit is a more motivated, healthier and highly productive workforce.

Finally, it was found that coping strategies and psychological well-being significantly mediate and enhance the effect of job stress on job performance of employees in 3-5 star-rated hotel in Accra Metropolis, Ghana.

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It is recommended that employees actively invest in strengthening their coping strategies and psychological well-being through seeking social support, participating in relaxation activities and dedicating time for personal hobbies that restore emotional balance. At the organisational level, management should create supportive environments that promote employee well-being such as periodic get together where staff can relax, socialise and engage in preferred leisure activities. These initiatives should be coordinated by the human resources department and departmental heads. This will ensure that employees are resilient, have enhanced psychological well-being and improved capacity to maintain high performance regardless of their working conditions.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Studies

This study aimed at assessing the effects of job stress on the psychological well-being and performance of employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in the Accra Metropolis, Ghana. Although insightful findings emerged from the study, there were some limitations that this section seeks to highlight and offer suggestions that need to be further explored in future research.

The assessment of job stress focused on the stressor and not directly job stress. COVID-19 also affected the data collection. Since the exercise was conducted right after the COVID-19 pandemic, there is a likelihood that it influenced the responses given by employees. Furthermore, variables such as working hours, shift periods and others were not included and this could have contributed to the factors that influence employees' job stress, coping strategies, psychological well-being and job performance.

Based on the limitations, future studies should consider assessing the effect of job stress on employees' work-life balance and the mediating role of

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work-life balance in the relationship between employees' job stress and their psychological well-being and job performance. Also, the influence of variables such as working hours, shift periods and geographic location also impacted job stress and affected hotel employees' psychological well-being and performance.

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APPENDICIES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Title: JOB STRESS, PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND PERFORMANCE OF EMPLOYEES IN 3-5 STAR– RATED HOTELS IN THE ACCRA METROPOLIS.

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Lily A. Abloh and I am a PhD student researching the effects of job stress, psychological well-being and performance of employees of 3-5 star-rated hotels in the Accra Metropolis, Ghana. The information you will provide is purely for academic purpose and your anonymity is guaranteed. Also, your responses will be treated with the utmost confidentially. As a result, your responses will not be identified with your name. For further information and clarification, contact me on 0244793350 or lily.abloh@stu.ucc.edu.gh.

Thank you for your assistance.

Section A: Factors that induce job stress among hotel employees

On a scale of 1-5 with 1 showing strongly disagree and 5 showing strongly agree, indicate your level of agreement with the following items. Thank you.

Item	1	2	3	4	5
1. I have a heavy workload.					
2. The limited number of employees and resources are burdensome					

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3. I have to work hurriedly owing to excessive workload.					
4. My work is looked down on by my higher authorities.					
5. I have to do works ought to be done by others.					
6. I am not able to carry out my assignment to my satisfaction.					
7. I do not know the planned goals and objectives for my job.					
8. I do not understand what my responsibilities are.					
9. I do not receive the right amount of work to do.					
10. I know what is expected of me.					
11. I do get different instructions regarding my works from my supervisors.					
12. My supervisors do not interfere with my work and working methods.					
13. I am not provided with clear instructions regarding a new assignment.					
14. I am not able to follow instructions / working procedures.					
15. It is difficult to implement new working procedures and policies.					
16. Working with my colleagues is difficult.					
17. My colleagues and subordinates do not make fun of my failure at work.					
18. I am not able to cooperate with my colleagues voluntarily.					
19. There is no team spirit among myself and my colleagues.					
20. I do my work under less tense circumstances.					
21. My assignments are risky/ complicated.					
22. I feel that this job has not made my life cumbersome.					
23. I am not satisfied with the working conditions here.					

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Section B: Coping strategies of hotel employees

The following statements refers to how you generally respond to stressful situations you experience in your job. On a scale of 1-5 with 1 showing strongly disagree and 5 showing strongly agreement, indicate your level of agreement with the following items. Thank you.

Item	1	2	3	4	5
24. I take steps to eliminate work-related problems.					
25. I think about dealing with work-related problems.					
26. I focus on work-related problems.					
27. I wait for the right moment to act.					
28. I seek advice from others.					
29. I reframe the stressor in positive terms.					
30. I learn to accept work-related problems.					
31. I refuse to believe work-related problems are real.					
32. I use faith for support.					
33. I seek sympathy from others.					
34. I talk to others about my work-related problems.					
35. I give up trying to deal with work-related problems.					
36. I distract myself from thinking about work-related problems.					
37. I use alcohol or drugs to reduce stress.					
38. I pay less attention to work-related problems.					

39. How do you deal with your stress?.....

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Section C: Psychological Well-Being of Hotel Employees

On a scale of 1-5 with 1 showing strongly disagree and 5 showing strongly agree, indicate your level of agreement with the following items. Thank you.

Item	1	2	3	4	5
40. I like my personality.					
41. I am pleased with how things have turned out so far in my life.					
42. I am pleased with my achievements in life.					
43. I don't wander aimlessly through life.					
44. I live life one day at a time.					
45. I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life.					
46. I am able to maintain close relationships with others.					
47. People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.					
48. I have experienced warm and trusting relationships with others.					
49. Life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth for me.					
50. It is important to have new experiences that challenge how I think about myself and the world.					
51. I keep trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago.					
52. The demands of everyday life do not get me down.					
53. I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.					
54. I manage well the responsibilities of daily life.					

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55. I am not influenced by people with strong opinions.					
56. I have confidence in my own opinions.					
57. I judge myself by what I think is important.					

Section D: Performance of hotel employees

On a scale of 1-5 with 1 showing strongly disagree agree and 5 showing strongly agree, indicate your level of agreement with the following items. Thank you.

Items	1	2	3	4	5
58. I manage to get my work so that it is done on time.					
59. My planning is optimal.					
60. I keep in mind the results that I have to achieve in my work.					
61. I am able to separate main issues from side issues at work.					
62. I am able to perform my work well with minimal effort.					
63. I have taken on extra responsibilities.					
64. I start new tasks myself when my old ones are finished.					
65. I take on challenging work tasks, when available.					
66. I work at keeping my job knowledge up-to-date.					
67. I work at keeping my job skills up-to-date.					
68. I come up with creative solutions to new problems.					
69. I keep looking for new challenges in my job.					
70. I actively participate in work meetings.					
71. I complain about unimportant matters at work.					
72. I make problems greater than they are at work.					
73. I focus on the negative aspects of a work situation, instead of on the positive aspects.					

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74. I speak with my colleagues about the negative aspects of my work.					
75. I speak with people from outside the organization about the negative aspects of my work.					
76. I demonstrate physical adaptability whenever there are changes.					
77. I show cultural adaptability at work.					
78. I maintain an adaptive interpersonal relationship with my colleagues.					
79. I master tasks, technical tools and work procedures.					

Section E: Background characteristics of hotel employees

80. Sex: ……..

a) Male [ ] b) Female [ ]

81. Age [In Completed years]: …….

82. Level of education

a. No formal education [ ]
b. Primary [ ]
c. JHS/Middle [ ]
d. SHS/Secondary [ ]
e. Graduate [ ]
f. Postgraduate [ ]
g. Other……..

83. What is your income per month?.....

84. What is your religious background?

a. Christian [ ]
b. Muslim [ ]
c. Traditionalist [ ]

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d. Other…….

85. Marital status

a. Unmarried [ ]

b. Married [ ]

c. Divorced [ ]

d. Separated [ ]

e. Widow [ ]

86. Do you have dependents under 5years? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

87. Star- rating of hotel: …….

88. Work experience in this current hotel: …….

(years)

89. Which department are you? …….

90. Work position: ……

91. Status of employment:…….. a. full-time b. part-time

THANK YOU

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APPENDIX B

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Introduction: I am interested in your experience on the effect of job stress on your psychological well-being and job performance. I will be asking some questions about your experience with job stress, psychological well-being and performance. Your name will not be recorded. Participation is confidential and voluntary, and you can refuse to answer questions if you don't feel comfortable. You can also withdraw from the interview at any time. Do you consent to me recording our conversation?

Interview #..... Date of Interview…….

Start time…… End time……..

MODULE 1: FACTORS THAT INDUCE JOB STRESS

1. Do you have any stress related experience you would like to share with me when you were in direct contact with clients?
2. Based on your experience, what are the main factors that induce of stress? That is, what areas of their work do they find most troubling?
3. How regularly do you present sick leave applications?
4. How often do you experience job-related stress?

MODULE 2: COPING STRATEGIES

5. Are you able to cope with the demands of your job?
6. How do you cope with job stress?

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7. In your experience, what methods do you use to cope with job-related demands?
8. In your experience, what are the risk factors associated with stress and stress-related issues?

MODULE 3: EFFECTS OF JOB STRESS ON PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

9. How does job stress (job demands) affect your psychological well-being?
    a. Probe based on self-acceptance (i.e.: being pleased with one's achievements)
    b. Probe based on purpose in life (i.e.: having goals to achieve)
    c. Probe based on positive relations with others (i.e.: having close relations with others)
    d. Probe based on personal growth (i.e.: learning lessons in life)
    e. Probe based on environmental mastery (i.e.: managing responsibilities well each day)
    f. Probe based on autonomy (i.e.: less influence from others)
10. What do you do to reduce or stop the effect of job stress on your psychological well-being?
11. How long does it take you to reduce the effect of job stress (job demands) on your psychological well-being?

MODULE 4: EFFECTS OF JOB STRESS ON JOB PERFORMANCE

12. How does job stress (job demands) affect your job performance?
    a. Probe based on task performance (i.e.: complete assigned task as expected)

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b. Probe based on contextual performance (i.e.: take initiatives to improve your work)

c. Probe based on counterproductive performance (i.e.: complain about the negative things about your job)

d. Probe based on adaptive performance (i.e.: develop skills to cope with colleagues and assigned task)

13. What do you do to reduce or stop the effect of job stress (job demands) on your job performance?

14. How long does it take you to reduce the effect of job stress (job demands) on your job performance?

MODULE 5: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

15. Sex: a. Male ☐ b. Female ☐

16. Age: _____

17. Highest level of education completed:

a. No formal education ☐

b. Basic (JSS, JHS, Middle School) ☐

c. Secondary/Vocational ☐

d. Tertiary (University, Tech. University/Polytechnic) ☐

e. Other, Specify _____

18. Have you received any training on stress management? Yes ☐ No ☐

19. If yes, please indicate the frequency. Once a year ☐ Twice a year ☐ Thrice a year ☐

20. What is your job position & department? _____

21. Years worked in the industry: _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

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APPENDIX C

ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVAL LETTER



UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT

TEL.: 0558093143 / 0508878309
E-MAIL: irb@ucc.edu.gh
OUR REF: UCC/IRB/A/2016/918
YOUR REF:
OMB NO: 0990-0279
IORG #: IORG0009096

9TH MARCH, 2021

Ms. Lily Atswei Abloh
Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
University of Cape Coast

Dear Ms. Abloh,

ETHICAL CLEARANCE – ID (UCCIRB/CHLS/2021/06)

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted **Provisional Approval** for the implementation of your research titled **Job Stress, Psychological Well-Being and Performances of Employees in 3-5 Star-Rated Hotels in The Accra Metropolis**. This approval is valid from 9th March, 2021 to 8th March, 2022. You may apply for a renewal subject to submission of all the required documents that will be prescribed by the UCCIRB.

Please note that any modification to the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation. You are required to submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol.

Yours faithfully,

Samuel Asiedu Owusu, PhD
UCCIRB Administrator

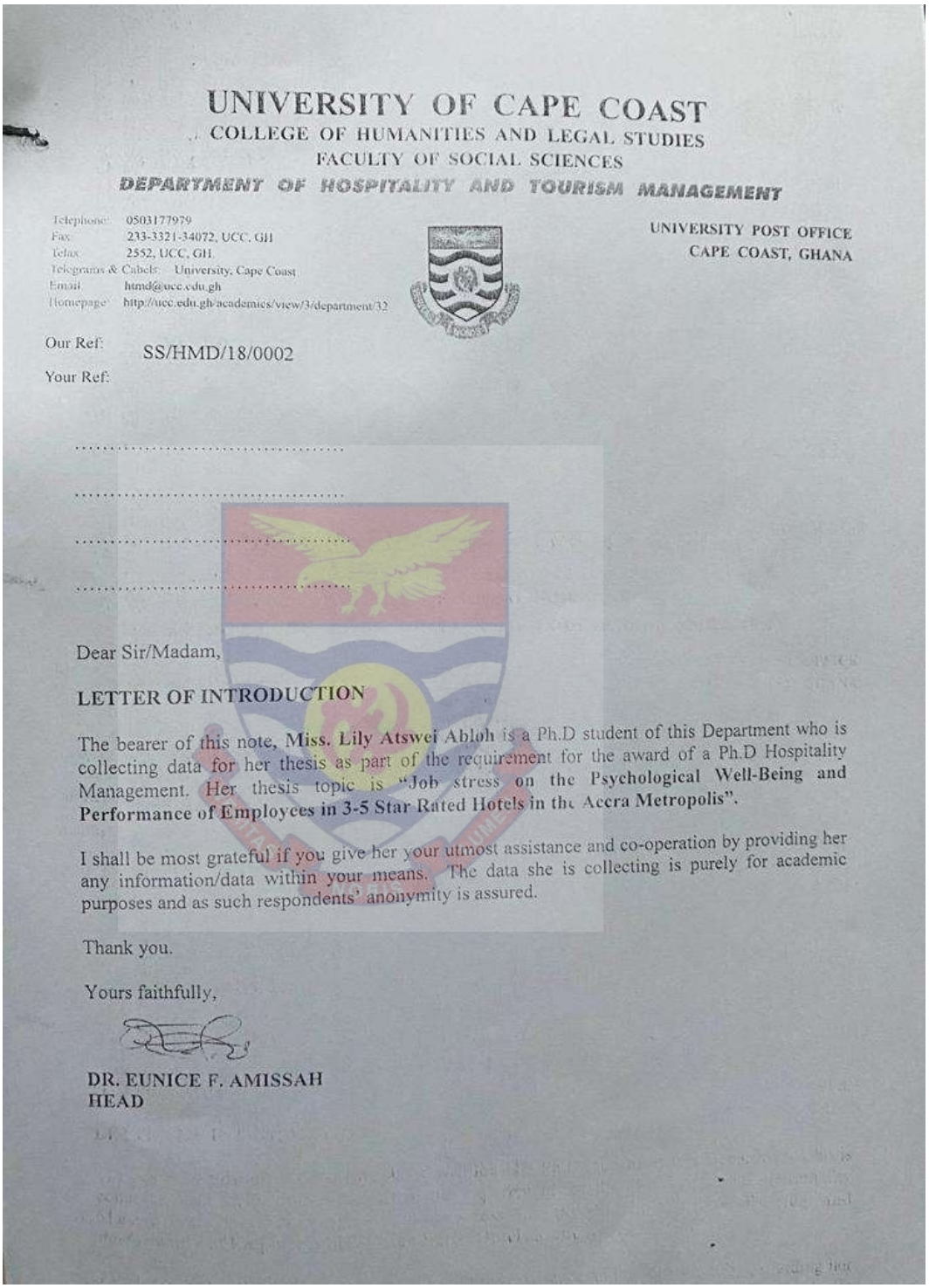
ADMINISTRATOR
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

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APPENDIX D

INTRODUCTORY LETTER



UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Telephone: 0503177979
Fax: 233-3321-34072, UCC, GH
Telex: 2552, UCC, GH
Telegrams & Cabels: University, Cape Coast
Email: htmd@ucc.edu.gh
Homepage: http://ucc.edu.gh/academics/view/3/department/32

UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

Our Ref: SS/HMD/18/0002
Your Ref:

.....
.....
.....
.....

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

The bearer of this note, **Miss. Lily Atswei Abloh** is a Ph.D student of this Department who is collecting data for her thesis as part of the requirement for the award of a Ph.D Hospitality Management. Her thesis topic is **"Job stress on the Psychological Well-Being and Performance of Employees in 3-5 Star Rated Hotels in the Accra Metropolis".**

I shall be most grateful if you give her your utmost assistance and co-operation by providing her any information/data within your means. The data she is collecting is purely for academic purposes and as such respondents' anonymity is assured.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

DR. EUNICE F. AMISSAH
HEAD

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APPENDIX E

EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF JOB STRESS

Factors	EFA loadings	%	Eigenvalue	α
Job stress		**29.74**	**6.84**	**0.88**
I have a heavy workload.	0.26			
I am able to manage with the insufficient number of employees and resources.	0.33			
I have to work hurriedly owing to excessive workload.	0.40			
My work is not looked down on by my higher authorities.	0.46			
I have to do works ought to be done by others.	0.13			
I am able to carry out my assignment to my satisfaction.	0.49			
I know the planned goals and objectives for my job.	0.61			
I understand what my responsibilities are.	0.62			
I receive the right amount of work to do.	0.50			
I know what is expected of me.	0.67			
I do not get different instructions regarding my works from my officers.	0.44			
My leaders do not interfere with my work and working methods.	0.50			
I am provided with clear instructions regarding a new assignment.	0.62			
I am able to follow instructions and working procedures.	0.61			

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It is not difficult to implement new working procedures and policies.	0.63
Working with my colleagues is not difficult.	0.66
My colleagues and subordinates do not make fun of my failure at work.	0.62
I am able to cooperate with my colleagues voluntarily.	0.7
There is team spirit among myself and my colleagues.	0.68
I do my work under less tense circumstances.	0.59
My assignments are not risky and complicated.	0.57
I feel that this job has not made my life cumbersome.	0.49
I am satisfied with the working conditions here.	0.51

KMO=0.87, chi^2=2326.85, df=253, sig.=0.00

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APPENDIX F

EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF COPING STRATEGIS

Factors	EFA loadings	%	Eigenvalue	α
Coping Strategies		**25.51**	**3.83**	**0.76**
I take steps to eliminate the problem.	0.56			
I think about dealing with the problem.	0.67			
I focus on the problem.	0.54			
I wait for the right moment to act.	0.59			
I seek advice from others.	0.61			
I reframe the stressor in positive terms.	0.61			
I learn to accept the problem.	0.58			
I refuse to believe the problem is real.	0.47			
I use faith for support.	0.57			
I seek sympathy from others.	0.26			
I talk to others (friends and relatives) about my problem.	0.37			
I give up trying to deal with the problem.	0.54			
I distract myself from thinking about the problem.	0.46			
I use alcohol or drugs to reduce stress.	0.25			
I pay less attention to the problem.	0.18			

KMO=0.78, chi^2=941.37, df=105, sig.=0.00

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APPENDIX G

EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

Factors	EFA loadings	%	Eigenvalue	α
Psychological well-being		**32.46**	**5.84**	**0.87**
I like my personality.	0.62			
I am pleased with how things have turned out so far in my life.	0.53			
I am pleased with my achievements in life.	0.49			
I don't wonder aimlessly through life.	0.57			
I live life one day at a time.	0.52			
I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life.	0.19			
I am able to maintain close relationships with others.	0.52			
People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.	0.55			
I have experienced warm and trusting relationships with others.	0.58			
Life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth for me.	0.67			
It is important to have new experiences that challenge how I think about myself and the world.	0.64			
I keep trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago.	0.64			
The demands of everyday life do not	0.59			

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get me down.	
I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.	0.50
I manage well the responsibilities of daily life.	0.66
I am not influenced by people with strong opinions.	0.52
I have confidence in my own opinions.	0.66
I judge myself by what I think is important.	0.59

KMO=0.87, chi^2=1825.74, df=153, sig.=0.00

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APPENDIX H

EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

Factors	EFA loadings	%	Eigenvalue	α
Job performance		**27.4**	**6.03**	**0.8**
I manage to get my work so that it is done on time.	0.66			
My planning is optimal.	0.61			
I keep in mind the results that I have to achieve in my work.	0.61			
I am able to separate main issues from side issues at work.	0.63			
I am able to perform my work well with minimal effort.	0.57			
I have taken on extra responsibilities.	0.62			
I start new tasks myself when my old ones are finished.	0.61			
I take on challenging work tasks, when available.	0.62			
I work at keeping my job knowledge up-to-date.	0.70			
I work at keeping my job skills up-to-date.	0.70			
I come up with creative solutions to new problems.	0.59			
I keep looking for new challenges in my job.	0.50			
I actively participate in work meetings.	0.41			
I complain about unimportant matters at work.	0.15			
I make problems greater than they are at	-0.14			

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work.	
I focus on the negative aspects of a work situation, instead of on the positive aspects.	-0.22
I speak with my colleagues about the negative aspects of my work.	-0.09
I speak with people from outside the organization about the negative aspects of my work.	-0.22
I demonstrate physical adaptability whenever there are changes.	0.46
I show cultural adaptability at work.	0.60
I maintain an adaptive interpersonal relationship with my colleagues.	0.58
I master tasks, technical tools and work procedures.	0.43

KMO=0.85, chi^2=2334.63, df=213, sig.=0.00

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APPENDIX I

VARIANCE INFLATION FACTOR (VIF) OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLE FOR LINEAR REGRESSION

Variable	VIF	1/VIF
Sex (Ref. Male)	1.1	0.89
Star rating (Ref. 3-star)		
4-star	1.5	0.68
5-star	1.6	0.64
Employment status (Ref. Full time)	1.1	0.90
Dependents under 5 (Ref. No)	1.3	0.76
Age (Ref. ≤29 years)		
30-39	2.1	0.48
≥40	2.7	0.37
Educational level (Ref. SHS)		
Graduate	2.2	0.45
Postgradute	2.1	0.47
Other	1.3	0.76
Income (Ref. ≤ 1000 Gh)		
1001-2000	2.2	0.46
2001-3000	2.4	0.41
≥3001	2.3	0.43
Religion (Ref. Christian)	1.1	0.95
Marital status (Ref. Unmarried)	1.7	0.61
Department (Ref. Food and Beverage)		
Front Office	1.5	0.68
Housekeeping	1.5	0.67
Other	1.4	0.71
Work experience (Ref. ≤5 years)		
6-10	1.5	0.69
≥11	1.5	0.66
Mean VIF	1.7	

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