THE RELATIONSHIP OF JOB STRESSORS WITH JOB OUTCOMES: EXPLAINING THE UNDERLYING MECHANISMS AND THE ROLE OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy/Science in Management Sciences with specialization in Management/ Human Resource Management at the Faculty of Management Sciences

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"In The Name of ALLAH, The most Merciful and Beneficent"

Dedication

"I dedicate this thesis to my loving parents and my husband for their support, guidance, encouragement, and prayers without which it would have been impossible for me to complete my Thesis and also dedicate this thesis to my two adorable sons for their love and support"

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ABSTRACT

This study tried to fulfil an important theoretical and empirical gap in the domain of challenge-hindrance stressors framework by examining the basic assumptions of the Transactional Theory of Stress as an underlying mechanisms through which job stressors influence job attitudes and behaviour. Particularly, this study examined whether individual appraise stressors of job complexity as a challenge and perceived organizational politics as a hindrance and how these appraisals (job complexity challenge appraisal and perceived organizational politics hindrance appraisal) mediate the stressors (job complexity, perceived organizational politics) and job outcomes (job satisfaction, job engagement, job performance and job creativity) relationship respectively. This study also proposed the role of core self-evaluations as a moderator in the stressors-appraisal-job outcomes relationship respectively.

The suggested model was examined by using a time-lagged research design to address the temporal influence of variables at time1 and time2. A total of 311 paired responses are finalized after matching of time1 and time2 responses along with supervisor-reported response for job performance and job creativity. Data was collected from various private and public sector organizations located in two major cities of Pakistan e.g. Islamabad and Lahore. Data was collected through questionnaires developed through adapting the measures.

The results of the study indicated that job complexity and perceived organizational politics were found to be positively associated with job complexity challenge appraisal and perceived organizational politics hindrance appraisal respectively. Regarding the direct relationship of job complexity and job complexity challenge appraisal with job outcomes, both were found to have a significant positive relationship with self-reported job attitudes (job satisfaction and job engagement) and

an insignificant relationship with supervisor-reported job behaviours (job performance and job creativity). This study findings revealed that job complexity challenge appraisal acted as a full mediator between job complexity and self-reported job attitudes (job satisfaction and job engagement). However, job complexity challenge appraisal didn't emerged as a significant mediator between job complexity and supervisor-reported outcomes (job performance and job creativity).

Perceived organizational politics was found to have a significant negative relationship with self-reported job attitudes (job satisfaction and job engagement) and an insignificant relationship with supervisor-reported job behaviours (job performance and job creativity). Perceived organizational politics hindrance appraisal was found to have an insignificant relationship with self-reported job attitudes (job satisfaction and job engagement). However, perceived organizational politics hindrance appraisal had a significant negative relationship with supervisor-reported outcomes (job performance and job creativity). This study results indicated that perceived organizational politics hindrance appraisal didn't mediate between perceived organizational politics and self-reported job attitudes (job satisfaction and job engagement). Moreover, perceived organizational politics hindrance appraisal acted as a full mediator between perceived organizational politics and supervisor-reported job outcomes (job performance and job creativity).

CSE emerged as a significant moderator in the perceived organizational politics-perceived organizational politics hindrance appraisal relationship such that positive core self-evaluations weakened the positive association between perceived organizational politics and perceived organizational politics hindrance appraisal. However, positive core self-evaluations didn't moderate the job complexity-job complexity challenge appraisal relationship. Positive core self-evaluations also

moderated the job complexity challenge appraisal-job outcomes (job satisfaction and job creativity) relationship where positive core self-evaluations strengthened the positive association of job complexity challenge appraisal with job satisfaction and job creativity. Moreover, positive core self-evaluations didn't emerged as a significant moderator in the job complexity challenge appraisal-job outcomes (job engagement and job performance) relationship. Positive core self-evaluations also emerged as a significant moderator in the perceived organizational politics-job outcomes (job satisfaction, job engagement and job performance) relationship where positive core self-evaluations strengthened the positive relationship between perceived organizational politics hindrance appraisal and job outcomes (job satisfaction and job engagement) and negative core self-evaluations strengthened the negative relationship between perceived organizational politics hindrance appraisal and job performance. However, positive core self-evaluations didn't moderate the perceived organizational politics hindrance appraisal-job creativity relationship. Lastly, the strengths and limitations, future research directions of the study are discussed along with the theoretical and managerial implications of the study.

List of Abbreviations

JC= Job Complexity

JCCA= Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal

JE= Job Engagement

JP= Job Performance

JS= Job Satisfaction

POP= Perceived Organizational Politics

POPHA= Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal

Time1= T1

Time2= T2

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1 Introduction

1.1 Background

Job stress at the workplace is an inevitable reality. Job stress is considered as the most widely researched area within the field of organizational behavior. Today, employees working in numerious occupations across the world are experiencing high levels of stress due to several reasons. Some of these include role stressors, increased workloads, extensive job scopes, organizational politics, job insecurity, and situational constraints among many others (Casey, 2012; Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; Christo & Pienaar, 2006; Eurofond, 2012; Rosen, Chang, Djurdjevic, & Eatough, 2010). Nevertheless, from research perspective, it remains a major concern that whether this trend of increasing workplace stress continues in future. In the meanwhile, evidence suggests that it may continue to influence employees, organizations, and the national economy negatively (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Spector, 2008; Stroud, 2008).

The current research in the field of occupational stress has recognized that costs of a stressful job environment are huge because of decreased Job Satisfaction (JS), commitment, morale, Job Performance (JP), efficiency, and effectiveness and an increased rate of absenteeism, turnover, and accidents (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005; Macik-Frey, Quick, Quick, & Nelson, 2009; Perrewe´ et al., 2005; Richardson, 2017; Rosch, 2001; Spector, 2008; Spector, Chen, & O'Connell, 2000; Xie & Schaubroeck, 2001).

For more than a century, researchers have taken interest in exploring the work stressors and JP relationships. Unfortunately, organizational researchers have had problems rationalizing that why and how work stressors are linked with JP (Richardson, 2017; Rosen et al., 2015; Webster, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2010; Zhang, LePine, Buckman, & Wei, 2014). It is highly

important to explain this inconsistency due to academic and its practical reasons. According to academic viewpoint, it is very crucial to elucidate the relationship of stress with JP, which is recognized as the most important dependent variable according to the management scholars (Rosen et al., 2015). According to the practical point of view, since organizations spend enormous resources to deal with stress (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001; Riga, 2006), it is imperative to comprehend how stress influences job outcomes in order to enhance the effectiveness of stress management practices (Ivancevich & Ganster, 2014; Ongori & Agolla, 2008).

The distinction between "good" stress and "bad" stress is one of the reasons for conflicting findings on the relationship between stress and JP (Ongori & Agolla, 2008; Rodell & Judge, 2009). Selye (1976, 1982), who is recognized as the initiator of the differentiation between "eustress" (good stress) and "distress" (bad stress), conceptualized it in different ways stating that the dissimilarity between classifications of stress must be founded on the category of stressor (i.e., category of demand) instead of the degree of stressor (i.e., level of demand).

Furthermore, Selye (1976, 1982) limited his theory only to the physiological consequences of distress without investigating its relationship with JP. Moreover, Selye (1976, 1982) talked about eustress to a limited extent in his theory mentioning only that this type of stressors has got positive influences regarding emotions and health outcomes. Although Selye's (1974, 1976, 1980) differentiation between work stressors (i.e., eustress and distress) has been acknowledged but given less attention in the empirical studies in the area of work stress.

In majority of previous researches, stressors (unfavorable working conditions) had a negative influence on behaviors and attitudes of employees (e.g., Boyd, Lewin, & Sager, 2009; Hargrove, Nelson, & Cooper, 2013; Jaramillo, Mulki, & Boles, 2011; Nelson & Simmons, 2011; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007; Simona, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008) and employees'

mental and physical health (Jex & Yankelevich, 2008; Semmer, McGrath, & Beehr, 2005; Sonnentag & Frese, 2003). These research studies have followed a negative linear model in explaining the expected negative association of Hindrance Stressors (HS) with JP, which suggests that stressors are harmful to JP (Beehr, Jex, Stacy, & Murray, 2000; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008; LePine et al., 2005; Muse, Harris, & Feild, 2003).

For substantiating this negative relationship between stressors and JP, research studies have provided numerous theoretical arguments. Firstly, when employees appraise a demand as a hindrance, e.g., threatening or harmful, they will feel anxious and distressed and will utilize time and energy to deal with the stressor. Thus, job stressors are believed to diminish an individual's capacity to accomplish because their energy might be directed to deal with the stressors instead of performing the main job functions (Jex, 1998; Ongori & Agolla 2008; Rosen et al., 2015). Secondly, research studies have consistently reported that high intensity of stressors is related to unconscious physiological responses that hamper the JP (Lazarus, 1999; Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986). Thirdly, stressors' high intensity has a propensity for initiating a situation where employees experience information overload, resulting in limiting employees' perceptual attention. As a result, employees tend to disregard the performance-related information and signs, thus harming their JP (Cohen, 1980).

On the other hand, when the empirical studies on stressors were more carefully scrutinized, it was found that not all stressors are harmful concerning their influence on job attitudes and other retention-related outcomes (Beehr, Glaser, Canali, & Wallwey, 2001; Dwyer & Ganster, 1991). For instance, Dwyer and Ganster (1991) conducted a study on manufacturing employees and reported that quantitative workload positively influences JS but negatively influences voluntary

absences. Moreover, Beehr et al. (2001) reported that job demands positively influence JS of employees and negatively influence their turnover intentions.

Due to these conflicting findings, researchers in the area of occupational stress have started recognizing that work stressors are not only 'bad', but they can be good with regard to their effect on job attitudes (e.g., Beehr et al., 2001; Boswell, Olson-Buchanan, & LePine, 2004; Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2007), JP (e.g., Bland, 1999; Jamal, 2011; LePine et al., 2005; Muse et al., 2003; Wallace, Edwards, Arnold, Frazier, & Finch, 2009), and withdrawal behaviors (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2007).

Generally, regarding the relationship of stress with JP, the stress, which is conceptualized as good, is neither too high nor too low (e.g., Nelson & Simmons, 2011; Quick, Quick, Nelson, & Hurrell, 1997; Quick, Wright, Adkins, Nelson, & Quick, 2013). The hypothesized framework that rationalizes the anticipated positive association of Challenge Stressors (CS) with JP is known as the positive linear model. It suggests that when a stressor is perceived as a challenge, it might lead to inner stimulation and superior performance results (LePine et al., 2005; McGrath, 1976).

1.2 Justification of Study and Gap Analysis

Recently, Cavanaugh et al. (2000) clearly recognized these differences in work stressors in their challenge-hindrance model of occupational stressors. According to this model, work-related stressors are categorized into two types, e.g., CS and HS. The CS (stressors which are appraised by individuals as possibly promoting their individual growth and success) are believed to have a positive relationship with favorable outcomes, whereas HS (stressors which are appraised by individuals as potentially hindering their personal progress and success) are believed to have a negative relationship with unfavorable outcomes. The model is becoming popular in the domain

of occupational stressors (Webster et al., 2010) and has received empirical support for the main hypothesis in the framework (Pearsall, Ellis, & Stein, 2009).

Numerous empirical studies have reported that CS and HS have a distinct relationship with employee cognitions, job attitudes, and behaviors (Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; LePine et al., 2005). Recently, the meta-analyses of the stressors-JP relationship conducted by Gilboa et al. (2008) and LePine et al. (2005) reported inconsistent findings regarding the role of high demands. LePine et al. (2005) categorized high quantitative demands as a CS and CS were found to have a positive relationship with JP. On the contrary, Gilboa et al. (2008) reported that role overload had no significant relationship with three out of four indicators of JP. Hence, it is still uncertain that whether high job demands are appraised as challenging and cause extraordinary performance.

Rosen et al. (2010) argued that although meta-analysis studies are important, but they emphasize on the bivariate relationships between stressors and JP which makes it difficult to examine more complex relationships, e.g., indirect or moderation effects. Therefore, Rosen et al. (2015) urged the need for more primary studies to investigate complex process-based models which relate stressors with JP. Moreover, Rosen et al. (2015) also cautioned researchers about using aggregation approach in research as Gilboa et al. (2008) criticized that the process used to classify different stressors into challenge versus hindrance group might lack rigor. In addition, findings of the studies (Chang et al., 2009) indicated that even the constructs, which were classified by LePine et al. (2005) as HS, exhibited different types of relationships with outcomes.

Rosen et al. (2010), on the basis of the findings of their literature review, restated and emphasized the original suggestion of Jex (1998) that researchers should give attention to not only the direct relationship of specific stressors with JP but also the underlying mechanisms explaining

this relationship where psychological states, cognitions or emotions might be playing the role of mediators. Rosen et al. (2010) also recommended that future research should focus more on testing the existing theories instead of developing new theories by emphasizing more on examining mediators and moderators resulting from the existing theories. It is important to explore the intervening or mediating mechanisms as it signifies "fundamental question in science" (Kenny, 2008, p. 354) that permits researchers to examine and change theoretical frameworks (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). Rosen et al. (2015) also suggested that instead of cross-sectional studies, researchers should focus more on longitudinal studies by measuring stressors and outcomes at multiple points in time.

Although researchers have tried to answer the query that why and how work stressors influence JP with a number of stress theories (See for the latest review Rosen et al., 2010), however, there are very few studies which have incorporated the Transactional Theory of Stress (TTS) conceptualized by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) to answer this query. Recently, there has been a renewal of interest by researchers in this TTS which is evident from these studies (LePine, Zhang, Crawford, & Rich, 2016; Steenbergen, Ellemers, Haslam, & Urlings, 2008; Tuckey, Searle, Boyd, Winefield, & Winefield, 2015; Webster, Beehr, & Love, 2011).

The challenge-hindrance model of occupational stress has its origin from the TTS (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) which is established and well-recognized in the general stress literature (Webster et al., 2010). TTS suggests that stressors (environmental circumstances) immediately do not lead to a stress reaction. Instead, it is an individual assessment of hindrance (threat) or challenge which influences the reaction (Giancola, Grawitch, & Borchert, 2009; Storch, Gaab, Kuttel, Stussi, & Fend, 2007).

According to this Cognitive theory of stress, primary appraisal, which is a person's assessment of the situation, performs a significant role in the process of stress. Primary appraisal is believed to ascertain that whether a particular incident or facet of a situation is appraised as a hindrance or a challenge and is regarded as an important perceptual means in the relationship of stressors with outcomes. Circumstances, which are evaluated as having the possibility for returns, for instance, progress, acknowledgment, and appreciation, are considered as challenge appraisals, while hindrance appraisals are those having the probability to frighten one's well-being by disrupting the achievement of objectives and development (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Skinner & Brewer, 2002).

The studies on the challenge-hindrance model have somewhat implicit assumptions that some of the stressors would be perceived as challenges, whereas some as hindrances (LePine et al., 2005). Even though the empirical studies have categorized stressors as hindrances or challenges on the assumption that generally, the majority of individuals appraise stressors in a similar way but it can be argued that employees' appraisals is the underlying means for the distinct relationship of challenge/hindrance stressors with job outcomes (LePine et al., 2005). This study's aim is to test the basic assumptions of the TTS by actually assessing employees' challenge and hindrance evaluation of workplace stressors.

Initially, studies incorporating the TTS within the challenge-hindrance model investigated only the challenge appraisal (Ohly & Fritz, 2010) and felt challenge (Boswell et al., 2004). In recent times, there is a growing attention by researchers in the TTS and researchers have started analyzing both the hindrance and challenge appraisals (LePine et al., 2016; Tuckey et al., 2015; Webster et al., 2011).

For instance, Webster et al. (2011) conducted a study in which they examined the theoretical foundation of the challenge-hindrance model of occupational stress, e.g., the TTS, and investigated that responsibility and workload are assessed as challenges, and both role conflict and ambiguity are evaluated as hindrances. Moreover, they also reported that primary appraisal acted as a partial mediator in the stressors-outcomes (i.e., job dissatisfaction, strains, and turnover intentions) relationship. Moreover, Tuckey et al. (2015) distinguished between the challenge-hindrance-threat framework and reported that employees appraise organizational constraints as hindrances which, in turn, cause fatigue, appraise role conflict as threats which, in turn, cause anxiety, and appraise skill demands as challenges which, in turn, cause enthusiasm.

Recently, LePine et al. (2016), founding their theoretical model on the TTS, examined the challenge and hindrance appraisal of CS and HS, respectively and how these appraisals, in turn, influence JP. They also examined the role of charismatic leadership in the appraisal of stressors and how these appraisals, in turn, influence the JP. They conducted two studies to test their theoretical model. The results of study 1 reported that marines, who were having charismatic leaders (where superiors judged marines leaders as charismatic), appraised CS as challenging and they responded more positively to this challenge appraisal with greater JP. Though charismatic leadership did not moderate the HS and hindrance appraisal relationship, but it buffered the strong negative relationship of hindrance appraisal with JP. The results of study 2 reported that charismatic leadership (where marines themselves rated charismatic leaders) moderated the stressors (CS and HS)-appraisals (challenge and hindrance)-JP relationship.

Despite the fact that primary appraisal is an inherent component of the challenge-hindrance framework, but unfortunately, there are very few empirical studies which have directly investigated it (LePine et al., 2016; Tuckey et al., 2015; Webster et al., 2011). This study, taking

its inspiration from the findings of these studies (LePine et al., 2016; Tuckey et al., 2015; Webster et al., 2011), develops a theory which tries to examine the underlying mechanisms linking CS and HS with job outcomes. As primary appraisal can be considered as a very important underlying means in the relationship of stressors with outcomes, the major objective of this study is to analyze the basic assumptions of the TTS by actually measuring challenge and hindrance appraisal of workplace stressors.

Hence the objective of this study is to examine whether individuals appraise job stressors of Job Complexity (JC) as a challenge and Perceived Organizational Politics (POP) as a hindrance. Particularly, in this study, workplace stressors of JC and POP have been selected due to three possible reasons: firstly, they are often examined and, therefore, are accepted as essential workplace stressors; secondly, JC has been recognized as a CS and POP as a HS (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; LePine et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2007); thirdly, JC signifies a job-related stressor and POP characterizes as an environment-related stressor (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Hence, this study takes into consideration both job and environment-related stressors.

Since, there are very few studies which might have examined that whether employees perceive JC as a challenge termed here as Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal (JCCA) and POP as a hindrance termed here as Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal (POPHA). Thus, this study tries to fulfill this important theoretical and empirical gap in the domain of stressors by examining individual appraisal of stressors, e.g., JCCA of JC and POPHA of POP.

Another important reason for choosing the stressors of JC and POP is the findings of the past empirical studies which have reported that these stressors have a mixed relationship with job outcomes. Even though Hackman and Oldham (1980) believed that the job characteristics/JC influence JP, but Fried and Ferris (1987); Loher, Noe, Moeller, and Fitzgerald (1985) meta-

analyses reported very low correlations with JP. Furthermore, although researchers have validated the hypothesized relationships between job characteristics/JC and work attitudes, for instance, JS, intrinsic motivation, and creativity but the strength of these relationships appears to be modest as compared to high (Fried, 1991; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Johns, Xie, & Fang, 1992; Loher et al., 1985; Oldham, 1996; Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001). These results indicate the possibility of a third variable which might be playing the role of a mediator in the job characteristics and outcomes relationship. Recognizing the importance and influence of the job design, researchers have emphasized the requirement for further theory building and empirical investigation in this area (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Morgeson & Campion, 2003). Parker et al. (2001) argued that it is important for the expansion of job characteristic theory to figure out other mediators in this relationship.

Similarly, although researchers believe that POP negatively influence in-role JP because POP distract employees from their in-role JP (e.g., Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, & Ammeter, 2002), the empirical studies have reported conflicting findings. Some have found this relationship to be nonsignificant (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 1997; Hochwarter, Witt, & Kacmar, 2000; Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999), positive (Hochwarter et al., 2006), and inverse (e.g., Vigoda, 2000a,b). Moreover, the latest meta-analysis (see Chang et al., 2009; Miller, Rutherford, & Kolodinsky, 2008) has reported contradictory results regarding the significance of the relationship between POP and JP, which also signifies the possibility of a mediator.

Therefore, this study proposes that the reason these stressors of JC and POP have conflicting findings with job outcomes is the possibility of a mediator. Particularly, this study suggests that appraisal is the underlying mechanism in the relationship of these stressors with job

outcomes but still past research has not examined this highly important assumption of the TTS. Therefore, this study examines that whether individuals actually appraise stressors of JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance. In addition, since past empirical studies have provided evidence that primary appraisal acts as a mediator in the stressors-outcomes relationship (LePine at al., 2016; Tuckey et al., 2015; Webster et al., 2011), another crucial objective of this study is to examine whether JCCA and POPHA mediate between stressors (JC and POP) and job outcomes, respectively.

Moreover, individual difference variables symbolize a supplementary group of moderators which warrant consideration in the existing framework (Cooper & Payne, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1990; Krohne, 1990). Researchers have recognized that individual distinctions play an essential role in how individuals react to certain stressors, affecting the way people appraise and deal with the stressors (e.g., Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Mackey & Perrewe, 2014; Perrewe´ & Spector, 2002; Vollrath, 2001). The critical function of personality constructs is based on the concept that dispositions powerfully affect evaluations of perceived stimuli (Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991; Hemenover & Dienstbier, 1996; Mackey & Perrewe, 2014; Perrewe´ & Spector, 2002; Smith & Lazarus, 1990; Vollrath, 2001).

Appraisals consecutively establish "why and to what extent a particular transaction or series of transactions between the person and the environment is stressful" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 19). Diener, Larsen, and Emmons (1984), during the process of developing their interactional theory, indicated that individuals look for circumstances according to their personological tendency. Individuals may only appraise a demand as challenging when they believe that they have got the ability to cope with it, for instance, high skill, high optimism, high positive affectivity, and high self-efficacy (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1992; Mackey & Perrewe,

2014; Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Perrewe´ & Spector, 2002). Particularly, Ohly and Fritz (2010) argued that individuals, who think that they are competent enough to accomplish strategies to achieve their aims, tend to appraise their job as challenging.

Lepine et al. (2005) argued for the role of individual differences variable, for example, Core Self-Evaluation (CSE), goal orientation, and achievement motivation that might influence the way individuals react to work stressors. Moreover, Magnus, Diener, Fujita, and Pavot (1993) argued that individuals are positively inclined to encounter more constructive happenings in their lives while negatively inclined, in fact, to go through more undesirable happenings. According to Magnusson (1990), "An individual's view of himself or herself...with respect to self-evaluation (overall approval and acceptance of himself or herself), plays a central role in the process of interaction with the environment" (p. 201).

Therefore, the personality of the individual, e.g., their CSE, is an extremely important factor that can influence their appraisal of stressors. There is no study to date, according to my best knowledge, which has investigated how CSE influences the primary appraisal (e.g., JCCA and POPHA) of the job stressors (JC and POP), respectively and, therefore, this study tries to fulfill this gap by taking CSE as a moderator in the stressors (JC and POP) and their appraisal (JCCA and POPHA) relationship respectively. In addition, this study also examines CSE as a moderator in the appraisal (JCCA and POPHA) and job outcomes relationship.

This study is founded on one of the most important and highly examined job attitudes (e.g., JS and JE) and job behaviors (e.g., JP and job creativity) in the industrial and organizational psychology (AbuAlRub, 2004; Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, & Johnson, 2011; Jamal, 2011). For the last two centuries, researchers have been consistently trying and somehow successful in recognizing the antecedents and outcomes of these important variables

(Dewa, Thompson, & Jacobs, 2011; Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Jamal, 2010; Jex, 1998). This study moves in this trend by taking JC and POP as an antecedent to these job outcomes and examining JCCA and POPHA, respectively as mediators in these antecedents and job outcomes relationship.

This research study analyzes two facets of job behaviors, e.g., in-role JP and job creativity because consistent JP and involving in innovative or creative events are all indispensable for the sustained growth of organizations (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Katz, 1964; Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000) and it is not necessary that people by nature are equally good in performing all these job behaviors (Raja & Johns, 2010). Moreover, the effect of dispositional variable, e.g., CSE, can be highlighted by using more than one dependent variable (Johns, 2006).

Therefore, for the purpose of generalizing the current findings and testing new conceptual framework, this study not only examines the stressors (JC and POP)-job outcomes (JS, JE, JP and job creativity) relationship but also analyzes the role of JCCA and POPHA, respectively as mediators in the stressors (JC and POP)-job outcomes (JS, JE, JP and job creativity) relationship and how an individual's personality such as CSE influences the appraisal process, e.g., stressors (JC and POP)-appraisal (JCCA and POPHA) relationship respectively and, in turn, appraisal (JCCA and POPHA)-job outcomes (JS, JE, JP and job creativity) relationship in a developing Asian country such as Pakistan.

1.3 Definition of Study Variables

The definitions for the main study variables are given below:

1) Job Complexity refers to the degree of challenging, interesting, motivating and invigorating demands at work (Fried et al., 2002; Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

2) Perceived Organizational Politics refers to a person's evaluation concerning others' self-centered job behaviors that are not formally sanctioned (e.g., Ferris et al., 2000).

3) Core Self-Evaluations refers to an individual's underlying assumptions about himself or herself (Judge et al., 1998; 2002). It consists of one's Self-efficacy, Self-esteem, Neuroticism and Locus of control.

4) Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal is described as the extent to which an individual appraises his or her job as a challenge because it has the prospects for learning, personal achievement and development, even though it is demanding and exhausting.

5) Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal is described as the extent to which an individual appraises his or her perceptions of organizational politics as a hindrance because they experience the feeling of not having enough control on their job and the inability to accomplish desired personal and career outcomes.

6) JS is one of the most important job attitudes resulting from an evaluation of the job characteristics (Weiss, 2002).

7) JE is known as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74).

8) JP comprises of behaviors which are specified in the job description, e.g., duties that are mandatory to perform (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

9) Creativity is the creation of new, fresh, and valuable ideas (Amabile, 1988).

1.4 Problem Statement

"To examine whether individuals appraise job stressors of JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance and how their personality, e.g., their positive CSE, influences the way they appraise these stressors and how these stressors' appraisals (JCCA and POPHA), in turn, influence the job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity)."

1.5 Research Questions

This research aims to elaborate a framework that focuses on the following critical questions:

1) Are the job stressors (JC and POP) related to job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity)?
2) Can job stressor of JC be appraised as a challenge?
3) Can job stressor of POP be appraised as a hindrance?
4) Does JCCA mediate the link between JC and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity), respectively?
5) Does POPHA mediate the link between POP and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity), respectively?
6) Does individual personality, e.g., CSE influence the appraisal of JC as a challenge?
7) Does the individual personality, e.g., CSE influence the appraisal of POP as a hindrance?
8) Does the individual personality, e.g., CSE influence the link between stressor's appraisal (JCCA and POPHA) and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity)?

1.6 Objectives of the Study

This study has the following objectives.

1) To examine the impact of job stressors (JC and POP) on job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity).
2) To examine whether the job stressor of JC is appraised as a challenge.
3) To examine whether the job stressor of POP is appraised as a hindrance.
4) To examine JCCA as a mediator in the JC and job outcomes relationship (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity).
5) To examine POPHA as a mediator in the POP and job outcomes relationship (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity).
6) To examine the impact of personality, e.g., CSE on the appraisal of JC as a challenge.
7) To examine the impact of personality, e.g., CSE on the appraisal of POP as a hindrance.
8) To examine the influence of personality, e.g., CSE on the JCCA-job outcomes relationship.
9) To examine the influence of personality, e.g., CSE on the POPHA-job outcomes relationship.
10) To generalize the existing findings and to test new theoretical framework in a developing Asian country such as Pakistan.

1.7 Significance of the Study

1.7.1 Theoretical Significance

This study aims for numerous contributions to the existing body of knowledge on job stressors. The challenge-hindrance model of occupational stress has its roots from the TTS (Webster et al., 2010). TTS (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) is one of the renowned appraisal approaches in the broad stress domain, which suggests that environmental circumstances

(stressors) don't instantly cause a reaction. But it is a personal evaluation or assessment of hindrance (threat) or challenge which stimulates the reaction (Giancola et al., 2009; Storch et al., 2007).

According to the TTS, a primary appraisal is a crucial step in the stress process and is one of the mechanisms through which an individual judges a situation and gives importance and meaning to it. Circumstances, which are evaluated as having the possibility for rewards such as recognition, growth, appreciation, and mastery, are regarded as challenge appraisals, whereas those having the probability to intimidate one's well-being by disturbing the achievement of objectives and development are reflected as hindrance appraisals (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Skinner & Brewer, 2002).

Even though the challenge and hindrance model of job stressors is very well-recognized, but these studies have somehow implicitly assumed that particular stressors are appraised as a challenge and particular as a hindrance. Still, there are very few studies which have examined the underlying assumptions of the TTS (LePine et al., 2016; Tuckey et al., 2015; Webster et al., 2011), e.g., the individual appraisal of the stressors. Therefore, this study tries to fulfill an important theoretical and empirical gap in the domain of stressors by examining the basic assumptions of the TTS by actually measuring whether individuals appraise JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance.

In addition, the TTS also advocates that the primary appraisal of a situation (challenge and hindrance appraisal) plays the role of a mediator in the stressors-job outcomes relationship. While numerous studies have tested the impact of stressors as an antecedent to strains and other job outcomes, still there are very few studies which have investigated the role of primary appraisal as a mediator in the workplace stressors' and job outcomes relationship (LePine et al., 2016; Tuckey et al., 2015; Webster et al., 2011). Therefore, one more significant contribution of this study is to

investigate how JCCA and POPHA mediate between stressors (JC, POP) and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity), respectively.

In addition, there are also very few studies which have examined how an individual's personality can influence this appraisal process. Another imperative role of this study is that it also examines how an individual's personality, e.g., their positive CSE, influences this appraisal process of individuals appraising JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance, respectively and then the link between these appraisals (JCCA and POPHA) and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity).

1.7.2 Practical Significance

According to the applied point of view, since organizations spend huge resources to handle stress (Cooper et al., 2001), it is imperative to understand how stressors influence work outcomes to enhance the usefulness of stress management practices. The results of this study will assist the practicing managers in figuring out whether individuals appraise the stressor of JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance and how these appraisals, in turn, influence the job outcomes and how an employee's personality, e.g., their CSE, impacts their appraisal of stressors and how individuals respond to the appraisal in terms of their job outcomes. For getting the constructive outcomes, the manager can provide the challenge stressor of JC if it is appraised as a challenge and for reducing the negative consequences, managers can reduce POP if it is appraised as a hindrance. The managers can also make sure that during the recruitment and selection process, they only hire individuals with a positive CSE.

1.7.3 Contextual Significance

Several researchers have suggested that majority of occupational stress theories are conceptualized and empirically validated in the Western developed countries (Jamal, 1999; Siu, 2002; Xie, 1996). Two latest meta-analyses analyzing the relationship between stressors and JP (Gilboa et al., 2008; Muse et al., 2003) have stressed out the importance for such empirical studies in non-Western countries. Although constructs like JC, POP, JS, Job Engagement (JE), JP, and job creativity have been founded and validated in advanced developed countries (Baba, Jamal, & Tourigny, 1998), but there have been very few studies which have examined their generalizability and utility in the developing countries regardless of numerous recommendations of researchers to do so (Abbas, Raja, Darr, & Bouckenooghe, 2014; Jamal, 2011).

This study also aids the cross-cultural research in the domain of management, particularly organizational behavior by examining the stressors' (JC and POP) relationship with job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity) in a developing Asian country, e.g., Pakistan. Beside practicality and convenience, the reason for choosing Pakistan as a research setting was grounded on studies' empirical findings that Pakistan is different from the developed countries in the national culture's very essential factors of collectivism/individualism and power distance (Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006; Noordin, Williams, & Simmer, 2002). Pakistan tends to be high on collectivism and power distance as compared to most developed Western countries, which are likely to be low on collectivism and power distance (Hofstede, 2001; Triandis, 2004). Therefore, it is of immense importance to theoretically explore the influence of these cultural dimensions on the relationship of stressors (JC and POP) with job outcomes.

Therefore, for the purpose of generalizing the present findings and testing new conceptual framework, this study not only examines the stressors' and job outcomes' relationship but also

analyzes the role of challenge-hindrance appraisal as a mediator in the stressors-job outcomes relationship and how individual difference variables such as CSE influence this appraisal process in a developing Asian country such as Pakistan.

1.8 Organization of the Study

This study is structured into five chapters. The first chapter discusses the importance of the topic, builds up the justification of the study, and proposes the problem statement, research questions, research objectives, and significance of the study. The second chapter thoroughly reviews the past literature on the study variables, builds up the justification for the hypothesis, and proposes the hypothesis of the study. The third chapter discusses the research methodology of the study in detail. The fourth chapter discusses the data analysis techniques and the findings of the study. The fifth and final chapter discusses in detail the findings of the study concerning the results of the past studies and also discusses the limitations, future research directions, and significance of the study.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Challenge-Hindrance Model of Stressors

The challenge-hindrance model of occupational stress (Cavanaugh et al., 2000) categorized the workplace stressors into two types, namely the Challenge Stressors (CS) and the Hindrance Stressors (HS). CS consist of those demands that although cause strain but have the capability of creating high-performance prospects and, hence, it creates a great feeling of achievement if an individual is competent to conquer their inherited difficulties. In contrast, HS comprise of those demands that are more prone to hamper and prevent the accomplishment of an individual's goals and growth (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Even if an individual can beat these hindering demands, still the outcome will be a satisfactory performance with the missing sense of achievement which is associated with high performance.

Cavanaugh et al. (2000) achieved this challenge-hindrance classification of stressors by having students who categorized 11 items from three distinct measures of stress as either a hindrance or a challenge stressor i.e., the Job Demands and Worker Health Study (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, & Pinneau, 1975), the Stress Diagnostic Survey (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1983) and the Job Stress Index (Sandman, 1992). Consequent factor analyses were performed on the respondents' evaluation of the extent to which they considered each of the items as stressful. The result of the factor analysis confirmed the two-factor structure (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). The items that consistently loaded on the CS factor comprised of high workload, Job Complexity (JC), time pressure, and high job responsibility. The items loading on the second factor, e.g., HS, consisted of role conflict, role ambiguity, Perceived Organizational Politics (POP), and apprehension about the security of the job.

Cavanaugh et al. (2000) reported that CS positively influence Job Satisfaction (JS) and negatively influence job search behaviors, while HS negatively influence JS and positively influence job search behaviors and turnover. Although the challenge-hindrance model is still in the evolving phase, the latest research has provided empirical support for this model (Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh, et al., 2000; Culbertson, Huffman, & Alden-Andersen, 2010; Haar, 2006; LePine, LePine, & Jackson, 2004; LePine et al., 2005; Pearsall et al., 2009; Podsakoff, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2007; Rodell & Judge, 2009;Webster et al., 2010; Webster et al., 2011).

Boswell et al. (2004) study results indicated that the same two-dimensional factor structure of the stressor items was found, and they also reported that the CS and HS had a distinct relationship with the various retention criteria. Similarly, LePine et al. (2004) reported that in a learning environment, CS positively influence learning performance, whereas HS negatively influence learning performance. Both exhaustion and learning motivation partially mediated the stressors (CS and HS)-learning performance relationship.

Rodell and Judge (2009) reported that CS and HS have a different relationship with counterproductive and citizenship behaviors through the mediating role of emotions. CS and HS were also reported to have a different relationship with team performance (Pearsall et al., 2009). Wallace et al. (2009) reported that CS positively, whereas HS negatively influence in-role Job Performance (JP). Moreover, perceived organizational support strengthened the positive association between CS and in-role JP. However, perceived organizational support did not emerge as a significant moderator in the HS and in-role JP relationship.

Webster et al. (2010) reported that JS acted as a mediator in the relationship between HS and citizenship behavior. Although CS positively influence self-efficacy but self-efficacy had an insignificant relationship with JP. Moreover, both CS and HS had a positive relationship with

strains. Zhang et al. (2014) reported that justice perceptions mediated the relationship of CS and HS with JP. Transactional leadership buffered the negative relationship of HS with justice perceptions, whereas transformational leadership strengthened the positive association between CS and justice perceptions, where justice perceptions, in turn, influence JP. Flinchbaugh, Luth, and Li (2015) reported that CS had a positive (whereas HS had a negative) influence on life satisfaction. Moreover, thriving mediated the stressors-life satisfaction relationship. For HS, resilience was found to moderate the thriving-life satisfaction relationship, such that when resilience was high, it strengthened the positive association between thriving and life satisfaction.

Therefore, several empirical studies have validated the challenge-hindrance stressor framework and reported the distinct relationship between them and different outcomes. For instance, CS were found to have a favorable relationship and HS unfavourable relationship with JS (Beehr et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2007; Webster et al., 2010; Webster et al., 2011), Job Engagement (JE; Crawford et al., 2010; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011), affective commitment (Boswell et al., 2004; Podsakoff et al., 2007), job-related self-efficacy (Webster et al., 2010), job, team, and learning performance (Pearsall et al., 2009; LePine et al., 2004; LePine et al., 2005; Wallace et al., 2009; Webster et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2014), citizenship and counterproductive work behaviors (Rodell & Judge, 2009; Webster et al., 2010), turnover intentions, and actual turnover (Boswell et al., 2004; Podsakoff et al., 2007; Webster et al., 2011).

The popularity of challenge-hindrance framework can also be recognized from this fact that three separate meta-analysis studies have examined this framework and reported different relationships between these stressors and outcomes. Firstly, LePine et al.'s (2005) meta-analysis examined the relationship of CS and HS with motivation, strains, and JP and reported that CS not only directly influence JP but also influence JP through motivation (positive) and strains

(negative). Whereas, HS had a direct negative influence on JP and an indirect negative influence on JP through motivation and strains.

In their later study, Podsakoff et al. (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of the relationship of CS and HS with retention-related criteria. The study found that CS had a positive association with JS and organizational commitment and a negative association with intentions to leave and turnover. On the contrary, HS negatively influence organizational commitment and JS and positively influence withdrawal behavior, intentions to leave, and turnover. Moreover, it was also found that the distinct association of CS and HS with withdrawal behavior and turnover was partially mediated by the influence of job attitudes. Both CS and HS positively affected strains. Recently, Crawford et al. (2010) conducted a meta-analysis of CS and HS relationship with work engagement. They reported that CS positively, whereas HS negatively, affected work engagement.

The challenge-hindrance model of occupational stressors is criticized by researchers (Webster et al., 2011) because carrying out research on a sample of students and asking them to evaluate items of stressors as hindrances or challenges is not in accordance with the Transactional Theory of Stress (TTS). Particularly, the method of assessing stressors is equivalent to having a group of researchers just evaluating the stressors (Webster et al., 2011). For the more valid testing of the theory, it is important to have a sample of research participants to assess the stressors as challenge or hindrance.

Researchers have suggested that for a significant theoretical contribution to the challenge-hindrance stressor framework, a thorough insight of the relationship of CS and HS with an appraisal is needed where researchers should analyze not only the stressors' and appraisal relationship but also the moderators of this relationship (Zhang et al., 2014).

2.2 Transactional Theory of Stress (TTS)

TTS (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) is one of the recognized appraisal approaches in the general stress literature, which suggests that stressors (e.g., environmental circumstances) do not immediately lead to a stress reaction. But it is considered as a person's assessment or evaluation of hindrance (threat) or challenge that influences the reaction (Giancola et al., 2009; Storch et al., 2007).

In 1970's, the research in the area of stress started to deviate from the conventional S-R approach towards the more mediated cognitive model (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). These mediated theories were underlying the general premise that individual appraisal is an important component of the stress process (Mason, 1971; McCrae, 1984). Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) definition of psychological stress evidently signifies this appraisal element of stress: "a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being" (p. 19). By combining the stimulus-based and response-based theories of stress, this technique considers appraisal at the core of the stress process.

According to the TTS, two mediating processes are underlying the connection in the person-environment relationship, cognitive appraisal (consisting of two mechanisms, i.e., primary and secondary appraisal), and coping. Cognitive appraisal is the means through which an individual assesses the importance and meaning of a situation (primary appraisal) and determines whether an individual has the means to deal with the stressor (secondary appraisal). Coping describes the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral efforts intended to decrease or eliminate a stressor. Since empirical studies have only examined primary appraisal as examining secondary appraisal increases the complexity of the study (LePine et al., 2016; Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Tuckey

et al., 2015; Webster et al., 2011), this research study is grounded in investigating primary appraisal only and secondary appraisal is left as a future research direction to be explored by other researchers. But since coping is a significant element in the stress process and the personality construct of CSE also exhibit the ability of individuals to deal with work stressors, the implications of coping can be inferred from the role that CSE plays in the appraisal of the stressors and how to respond to these appraisals in terms of job outcomes.

According to the theory, a primary appraisal is a vital step in the stress process and is one of the means through which an individual assesses a situation and gives associated value and significance to it. Circumstances, which are evaluated as having the possibility of returns for instance progress, appreciation, admiration, and mastery, are considered as challenge appraisals, while those having the chances to threaten one's well-being by disturbing the achievement of objectives and progress are considered as hindrance appraisals (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Skinner & Brewer, 2002).

The challenge-hindrance model of occupational stress has its origin from the TTS (Webster et al., 2010). However, the empirical research on this model has somehow implicitly understood, e.g., an explanation of a work stressor as a hindrance or challenge is similar for every individual and has not taken into consideration an individual appraisal of them. This study aims to investigate the basic assumptions of the TTS by actually assessing employee challenge and hindrance evaluation of workplace stressors.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) also recognized that different individuals are going to appraise the same workplace stressors differently. The belief that all individuals formulate the similar appraisal in identical situations and the outcome of that appraisal might only be two aspects (hindrance or challenge) is not in accordance with the fundamental beliefs of the appraisal theories

of stress. However, several empirical studies on the challenge-hindrance model have postulated the stressors as hindrance and challenge as similar for all the individuals.

Moreover, it is believed that the dispositional traits or personality of an individual is a very important factor which will influence this challenge and hindrance appraisal. It is reasonably possible that the same kind of workplace stressor might be perceived differently by people having different personalities. In particular, people high on positive Core Self-Evaluations (CSE) are more likely to appraise JC as high on the challenge, and those who have a low degree of positive CSE might appraise JC as low on the challenge.

Moreover, the TTS also suggests that the primary appraisal of an event as both a hindrance and a challenge plays the role of mediator between stressors and job outcomes. Even though numerous empirical studies have investigated the influence of stressors as a cause of strains and other job outcomes, there are very few studies which have actually investigated primary appraisal as a mediator in the workplace stressors' and job outcomes' relationship (LePine et al., 2016; Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Tuckey et al., 2015; Webster et al., 2011).

Therefore, the main intention of this study is to examine whether individuals appraise JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance respectively and how their personality, e.g., their CSE influences this appraisal process. These workplace stressors were selected because they are frequently examined and, hence, are recognized as essential workplace stressors, where the first stressor has been believed to be the challenge stressor and the last as a hindrance stressor in the past research (e.g., Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Another reason for selecting these two stressors is JC represents a job-related stressor and POP represents an environment-related stressor, and, therefore, this study takes into consideration both job and environment-related stressors.

2.3 Job Outcomes

2.3.1 Job Satisfaction (JS)

JS is considered as one of the most important job attitudes, which is described as a "positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or job situation" (Weiss, 2002, p. 175). JS is also defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). JS of an employee is regarded as one of the critical factors of an enduring relationship with an organization. It is a positive emotional feeling which occurs when an employee evaluates his or her experience as acceptable in the particular job he/she is performing (Hulin & Judge, 2003; Locke, 1976).

JS has also been defined by researchers as an assessment regarding the extent to which an employee draws pleasure from the job resulting in affective and cognitive components (Aamodt, 2009; Edwards, Bell, Arthur Jr., & Decuir, 2008). Girma (2016) has explained that JS is like a perception in which an employee anticipates his/her job and what he/she actually gets from job. JS is considered as one of the most important job attitudes which refers to the level to which people like or dislike the jobs they are doing (Saputro, Paramita, & Gagah, 2016). Thus, JS is the resultant attitude which is based on the assessments (positive and negative) an employee makes regarding various aspects of the working environment.

JS is considered important for not only organizational outcomes but also for the mental and physical well-being of individuals (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005). According to the results of a meta-analytic study, job dissatisfaction causes psychological harms such as lower self-esteem, anxiety, depression, burnout, and also physical illness (Faragher et al., 2005).

Furthermore, JS is regarded as an important antecedent of various psychological and behavioral outcomes such as JP, organization citizenship behavior, job burnout, turnover, absence,

and lateness (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Harrison et al., 2006; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Petty, McGee, & Cavender, 1984). JS has also been distinguished from the three types of organizational commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) and has been considered as an important correlate of organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and job involvement (Brown, 1996).

Numerous studies provide the evidence that JS is considered as one of the most important job attitudes. Regarding the dispositional antecedents of JS, meta-analytic studies have reported that narrow personality traits such as generalized self-efficacy, self-esteem, internal locus of control, emotional stability, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, and affective disposition influence the JS of employees (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Judge & Bono, 2001). Moreover, regarding the broad personality constructs, the big-five personality traits and CSE have emerged as important antecedents of JS (Judge, Heller, & Klinger, 2008; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002).

The situational antecedents of JS include perceived organizational justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001), POP (Miller et al., 2008), perceived organizational support (Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009), psychological contract breach (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007), psychological climate (Parker et al., 2003), person-organization fit (Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003), and positive psychological capital (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011), etc. Various leadership styles, for instance, charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership have also been linked with subordinate satisfaction (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2013). Trust in leadership is also considered as an important variable influencing JS (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

The results of a meta-analysis study revealed that job characteristics/JC had a moderate relationship with JS and high growth need strength was found to strengthen this relationship (Loher et al., 1985; Spector, 1985). For employees low in growth need strength, situational characteristics emerged as an important antecedent of JS (Loher et al., 1985). Other job-related characteristics which influence JS are pay (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, & Rich, 2010) and perceived control by employees (Spector, 1986). Employees feel more satisfied when an adequate level of autonomy has been given and when the work itself is interesting (Fried & Ferris, 1987). According to Yen, Yeh, and Lin (2007), if employees are given enough freedom of completing their assigned tasks, then this adequate autonomy would enhance their JS. Whereas in certain cases, an increase in motivation level of the employees can lead to an increase in JS (Kivininiemi et al., 2002).

Regarding the stressors' and JS relationship, CS had a positive whereas HS had a negative relationship with JS (Podsakoff et al., 2007). Role stressors, for instance, role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload were reported to negatively influence JS (Abramis, 1994; Fried, Shirom, Gilboa, & Cooper, 2008; Ortqvist & Wincent, 2006).

Since, JS is regarded as an important attitude, this study examines the influence of stressors (JC and POP) on JS and also examines the appraisal of these stressors (JCCA and POPHA) respectively as mediators in the stressors (JC and POP) and JS relationship. Moreover, this study also examines the role of personality e.g. CSE as a moderator in the stressors (JC and POP)-appraisal (JCCA and POPHA)-JS relationship, respectively.

2.3.2 Job Engagement (JE)

Recently, JE has been recognized as the "hottest topic in management" (Welbourne, 2007, p. 45). Several definitions of JE can be found in the academic literature. According to Kahn (1990,

p. 694). JE is "the harnessing of organization's members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances". Therefore, Kahn (1990, 1992) basically described JE as cognitively, emotionally, and physically present while performing and taking up an organizational task. Moreover, Rothbard (2001, p. 656) also described JE as being psychologically present but goes one step ahead and stated that it comprises of two essential elements, i.e., attention and absorption. Attention is described as the "cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role", while absorption "means being engrossed in a role and refers to the intensity of one's focus on a role".

This research study is grounded in the conceptualization of JE by Schaufeli et al. (2002). According to Schaufeli et al. (2002, p. 74), JE is "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption". Moreover, they also argued that JE is not a temporary and explicit state, but it is somewhat "a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behavior" (p. 74).

'Vigor' is recognized as the core element of JE (Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Lloret, 2006) and is described as having elevated intensity of drive and cognitive hardiness while working and the eagerness to devote energy in one's tasks, and being determined when encountering with difficulties (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). 'Dedication' is described as having a high level of participation in one's job and going through feelings of challenge, eagerness, and meaning (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). 'Absorption' refers to having full concentration and happily absorbed in job tasks where the sense of time flies very quickly (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Studies have reported that JE demonstrates discriminant and criterion-

related validity with job attitudes of JS, job involvement, and affective commitment (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006).

Researchers have also suggested that nowadays, it is becoming an immense challenge for organizations to engage their employees (Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004). Loehr (2005) argued that being engaged in jobs provides many advantages for employees such as eagerness, happiness, enhanced value to the organization, and increased physical health. Several researchers have declared that JE not only influences job outcomes but also predicts profitability and organizational growth (Bates, 2004; Baumruk, 2004; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Richman, 2006). JE specifies concentrated energy, which directly leads an employee to achieve organizational objectives (Macey, Schneider, Barbera, & Young, 2009). Employees who are engaged tend to put lots of efforts in their work due to the enhanced intensity of discretionary energy as compared to those who are not engaged.

As, JE is considered as an important attitude, this study examines the influence of stressors (JC and POP) on JE and also examines the appraisal of these stressors (JCCA and POPHA) respectively as mediators in the stressors (JC and POP) and JE relationship. Moreover, this study also examines the role of personality e.g. CSE as a moderator in the stressors (JC and POP)-appraisal (JCCA and POPHA)-JE relationship, respectively.

2.3.3 Job Performance (JP)

According to Ivancevich, Konopaske, and Matteson (2005), the capacity, desire, and opportunity to accomplish a goal is referred to as performance. Performance is further classified into two types where one is organizational performance, and the other is individual JP. Organization performance revolves around the organizational parameters such as its ability to meet

the customer's need, compete in the market, and carry out the strategies, which leads an organization closer to the goals it has set for its success (Heck & Marcoulides, 1993). On the other hand, when people perform their work-related activities, it is referred to as individual JP (Heck & Marcoulides, 1993).

JP, alongside with job attitudes, is, in fact, the most important explained variable in the management theory and research (AbuAlRub, 2004; Crawford et al., 2010; Eatough et al., 2011). Intensive struggles were done to recognize the interpreters and outcomes of JS and JP for the last five decades with some success (Dewa et al., 2011; Harrison et al., 2006; Jamal, 2010). Employees who perform well are viewed as valuable assets by an organization because of three possible reasons. Firstly, they are considered competitive. Secondly, they require less supervision. And finally, they are valued by their supervisors because such employees can offer greater role breadth to the supervisor. Thus, such reasons accelerate the demand of the incumbents with broader roles and better performance (Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; Orr, Sackett, & Mercer, 1989; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Werner, 1994).

The importance of JP and JS in organizations has hardly been investigated regardless of repetitive recommendations of researchers to do so (Carr & Pudelko, 2006; Foley, Hang-Yue & Wong, 2005; Safaria, Othman, & Wahab, 2010). In particular, there exists a very strong link between JS and JP (Gu & Chi, 2009). Moreover, a worker's commitment to his/her job is a key factor in influencing JP (Al Ahmadi, 2009; Jaramillo, Mulki, & Marshall, 2005) as workers who are totally committed to their organization, usually give higher customer care, productivity, and increased profits to the organization (Luthans & Peterson, 2002). A few research studies have also highlighted stress as a pivotal factor which has a direct impact on the JP of an employee,

organization's competitiveness, and success. (Bashir & Ramay, 2010; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005).

Among the antecedents of JP, education is considered as an important factor contributing to JP (Ng & Feldman, 2009). Moreover, a person's efficiency in doing work and self-motivation also positively influence JP (D"Amato & Zijlstra, 2008; Karatepea, Uludagb, Menevisc, Hadzimehmedagicc, & Baddarc, 2006). In addition, an employee's set of skills also has a positive relationship with JP (Saleh & Ndubisi, 2006) and similarly, the ability to complete tasks within the deadline also affects JP (Aris, 2007).

In the service sector, employee behavior can prominently affect the organization's repute, service quality, and success (Sharma, Borna, & Stearns, 2009), social power (Nygaard & Biong 2010), and positive job response (Valentine, Varca, Godkin, & Barnett, 2010). Nowadays, good quality of performance is a vital factor in responding to a quickly altering and active marketplace, in service sector organizations (Amabile & Khaire, 2008; Hu, Horng, & Sun, 2009; Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993).

Since, JP is regarded as one of the most important job behavior, this study examines the influence of stressors (JC and POP) on JP and also examines the appraisal of these stressors (JCCA and POPHA) respectively as mediators in the stressors (JC and POP) and JP relationship. Moreover, this study also examines the role of personality e.g. CSE as a moderator in the stressors (JC and POP)-appraisal (JCCA and POPHA)-JP relationship, respectively.

2.3.4 Job Creativity

JP is a multi-facet concept (Campbell, 1990). Along with the necessary JP, several other behaviors are considered very important for organizational success. In particular, the behaviors

which are performance-related, for instance, creativity and proactive behavior, are becoming ever more important for the effectiveness of today's organization (Griffin et al., 2007; Pulakos et al., 2000). Job Creativity represents the formation of new valuable products, ideas, services, and procedures by people doing the job together in a complicated social environment (Woodman et al., 1993).

Creativity is an important factor in the organizational setting. Creativity is the creation of new, fresh, and valuable ideas (Amabile, 1988). It is the source which propels useful ideas and customized solutions which are unique and according to the requirements of the particular situation (e.g., Amabile, 1996; Oldham & Cummings, 1996). Moreover, creativity can be an element of an employee's regular job duties, or it can go beyond them (Unsworth, 2001). In an organizational context, job creativity refers to the creation of novel as well as new ideas by the employees (e.g., Zhou, 1998; Zhou & Shalley, 2003). The composition of elements, which result in job creativity, ultimately contributes to maintaining the competitive advantage of an organization (e.g., Amabile, 1988). Therefore, creativity is considered as a vital phenomenon not only in an organization but by many research scholars and practitioners as well.

Theories suggest that stressors are detrimental to creativity. The distraction arousal theory also confirms the same proposition (Teichner, Arees, & Reilly, 1963). The theory further argues that when people consume their mental resources to deal with the stressors, they are left with fewer cognitive resources to deal with other tasks. The scarcity of cognitive resources may lead to the use of basic cognitive strategies (Eysenck, 1995a, b), which may cause less innovative and common ideas (Baron, 1986; Drwal, 1973).

On the other hand, other theories suggest the opposite stance, e.g., stressors increase creativity. According to researchers (Andersen, Bignotto, Machado, & Tufik, 2004; Nicol & Long,

1996), stressors stimulate the use of creative thoughts and persuade the employee to incorporate problem-solving strategies in the tasks. The application of problem-solving strategies enhances creativity when they are encountered with stressors (Bunce & West, 1994). Also, stressors increase the demand for creative solutions by increasing the cognitive stimulation and motivation level in an employee and result in increased job creativity (Andrews & Farris, 1972; Pelz, 1988).

Employees, who are considered creative in an organization, tend to add extra value in the organizational processes and help the organization to maintain competitive advantage over its competitors in the effective business environment (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005; Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby, & Herron, 1996; George, 2007). Thus, strong attention has been paid to the exploration of those antecedents which impact creativity (Amabile et al., 2005; Horng & Lee, 2009; Robinson & Beesley, 2010; Wong & Ladkin, 2008; Wong & Pang, 2003).

In a myopic view of creativity, it is merely considered as a result of an individual's distinct characteristics. Precisely, authors have explained that the job creativity of employees is affected by the characteristics of a person (Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Zhou, 2003), regardless of its potential status in creativity (Amabile et al., 1996; Woodman et al., 1993). Research studies have shown numerous individual factors which influence employee creativity such as intrinsic motivation (e.g., Amabile, 1983; Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999), cognitive style (Tierney et al., 1999), creative personality (e.g., Oldham & Cummings, 1996), learning goal orientation (e.g., Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009), openness to experience (e.g., McCrae, 1987), creative self-efficacy (e.g., Tierney & Farmer, 2002), affect, and mood (e.g., Amabile et al., 2005; George & Zhou, 2002).

The theories in the domain of employee creativity have also emphasized the significance of workplace contextual factors among other factors that can influence creativity (Amabile, 1988;

Woodman et al., 1993). Research studies have shown that creativity is a composition of various contextual influences such as transformational leadership (e.g., Gong et al., 2009; Shin & Zhou, 2003), leader-member exchange (Tierney et al., 1999), abusive supervision (Liu, Liao, & Loi, 2012), supervisor's expectations (e.g., Tierney & Farmer, 2004), team bureaucratic practices (e.g., Hirst, Van Knip-penberg, Chen, & Sacramento, 2011), autonomy (e.g., Liu, Chen & Yao, 2011; Zhou, 1998), and team knowledge management processes (Sung & Choi, 2012).

Employee creativity helps institutions to get competitive benefits for managerial innovation, long-term success, and survival (Amabile, 1997; Zhou & George, 2001). With growing competition, many service organizations require their employees to work creatively for improving service quality, improving organizational effectiveness, and confirming long-term survival (Hon, 2012; Jonge, Spoor, Sonnentag, Dormann, & Tooren, 2012; Lusch, Vargo, & O'Brien, 2007; Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2000). The requirement of creativity is considered as one of the ways in which firms can protect their effectiveness and growth (Barnett & McKendrick, 2004). Though creativity often needs significant hard work with complete effort, needs the time for trial-and-error, and is usually a risky work for workers that involves a challenge to prevailing systems and policies (Hon, 2012; Zhou & George, 2003).

Since, job creativity is regarded as an important job behavior, this study examines the influence of stressors (JC and POP) on job creativity and also examines the appraisal of these stressors (JCCA and POPHA) respectively as mediators in the stressors (JC and POP) and job creativity relationship. Moreover, this study also examines the role of personality e.g. CSE as a moderator in the stressors (JC and POP)-appraisal (JCCA and POPHA)-job creativity relationship, respectively.

2.4 Job Stressors

2.4.1 Job Complexity (JC)

JC refers to the degree of challenging and invigorating demands at work (Fried, Melamed, & Ben-David, 2002). On the basis of the Maslow's (1954) theory of individual needs, researchers have tried to enhance jobs with the intention of increasing their level of motivation. Indeed, job characteristics model is considered as the well-recognized and examined theory of job enrichment (JCM; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

The JCM (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Oldham & Cummings, 1996) comprises of five attributes: identity, variety, autonomy, significance, and feedback. The core job characteristics are defined by Hackman and Lawler (1971) as: skill variety is described as the level to which a job requires the use of several diverse expertise and skills. Task identity refers to the level to which the job encompasses completion of the whole piece of job or completing a task from the start till end with a recognizable result. Task significance is described as the degree to which the job has a considerable influence on the work and existence of other persons. Autonomy refers to the extent to which the work offers considerable sovereignty and freedom of choice relating to work processes. Feedback is described as the level to which the work gives clear information about how effectively one is performing the job. The empirical studies on the JCM have extensively supported the factor structure of the five job characteristics (Champoux, 1991; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Harvey, Billings, & Nilan, 1985; Taber & Taylor, 1990).

This model states that five core job characteristics, i.e., autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback influence three psychological states, which subsequently lead to job outcomes such as JS, intrinsic work motivation, work quality, absenteeism, and turnover (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Indeed, the three core dimensions of task identity, task

significance, and skill variety lead to the important psychological state of experienced meaningfulness; autonomy causes the feeling of accountability, and feedback leads to knowledge of results. These three important psychological states consequently lead to high intrinsic motivation, high JS, high quality of JP, and low absenteeism and turnover.

According to this model, individuals are more prone to feel enthusiastic about their job tasks and are more involved in finishing these job tasks even without the presence of external checks and controls (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Oldham & Cummings, 1996). Numerous studies have reported that core job characteristics are linked with job attitudes, for instance, JS, organizational commitment, turnover intention, cooperation, psychological strain, anxiety, and frustration (Champoux, 1991; Fortunato & Stone-Romero, 2001; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Gerhart, 1987; Griffin, 1991; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Hochwarter, Zellars, Perrewé, & Harrison, 1999; Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000; Loher et al., 1985; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Opren, 1979; Saavedra & Kwun, 2000; Sainfort, Karsh, & Booske, 2005; Saks, 2006; Spector & Jex, 1991; Spector, Dwyer, & Jex, 1988).

The research on the JCM has recommended that an additive index of the five core job characteristics, labeled as JC, is a better predictor of the work attitudes and behaviors as compared to any single job characteristic alone (Fried & Ferris, 1987). Hence for the intention of maintaining parsimony, this research study is based on a single JC facet. JC is described by Hackman and Oldham (1980) as the level to which a job is complex, challenging, interesting, motivating, and entails variety. Morgeson and Campion (2003) conducted a review and integration of the literature on work design and argued that JC not only includes the dimensions of the JCM but also incorporates other characteristics, for instance, job control, job responsibility, specialization, and mental demands.

JC is a very important job attribute because the majority of jobs these days are placing elevated cognitive demands on employees (Morrison, Cordery, & Girardi, 2005). JC is described as the extent to which a job places extraordinary demands on an individual that may or may not demand supplementary skills, ability, and training (Campbell, 1988; Schaubroeck, Ganster, & Kemmerer, 1994).

The nature of work has been consistently revolutionizing due to changes in workforce composition, intensified competition, and remarkable technological changes (Howard, 1995; Morgeson & Campion, 2003; Parker et al., 2001). Due to these changes of improved technology, augmented skill variety, and a transformation to knowledge-based work, the work has become more complex and cognitively challenging (Howard, 1995; Parker et al., 2001). Moreover, global competition and variations in employment contracts have also led to increased uncertainty (Parker & Wall, 2001).

According to Morgeson and Humphrey (2006), JC articulates the extent of complexity and difficulty of the tasks on a job. The more the tasks are difficult and complex, the more will be the JC. The cognitive demands are high in complex jobs, which make them more mentally challenging (Humphrey et al., 2007) and, thus, require high-level competencies to perform them. The examples of complex jobs may include managers and professionals (Kinnie, Hutchinson, Purcell, Rayton, & Swart, 2005).

According to job design researchers, enriched and complex jobs are very beneficial for the organizations because they are more likely to fulfill the needs of the individuals and are expected to result in high JS, high motivation, higher JP, and lower absenteeism and turnover (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980; Herzberg, 1968; Maslow, 1943). However, past empirical studies have also

reported that complex jobs are likely to have an association with exhaustion because these jobs are cognitively challenging and demand greater cognitive capabilities (e.g., Xie & Johns, 1995).

Complex jobs offer employees with autonomy, prospect to use an assortment of skills, feedback regarding their JP, and an opportunity to accomplish an absolute and important piece of work (Baer, Oldham, & Cummings, 2003). Jobs that are high in complexity require individuals to completely utilize their knowledge, skills, and abilities, regularly gain knowledge of new procedures and technologies (Kozłowski & Hults, 1986), and cooperatively exchange their knowledge and expertise with their colleagues (Man & Lam, 2003). On the contrary, jobs that are low in complexity entail monotonous and repetitive tasks, which do not require much complex planning activities and decisions and can be taught relatively fast (Fay & Kamps, 2006).

Recognizing the importance and influence of the job design, researchers have stressed the requirement for more theory building and empirical investigation in this field (Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson & Campion, 2003). According to Morgeson and Campion (2003), "The apparent decline of interest in work design research is troubling" ... this "reduced research interest in recent times is all the more surprising given the resurgent interest in work design in organizations" (p. 423). Humphrey et al. (2007) stressed out the need for future research to examine the relationship of JC with job outcomes.

2.4.2 Job Complexity (JC)-Job Outcomes Relationship

Scholars in organizational behavior field have recognized that when jobs are intrinsically meaningful to employees, they respond positively towards their job (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Griffin, 1987). Moreover, in this current era, organizations are trying to increase the numbers of professional and trained jobs, which are described by complex cognitive needs (Bernstein, Brandt,

Carlson, & Padley, 1992). Several researchers have suggested that job design is an important factor which influences employees' individual motivation, their job attitudes, and creativity (Amabile, 1988; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Kanter, 1988; Shalley, Zhou, & Oldham, 2004; West & Farr, 1990). JC, which refers to a collection of tasks and the degree of challenges at work, is found to boost the JS and organizational commitment of employees and decreases turnover intentions of employees and actual turnover (Bj. Orvell, & Brodin, 1992; Joo & Lim, 2009; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

The JCM (Hackman & Oldham, 1980) anticipated that JS is one of the most important consequences which results from intrinsically enhanced jobs. The JCM hypothesized that core job characteristics are positively associated with constructive job attitudes such as JS and internal work motivation on the premise that complex, challenging, and engaging jobs make employees experience stimulating feelings which, in turn, lead to JS and internal work motivation (Morgeson & Campion, 2002, 2003). The JCM further recommends that intrinsic job characteristics (e.g., task significance and skill variety) influence the positive psychological states, for instance, feelings of responsibility and meaningfulness, which consequently cause JS.

Several textbooks in the management domain have also declared that JC is an important factor for increasing the JS of employees (e.g., Mathis & Jackson, 2006; Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhardt, & Wright, 2006). Numerous researchers have stated that JC has a strong influence on the JS of employees. Indeed they have asserted that increasing JC is the best technique to increase the JS of employees (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Judge, 2000; Morgeson & Campion, 2003). Longitudinal study also reported that job characteristics positively influence JS (Jonge et al., 2001).

Regarding the relationship of JC with JP, Hackman and Oldham (1980, p. 60) said that when job contains certain characteristics, then as a result, "jobholders will experience a positive, self-generated affective 'kick' when they perform well and this internal reinforcement serves as an incentive for continued good performance". Researchers have suggested that confined role emphases can harm JP (Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997). Such as, Klein (1976) reported that mechanistic job design leads to individuals having constrained role orientations, which causes a lack of interest in their immediate job, that eventually suppresses innovation (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006).

Amabile (1988) argued that the approach through which jobs are designed influences the intrinsic motivation of employees at work. Hackman and Oldham (1980) argued that jobs that are high on complexity provoke and persuade the affective and motivational working of an employee. Specifically, jobs which are devised to be difficult and challenging (e.g., high on complexity and autonomy) are anticipated to cultivate greater intensities of intrinsic motivation as compared to comparatively routine and simple jobs (Hackman & Oldham, 1980) and as a result, employees tend to perform better.

The empirical studies investigating the motivating job characteristics' relationship with job outcomes, for instance, JP, absenteeism, and turnover have shown mixed results (Fried, 1991; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Kopelman, 1985; Oldham, 1996; Parker et al., 2001). However, although the job characteristics/JC are believed to influence JP (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), but two meta-analyses Fried and Ferris (1987); Loher et al., 1985) reported very low correlations with JP. Furthermore, even though studies supported the hypothesized relationships of job characteristics/JC with work attitudes such as JS and internal work motivation, but the magnitude of these relationships appears to be modest rather than high (Fried, 1991; Fried & Ferris, 1987;

Johns et al., 1992; Loher et al., 1985; Parker et al., 2001). These results indicate the possibility of a third variable which might be acting as a mediator in the job characteristics' and job outcomes' relationship.

Some empirical research studies (cross-sectional and longitudinal) in the domain of the Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) have reported that specific job demands, for instance, workload and cognitive demands are positively correlated with JE (e.g., Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2005; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007). Moreover, research has also suggested that JC positively influences the cognitive and emotional working of employees (Frese, 1982). Several researchers have suggested that task-based intrinsic motivation (e.g., doing a task because it gives the sense of enjoyment and interest, e.g., flow) leads to JE, which further stimulates creative job behaviors (Amabile, 1996; Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Parker et al., 2001).

Kahn (1990) led a qualitative study to find out the psychological conditions that facilitate or hinder personal engagement at work and reported that three psychological mechanisms (meaningfulness, safety, and availability) are related with the JE. Psychological meaningfulness basically means the sense of satisfaction or return on investments; individuals get by devoting their self in role-performances (Kahn, 1992). Kahn (1990, 1992) argued that challenging task characteristics, a variety of tasks, ability to utilize different skills, personal freedom of choice, and the prospect to create important benefits can result in psychological meaningfulness. This basically refers to the Hackman and Oldham's (1980) JCM, specifically the five job characteristics of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. Kahn (1992) suggested that when jobs have these five core job characteristics, it gives employees the freedom and inducements to make themselves more fully into their job or to become more engaged.

May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) tested Kahn's (1990) model and reported job enrichment had a positive relationship with meaningfulness and meaningfulness acted as a mediator in the job enrichment-JE relationship. Saks (2006) reported that job characteristics positively influence JE. Moreover, JE also mediated the job characteristics' and job outcomes' (JS and organizational commitment) relationship. Wildermuth and Pauken (2008) conducted a literature review and qualitative study on JE and reported that job-related factors such as meaningfulness of the job, the degree of challenge, and authority an individual has on the job influence their JE. In addition, they also suggested that environmental factors such as having quality workplace relationships also influence JE.

Past studies have consistently reported that job resources, for instance, skill variety, autonomy, performance feedback, learning opportunities, and social support from coworkers have a positive relationship with JE (Albrecht, 2010; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Christian et al. (2011) reported that task variety, task significance, autonomy, feedback, problem-solving, social support, and JC positively influence JE. Therefore, in conformity with the social exchange theory, it is postulated that when enriched and challenging jobs are provided to employees, they reciprocate with higher levels of JE.

Byron, Khazanchi, and Nazarian (2010) conducted a meta-analysis taking experimental studies and reported stressors' influence on creative performance is contingent upon the type of stress induced and how much the stress is inducing. Particularly, evaluative stress and creativity obtained a curvilinear relationship where low evaluative contexts positively and high evaluative contexts negatively influenced creative performance in control conditions. Moreover, uncontrollability was found to have a negative linear relationship with creativity. Although energy is needed to deal with CS, they also comprise of potential gains (Broeck, De Cuyper, De Witte, &

Vansteenkiste, 2010). Oldham and Cummings (1996) reported that employees' creative performance tends to be high when they have creativity-related personal characteristics, perform challenging and complex jobs, and work in an environment which is supportive and non-controlling.

Recently, three meta-analyses examined the job characteristics' relationship with outcomes and indicated the importance of job characteristics. The meta-analyses conducted by Harrison, Neff, Schwall, and Zhao (2006) reported that work characteristics are an influential factor that influences employee creativity. In addition, work characteristics also influence the proactive behavior (Fay & Sonnentag, 2002; Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Parker et al., 2006). Humphrey et al. (2007) reported the findings of a meta-analysis study that motivational work design characteristics explained 34% of the variance in JS, 24% in organizational commitment, 25% in subjective performance, 2% in turnover perceptions, and 26% in role perception outcomes. Particularly, JC had a positive relationship with JS, job involvement, and overload. According to the latest meta-analysis by Hammond, Neff, Farr, Schwall, and Zhao (2011), JC results in individual innovation. Perceptions of a complex job cause employees to involve in innovation and execute new ideas (Hammond et al., 2011; Ohly, Sonnentag, & Pluntke, 2006; Scott & Bruce, 1994). As in complex jobs, employees get more discretion to solve the issues at hand and are less confined in the typical organizational settings (Amabile, 1983).

Since the majority of the existing theoretical and empirical literature on the JC-job outcomes relationship has reported a positive relationship, it is proposed that JC will have a positive relationship with JS, JE, JP, and job creativity.

Hypothesis1 (a-d). JC is positively related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

2.4.3 Perceived Organizational Politics (POP)

The prevalence of organizational politics, whether perceived or actual, has been considered as having undesirable consequences for employees (e.g., Burns, 1961; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Porter, 1976). Generally, POP have been described as a person's evaluation concerning others' self-centered job behaviors that are not formally sanctioned (e.g., Ferris, Harrell-Cook, & Dulebohn, 2000; Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Kacmar & Baron, 1999; Mayes & Allen, 1977; Mintzberg, 1983).

Scholars have suggested that organizational politics promote and maintain a culture of inequality, injustice, and conflict between the employees of the organization (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Kacmar & Ferris, 1991). Gilmore, Ferris, Dulebohn, and Harrell-Cook (1996: 482) argued that organizational politics generate "hostile environment" by creating disagreement and dissonance that surface when people or groups are rutted against the organization or against each other.

Since the behaviors that lead to high POP (for instance, power tactics, backstabbing, and favoritism-based promotion and employment decisions) generally arise without the consideration for the well-being of the colleagues and the organization (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997), POP are generally considered as destructive, disruptive, and critical (Ferris et al., 2002; Mayes & Allen, 1977), but not constantly (Fedor & Maslyn, 2002; Fedor, Maslyn, Farmer, & Bettenhausen, 2008).

Research literature suggests that organizational politics are considered as having positive as well as negative impact on job outcomes. For instance, Randolph (1985) suggested that organizational politics are not necessarily bad; it is just the means through which individuals can achieve something for the welfare of the organization or their individual gain. Kumar and Ghadially (1989) also suggested that politics in organizations are both useful and detrimental for

the employees of the organization. The constructive consequences of organizational politics are finishing the job-related tasks, career growth, better position, status, power and recognition, and amplified sense of achievement and success (Vigoda, 2002). The destructive consequences are diminished strategic control and position integrity, hindered JP, bad feelings for others, and internal feelings of guilt (Vigoda, 2002).

POP have been described as consisting of circumstances where individuals may gain or lose contingent upon how they react to a situation (Gilmore et al., 1996). In addition, Ferris et al. (1996b) also suggested that job stressors such as POP appear to offer opportunities and alternatives to employees and consequently might be interpreted in a similar way.

2.4.4 Perceived Organizational Politics (POP)-Job Outcomes Relationship

POP, due to their harmful consequences, are considered as a stressor in the job environment for a variety of reasons (Ferris et al., 1989, 2002). Firstly, POP are considered as harmful for the maintenance of valuable exchange relationship between employee and the organization (Aryee; Chen, & Budhwar, 2004; Hall, Hochwarter, Ferris, & Bowen, 2004). Secondly, POP obstruct employees from achieving their individual and career objectives (Cropanzano et al., 1997). Thirdly, POP place extra load and difficulty on already burdened employees (LePine et al., 2005). Fourthly, POP cause interpersonal conflict at work (Vigoda, 2002). Lastly, POP are considered as a cause of stress which provokes employee responses in terms of strains (Ferris et al., 1989). In support of this viewpoint, empirical studies have reported that POP influence several stress-related outcomes such as job anxiety and burnout (Harris & Kacmar, 2005; Vigoda, 2002).

Ferris et al. (1989) proposed in their initial model that POP have an unfavorable effect on S, job involvement, job stress, and organizational withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism and

turnover. Ferris et al. (2002) expanded the original model of Ferris et al. (1989) and argued that POP also negatively influence the organizational commitment and JP of employees. POP, an important aspect of the social environment, have been recognized as a cause of stress which is harmful to employee JP (Chang et al., 2009).

Several empirical studies have reported that organizational environments that are characterized by a highly political atmosphere result in various destructive job outcomes such as decreased JS, organizational commitment, JP, creativity, and increased anxiety, stress, and burnout, increased intentions to leave and withdrawal behaviors, and as a result, negatively influence the productivity and profitability of the organization (Abbas et al., 2014; Chang et al., 2009; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Drory, 1993; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Ferris et al. 2002; Ferris et al., 1996b; Ferris, Frink, Gilmore, & Kacmar, 1994; Ferris et al. 1989; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Gilmore et al., 1996; Kacmar & Baron, 1999; Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson, & Anthony, 1999; Miller et al., 2008; Nye & Witt, 1993; Vigoda, 2000b, 2001).

Ferris et al. (1989) in their original model argued that POP had a negative impact on JS. Later on, this link has been tested in several studies and results have generally validated a negative relationship between POP and JS (e.g., Cropanzano et al. 1997; Ferris et al. 2000; Harrell-Cook, Ferris, & Dulebohn, 1999; Kacmar et al. 1999; Poon, 2003; Valle & Perrewe´ 2000; Vigoda, 2000b; Witt, Andrews, & Kacmar, 2000). Ferris et al. (1989) suggested that the extent to which POP will affect JS is based on how much the individual appraises the situation as threatening and hostile.

Political environment is considered as a risky deal for employees and employees would be less prone to devote energy and time in these circumstances (Randall et al., 1999). Although researchers hypothesized that POP negatively impact in-role JP because POP distract employees

from their in-role JP (e.g., Ferris et al. 2002), the empirical studies have reported conflicting findings and indicate the need for future research for clarifying these relationships. Some have found this relationship to be nonsignificant (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 1997; Hochwarter et al., 2000; Parker et al., 1995; Randall et al., 1999), positive (Hochwarter et al., 2006; Maslyn & Fedor, 1998; Rosen, Levy, & Hall, 2006), and inverse (e.g., Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2006; Vigoda, 2000b). Moreover, the most recent meta-analyses (see Chang et al., 2009; Miller et al., 2008) have reported contradictory results regarding the significance of the relationship between POP and JP.

Particularly, Chang et al. (2009) reported the results of their meta-analysis that POP had a significant correlation with JS, affective commitment, strain, turnover intentions, JP, and organizational citizenship behaviors toward individuals and organizations. They also reported that both job attitudes and strain mediated the influence of POP on JP. Whereas for the outcome of turnover intentions, only job attitudes mediated the influence of POP on turnover intentions.

Miller et al. (2008) revealed the findings of their meta-analysis on the relationship of POP with outcomes and reported that POP have a strong negative relationship with JS and organizational commitment, a moderately positive relationship with job stress and intentions to leave, and a non-significant relationship with in-role JP.

Recently, Crawford et al. (2010) meta-analysis study pointed out the dearth of empirical research examining the POP and JE relationship. But there are studies which have either examined POP and dimensions of JE. For instance, Lin, Siu, Shi, & Bai (2009) reported that office politics (HS) negatively influenced vigor and quantitative workload (CS) positively influenced vigor (a core element of work engagement). However, both quantitative workload and office politics positively impacted emotional exhaustion (a core element of job burnout). Moreover, autonomy had a positive relationship with vigor.

Liu and Shi (2010) reported that CS positively influenced vigor, dedication, and absorption, while HS negatively impacted these dimensions. Broeck et al. (2010) reported that job hindrances (work–home interference and emotional demands) positively influenced exhaustion and negatively influenced vigor. In contrast, job resources (autonomy and social support) had a negative association with exhaustion and a positive association with vigor. Moreover, job challenges (workload and cognitive demands) had a positive association with vigor.

Raja and Abbas (2013) reported that CS positively impacted innovative performance and while HS negatively impacted innovative performance. Boswell et al. (2004) reported that CS and HS had a distinct relationship with job outcomes, but had a positive association with psychological strain. Moreover, CS transformed into the felt challenge, which, in turn, influenced desirable job outcomes.

Since the majority of the existing theoretical and empirical literature on the POP-job outcomes relationship has reported a negative relationship, it is proposed that POP will have a negative relationship with JS, JE, JP, and job creativity.

Hypothesis2 (a-d). POP is negatively related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

2.5 Job Stressors-Primary Appraisal Relationship

Lazarus (1991) argued that following an event, an employee evaluates the work environment by primary and secondary appraisal (cognitive assessment of confidence, coping potential, and future prospect of the circumstances are considered). However, still there are very few studies till date which actually measure the primary appraisal in the stressors' and job outcomes' relationship.

Lazarus (1991) argued that an individual evaluates a situation depending on how much is at risk and how manageable the situation is. Individuals perceive a situation as challenging when it offers high risk as well as controllability (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggested that a situation is assessed as a challenge when it is demanding and exhausting but simultaneously presents the prospects for mastery, learning, personal achievement, and development. Challenge appraisal refers to a demanding situation that with effort and endeavor can be learned (Skinner & Brewer, 2002).

On the contrary, individuals perceive a situation as a threat or a hindrance when they experience the feeling of not having enough control on their job (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Therefore, individuals concentrate on the prospective gains when a situation is controllable, whereas when the situation is uncontrollable, they concentrate on possible losses (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Empirical studies have reported that CS generally, and specifically time pressure, positively influence the work experiences, for instance, challenge appraisal (Boswell et al., 2004) and pleasure (Freedman & Edwards, 1988).

Since the past research has supposed that one of these stressors is consistently and exclusively evaluated as a challenge (i.e., JC) and the other as a hindrance (i.e., POP). Past studies particularly the meta-analyses studies by LePine et al. (2005) and Podsakoff et al. (2007) also categorized these stressors as challenge or hindrance. This study is among those very few studies that empirically examine the appraisal assumptions made in the past research (e.g., LePine et al., 2005).

Although past studies have not explicitly tested the assumption of the TTS but the results of those studies indirectly provide evidence that JC is appraised as a challenge since it positively

influences the job attitudes and behaviors (Christian et al., 2011; Hammond et al., 2011; Humphrey et al., 2007; Harrison et al., 2006) and POP is appraised as a hindrance since it negatively influences the job attitudes and behaviors (Chang et al., 2009; Crawford et al., 2010; Miller et al., 2008).

Since political happenings restrict an employee's capacity to accomplish desired personal and career outcomes, it is appraised as a hindrance or a threat (Ferris et al., 1989; Vigoda, 2000a), but still there is no study till date, according to my best knowledge, which has actually tested this underlying assumption of the TTS. Similarly, the degree to which JC will influence job outcomes is based on how much the individual appraises the job as a challenge and still there are very few studies which has actually tested this underlying assumption of the TTS.

Therefore, this study suggests that the stressor of JC has a positive relationship with its challenge appraisal, termed in this study as Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal (JCCA), and the stressor of POP has a positive relationship with its hindrance appraisal, termed in this study as Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal (POPHA). Particularly, this study proposes that JC and POP will be positively related to JCCA and POPHA, respectively. For example, when a complex job is provided to an individual, the person can appraise the job as a challenge when it is demanding and exhausting but, likewise, presents the opportunity for mastery, learning, personal achievement, and development. Similarly, individual's POP are more likely to transform into POPHA because dealing with POP is very demanding and exhausting. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 3a. JC is positively related to JCCA.

Hypothesis 3b. POP are positively related to POPHA.

2.6 Primary Appraisal-Job Outcomes Relationship

The contemporary studies (e.g., LePine et al., 2005) on the basis of the theory proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggested that stressors can be appraised as two essential perspectives, i.e., challenge and hindrance.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) argued when individuals experience stressful job demands, they go through the similar psychological processes of appraisal and coping even though the results of that process diverge on the basis of the type of stressor and the way stressors are appraised. Empirical studies have reported that identical to HS, CS also has a positive association with strain (LePine et al., 2004; LePine et al., 2005). However, contrary to HS, the appraisal of CS has a tendency to produce positive attitudes and emotions (Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) postulated that a situation is assessed as a challenge when even though it is demanding but also offers the probability for personal achievements. Challenge has a positive relationship with intrinsic motivation (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996) and positive affect (Skinner & Brewer, 2002). Moreover, challenge is considered as a prerequisite for the occurrence of flow (Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989). Therefore, although challenge and intrinsic motivation are related but they are distinct constructs. While intrinsic motivation is referred to as "the motivation to engage in work primarily for its own sake because work itself is interesting, engaging or in some way satisfying" (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994, p. 950), challenge appraisal occurs from an evaluation of how much is at risk. Therefore, when an individual finds interesting any simple or difficult task, it can cause intrinsic motivation but might not essentially be related to the feelings of a challenge.

According to researchers, challenge appraisal assists in achieving performance through intensity, direction, and perseverance of effort toward job objectives. Challenge appraisal helps in creating the belief that if an individual utilizes energy, the meaningful result will arise (LePine et al., 2005). Tomaka, Blascovich, Kelsey, and Leitten (1993) conducted a study on the momentary experience and reported in their study that employees, who evaluated a task as challenging, displayed increased effort and exhibited higher performance. Furthermore, empirical studies have suggested that the feeling of experiencing challenging work encourages creativity (Amabile et al., 1996), and challenges resulting in the presence of stimulants for creativity, in turn, influenced the creativity in a high-technology firm (Amabile & Conti, 1999).

Challenge and hindrance appraisals are differentiated from each other by the nature of instant emotions they induce, such as challenge appraisals stimulate positive emotions, for instance, joy and enthusiasm and hindrance appraisals stimulate negative emotions, for instance, anger and guilt, etc. (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Skinner and Brewer (2002) conducted a study on employees working in the academic sector and reported that challenge appraisal was related to positive emotions (e.g., enthusiasm), while hindrance appraisal was related to negative emotions (e.g., nervousness).

Laying its foundation from the TTS, since challenge appraisal is believed to encourage employee's prospect for goal attainment and achievement, challenge appraisals are expected to have a positive relationship with favorable job attitudes and behaviors (Skinner & Brewer, 2002). On the contrary, since hindrance appraisals are believed to have the possibility for harm or failure, hindrance appraisal tends to have a positive association with adverse job attitudes and behaviors (Skinner & Brewer, 2002). Challenge appraisal is hypothesized to have a positive relationship with

JP, whereas hindrance appraisal is likely to be negatively associated with JP (Beehr et al., 2000; Jex, 1998; McGrath, 1976).

The appraisal and the coping processes to deal with stressors require a lot of cognitive and emotional efforts (Cooper et al., 2001; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), which cause strains, for instance, exhaustion and fatigue, which consecutively result in reduced JP since it drains out energy that could be utilized to perform the job tasks (Cohen, 1980).

According to researchers, employees reach the highest levels of productivity and creativity when they feel intrinsically motivated mostly due to importance, pleasure, passion, contentment, and challenge of the job itself, not because of external rewards or pressures (Amabile, 1996; Amabile & Kramer, 2007).

Webster et al. (2011) reported that hindrance appraisals had a positive relationship with psychological and physical strains, whereas challenge appraisals did not have a negative relationship with strains and in fact, challenge appraisals for the stressors of responsibility and workload actually had a positive association with physical strain. In addition, the authors also reported that challenge appraisal had a non-significant relationship with job dissatisfaction, turnover intentions, and psychological strain. On the other hand, hindrance appraisals had an association with unfavorable job outcomes such as job dissatisfaction and turnover intentions. Therefore, on the basis of above theoretical and empirical evidence, it is expected that challenge appraisal will have a positive whereas hindrance appraisal will have a negative relationship with job outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity). Hence, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis4 (a-d). JCCA is positively related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

Hypothesis5 (a-d). POPHA is negatively related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

2.7 Primary Appraisal as a Mediator in the Job Stressors-Job Outcomes Relationship

This study also investigated primary appraisal as a mediator in the job stressors-job outcomes relationship as suggested by the TTS. There are very rare studies which have investigated appraisal as a mediator in the job stressors' and job outcomes' relationship. Wirtz et al. (2006, 2007) reported that appraisal acted as a mediator and influenced strains when experiencing severe stressors, for instance, taking a mental math test, though this study was not conducted in the workplace environment.

Although studies have provided preliminary evidence that CS are mostly appraised as a challenge and HS are mostly appraised a hinderance (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; LePine et al., 2005; Rodell & Judge, 2009), but there is no study to the best of my knowledge which has actually examined the challenge appraisal of JC and hindrance appraisal of POP. Moreover, there is a lack of research which has actually examined how JCCA and POPHA mediate the stressors (JC and POP)-job outcomes relationship, respectively.

Even though studies in the domain of JC have not explicitly measured JCCA but indirectly, evidence exists for challenge appraisal acting as a mediator in the relationship between work characteristics and job outcomes. For instance, Boswell et al. (2004) reported that perceived challenge mediated the work characteristics-constructive workplace attitudes, and retention relationship. Recently, Ohly and Fritz (2010) conducted a study on 149 employees using experience-sampling data on a daily level and reported that work characteristics such as time pressure and job control are evaluated as challenging and that challenge appraisal was found to have a relationship with daily creativity and proactive behavior.

However, still, there is a dearth of research which has investigated actual challenge appraisal as a mediator in the relationship between challenging work characteristics and performance-related behaviors (LePine et al., 2004). Moreover, this field of research has been separated from research in the domain of work design which has investigated the influence of work characteristics on different motivational states consisting of intrinsic motivation (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), felt responsibility, and self-efficacy (Parker et al., 2006). Hence, the purpose of this study is to investigate JCCA as the underlying mechanism in the relationship between JC and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, job creativity).

Since challenge appraisal is associated with the positive affect (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Skinner & Brewer, 2002) and the positive affect is linked with performance-related behaviors, for instance, creativity (Amabile et al., 2005) and proactive behavior (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009), it can be implied that JCCA can also emerge as an important factor which can influence the job outcomes of JS, JE, JP, and job creativity. Therefore, it is proposed that JCCA plays the role of mediator in the JC-job outcomes relationship.

The majority of theoretical and empirical research on POP (Ferris et al., 2002) specified the direct relationship of POP with job attitudes and behaviors. However, there is a dearth of research which has tried to explain the underlying psychological mechanisms linking POP with job attitudes and behaviors. Hence, the theoretical and empirical research has somehow failed to investigate mediators in explaining the relationship of POP with job outcomes. This limitation in the existing theoretical and empirical literature on POP has also been pointed out by a latest meta-analysis by Miller et al. (2008) who indicated a non-significant relationship between POP and JP and also the results of their study failed to provide an overall conceptual framework which explains

that why and how POP influence job attitudes and behaviors. Recently, researchers have started acknowledging the role TTS can play in explaining the relationship of POP with job outcomes.

Ferris et al. (1989) argued that POP elicit a primary appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) evaluating the work environment as threatening, which further forces employees to involve in politicking to achieve their motives. Although there is a lack of research which has actually examined POPHA as a mediator between POP and job outcomes but indirectly, studies have provided evidence that emotions and job attitudes mediate the POP-job outcomes relationship (Albrecht, 2006; Liu et al., 2006; Rosen, Harris, & Kacmar, 2009).

Liu et al. (2006) revealed that POP transform into emotions and emotional behaviors, which, in turn, influence the attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (JS, affective commitment, cynicism, and burnout). Moreover, empirical studies (Albrecht, 2006; Rosen, Harris, & Kacmar, 2009) have shown that emotional experiences at work mediate the POP-job outcomes relationship.

The study by Liu et al. (2006) has been further strengthened by Rosen et al. (2009) by suggesting that daily hassles related to POP stimulate negative emotional responses which, in turn, influence work outcomes. They reported that frustration acted as a partial mediator between POP and JS. Moreover, both frustration and JS mediated the influence of POP on JP, organization citizenship behaviors, and intentions to leave.

Rosen et al. (2006) reported that employee morale mediated the influence of POP on JP. Chang et al. (2009) reported that strains (e.g., job anxiety and tension) and work attitudes (e.g., JS and affective commitment) fully mediated the relationship between POP and JP. Karatepe (2013) reported that JE fully mediated the relationship of POP with affective commitment, intentions to leave, and extra-role performance.

Therefore, on the basis of above theoretical and empirical evidence, it is expected that JCCA and POPHA will act as a mediator in the stressors (JC and POP)-job outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity) relationship, respectively. Hence, in this study, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis6 (a-d). JCCA acts as a mediator between JC and job outcomes a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

Hypothesis7 (a-d). POPHA acts as a mediator between POP and job outcomes a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

2.8 Role of Core Self-Evaluations (CSE) in the Job Stressors-Primary Appraisal-Job Outcomes Relationship

Nowadays, researchers have given a lot of attention to the broad personality construct labeled as CSE. Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) continued the theoretical development in the domain of personality and presented the theory of "core self-evaluations". It is defined as "fundamental premises that individuals hold about themselves and their functioning in the world" (Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998, p. 168); such self-evaluations range from positive to negative.

CSE is described as the basic judgment which people formulate about themselves and their sense of worth (Judge et al., 1997). CSE is considered as an extensive personality construct which comprises of four essential, broad, and self-evaluative dispositional traits, which are high generalized self-efficacy, high self-esteem, low neuroticism, and internal locus of control. Judge et al. (1997) argued that these particular traits signify a distinct, higher order factor which develops the basis for other, more exact assessments. Numerous studies have confirmed the reliability and validity of the CSE construct (Bono & Judge, 2003; Erez, 1997; Erez & Judge, 2001; Heller, Judge,

& Watson, 2002; Judge, 2009; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge et al., 2000; Judge et al., 1998; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002, 2003; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998).

Self-esteem is described as the general worth, value, and importance an individual places on himself or herself as a person (Harter, 1990). Generalized self-efficacy basically describes an individual's assessment of how well he or she can deal with the challenges of life (Locke, McClear, & Knight, 1996). Neuroticism refers to an individual's propensity to have a pessimistic viewpoint and to concentrate on the negative characteristics of the self (Watson, 2000). Lastly, locus of control is described as an individual's beliefs about the source of happenings in one's life, where internal locus of control signifies a person's belief that the consequences are an outcome of their own behavior and external locus of control represents a person's belief that the consequences are just a matter of luck or chance (Rotter, 1966).

Empirical research studies have reported that individuals with positive CSE have a propensity to be highly satisfied with their job and life (Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge et al., 1998, 2000). Moreover, research has also reported that CSE has a positive influence on motivation (Erez & Judge, 2001), goal-setting behavior (Erez & Judge, 2001), JP (Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge et al., 2003), leadership (Eisenberg, 2000), and a negative influence on stress (Best, 2003).

Bipp (2010) also reported that CSE was positively associated with intrinsic job motivation elements, e.g., autonomy and experienced meaningfulness. Judge, Bono, Erez, and Locke (2005) reported that CSE had a positive relationship with goal self-concordance, which implies that people with positive self-evaluations are prone to follow goals for intrinsic interest and value-compatible reasons. Moreover, goal self-concordance was associated with both job and life satisfaction.

The reason for choosing CSE as a personality trait above other personality traits is that it consists of fundamental traits and has its origin from more specific traits (Judge et al., 1997). Moreover, another reason for choosing CSE is that research studies have shown that CSE explains more variance in job attitudes and behaviors as compared to the big-five personality traits or the individual CSE traits (Dormann, Fay, Zapf, & Frese, 2006; Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge et al., 2003; Judge et al., 2008; Lemelle, & Scielzo, 2012; Rode, Judge & Sun, 2012).

Although relatively new, the construct of CSE is emerging as a dominant focus of research in the industrial-organizational psychology (Chang et al., 2012; Judge et al., 1997). Though the mainstream research in the domain of CSE has focused on its direct influence on job attitudes and behaviors (Erez & Judge, 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge et al., 2003; Song & Chathoth, 2013), few studies have recognized the broad construct of CSE as a moderator (Bowling, Wang, & Li, 2012; Harris, Harvey, & Kacmar, 2009; Judge & Hurst, 2007; Karatepe, 2011; Lim, & Tai, 2014; McNall, Masuda, Shanock, & Nicklin, 2011; Rosopa & Schroeder, 2009).

Researchers have stressed out that the role of dispositional theory should be considered in the appraisal of stressors and how individuals respond to those stressors (Lin, Wu, Chen, & Chen, 2014). The personality construct of CSE is likely to affect the situational appraisals. Judge, Locke et al. (1998) indicated that "People who consider themselves worthy and able to cope with life's exigencies bring a 'positive frame' to the events and situations they encounter" (p. 31). Researchers have suggested that "individuals with positive CSE appraise themselves in a consistently positive manner across situations; such individuals see themselves as capable, worthy, and in control of their lives" (Judge, Van Vianen, & De Pater, 2004, pp. 326–327).

It is expected, on the foundation of existing theoretical and empirical research, that CSE is an important personality construct which can influence the way individuals appraise different job

stressors and react to those job stressors. For instance, Cozzarelli (1993, p. 1224) noted that "chronic beliefs about the self, control, and outcomes reflect key components of an individual's view of the world and of his or her ability to function successfully in that world, and thus should be especially potent in shaping reactions to stressful life events".

This study tries to fulfill an important gap in the literature and taking its foundation from the TTS (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), this study proposes that CSE is an important personality construct which will not only influence individual appraisal of stressors as challenge or hindrance but will also influence their reactions towards these appraisals in terms of job outcomes.

Although there is very scarce research which has explicitly investigated the role of personality in the appraisal of stressors, but studies have examined different personality traits such as CSE, conscientiousness, etc. as moderators in the stressors' and outcomes' relationship (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013; Harris et al., 2009; Lin, Ma, Wang, & Wang, 2015). For instance, Lin et al. (2015) reported that high conscientiousness acted as a double-edged sword where it not only strengthened the positive association between CS and JP but also strengthened the positive association of both CS and HS with psychological strain suggesting that conscientiousness not only enhances JP but also worsens employees' reaction (psychological strain) to stressful situations.

Barrick et al. (2013) reported that big-five personality traits and job characteristics interactively influence the psychological state of experienced meaningfulness, which subsequently stimulates task-specific motivation processes, which further impact the accomplishment of job outcomes. Moreover, Harris et al. (2009) reported that social stressors are negatively associated with JS and altruism and positively associated with intentions to leave. CSE also moderated the social stressors-outcomes (JS and intentions to leave) relationship by weakening their relationship.

Thus, CSE is an important personality construct which influences the way individuals will respond to job stressors and whether they appraise the job stressor as a challenge or a hindrance. Therefore, this study proposes that individuals having positive CSE are more prone to appraise the job stressors of JC as a challenge since they consider the possibility for more intrinsic rewards, while individuals having negative CSE are more prone to appraise the job stressor of POP as a hindrance because they concentrate only on the difficulties associated with those stressors (Judge et al., 2000).

Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) suggested a theory for analyzing the impact of personality on the stress process. According to this theory, personality may influence exposure and reactivity to stressful happenings, where both these processes may elucidate how personality influences the health and psychological consequences. The theory also indicates that personality variation in reactivity is perhaps due to two underlying processes, i.e., differential choice and effectiveness of those coping efforts. To test this theory, Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) investigated the relationships among personality trait (e.g., neuroticism), a stressor (e.g., daily interpersonal conflict), coping with conflict, and distress. The findings of the study reported that individuals having a high neuroticism had both higher exposure and reactivity to conflicts. Moreover, individuals having a high and low neuroticism had a distinct selection of coping efforts and in the usefulness of those efforts.

In another study, Hahn (2000) conducted a study to investigate how locus of control might influence stress through four pathways comprising of exposure, reactivity, coping choice, and coping effectiveness. The results of the study suggested that individuals having internal and external locus of controls did not have a different exposure to interpersonal conflict, whereas they did have a different reactivity, where internals reported increased anger and health symptoms but

lower depression than externals. Moreover, internals and externals adopted a dissimilar coping approach which somewhat explained their differences in reactivity. In addition, problem-solving, coping, and emotional social support were found to have an association with increased anger and physical health symptoms.

According to Differential Exposure-Reactivity theory proposed by Bolger and Zuckerman (1995), personality may influence the stress process through four particular pathways identified as exposure, reactivity, coping choice, and coping effectiveness. Differential exposure and differential reactivity are the first two important processes identified by Bolger and Zuckerman (1995), through which individual differences, e.g., personality influence the stress process. Exposure is described as the degree to which an individual is expected to endure a stressful incidence, while reactivity is the degree to which an individual is prone to exhibit emotional or physical responses to stressors' incidence. According to this theory, personality may influence the frequency of occurrence of a stressor (identified as differential exposure) or the type and intensity of response to it (identified as differential reactivity).

Differential coping choice and effectiveness are the third and the fourth pathways identified by Bolger and Zuckerman's model and are actually the sub-factors of reactivity, recognizing the two ways through which personality variation in coping may influence the differential reactivity. Coping choice describes the coping efforts that individual utilizes in reaction to a stressful incident. Coping effectiveness describes the degree to which these coping efforts reduce the undesirable consequences of the stressful incident. Thus, this theory suggests that personality can influence reactivity because when stressors are present, personality can influence coping choice, coping effectiveness or both.

The study conducted by Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) has a major limitation that is they did not investigate the role of appraisals as mediators in the stress process. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), appraisals are an essential underlying mechanism which ascertains that whether events are evaluated as challenge or hindrance (primary appraisal) and whether and what types of coping techniques are utilized (secondary appraisal). Since appraisal processes are considered as an element of both stressor exposure and coping choice, Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) excluded appraisals for the purpose of maintaining simplicity in their study.

Differential Exposure-Reactivity theory proposed by Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) also explains the impact of personality, e.g., CSE in the stress appraisal (challenge appraisal and hindrance appraisal). Therefore, this research study also utilizes the Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) theory in explaining the role of CSE in the appraisal (JCCA and POPHA) of the job stressors (JC and POP), respectively.

The Bandura's theory of Self-Regulation (1997) also plays a critical role in explaining how CSE influences the appraisal of job stressors even though Bandura is not considered as a trait theorist by researchers. According to this theory, individuals' confidence about their abilities and competence to execute a task will affect their level of motivation to look for or stay away from the task. Bandura (1997) suggested, "People avoid activities and environments they believe exceed their capabilities, but they readily undertake activities and pick social environments they judge themselves capable of handling. The higher the perceived self-efficacy, the more challenging the activities they select" (p. 160).

Therefore, it is proposed that individuals having positive CSE are more prone to appraise job stressors of JC as a challenge because they think that they have got the capabilities to deal with the difficulties associated with the job. Particularly, the self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) and locus of

control (Spector, 1982) dimensions of CSE suggest that individuals having positive CSE acquire control over their job environment and as a result, take their job as a challenge.

Positive CSE is expected to provide value not only to conquer the bad but also to make the most of the good (Judge & Hurst, 2007). An individual having positive CSE will evaluate a challenging assignment as a prospect from which the person can master and get advantage of, while on the contrary, an individual with a negative CSE might take it as a threat to be evaded or an unmerited opportunity (Bandura, 1997; Locke et al., 1996).

Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, and Scott (2009) conducted a meta-analytic, and a daily diary study and results of both studies have shown that people with positive CSE sensed fewer stressors, felt lesser strain, engaged in more problem-solving and less avoidance coping, and did not have a strong relationship with emotion-focused coping. Research has shown that people having an internal locus of control are more prone to assess stressors as under control which can be overcome by their own efforts (May, Schwoerer, Reed, & Potter, 1997).

CSE is also expected to moderate the relationship between stressor's appraisal (JCCA and POPHA) and job outcomes. People with a positive CSE are not only expected to appraise the stressors of JC (more as a challenge) and POP (less as a hindrance) but once the appraisal is done, it is also expected to influence stressor's appraisal (JCCA and POPHA) and job outcomes' relationship. Positive CSE is expected to strengthen the JCCA and job outcomes' relationship and weaken the POPHA and job outcomes' relationship.

2.8.1 CSE as a Moderator in JC-JCCA-Job Outcomes Relationship

The CSE may influence the level to which an individual perceives a given situation as beneficial. Judge et al. (2000) suggested that people having positive CSE tend to exercise more

effort, due to goal-setting behavior and higher involvement on task and their chances to withdraw from complex jobs are less when they face setbacks because they trust their abilities. In addition, individuals with positive CSE due to their high coping abilities are more likely to achieve better performance, specifically for complex jobs (Judge et al., 2000).

Moreover, Judge et al. (1998), taking Hackman and Oldham (1980) intrinsic job characteristics (identity, variety, feedback, autonomy, and significance), reported that perceptions of intrinsic job characteristics mediated CSE-JS relationship, which reflects that individuals having positive CSE assessed their work as higher on these core job dimensions and as a result, their JS was high. Later on, Judge et al. (2000) expanded the Judge et al. (1998)'s study and reported that people with positive CSE (assessed in early childhood) not only have the tendency to perceive their job as more enriched but also were prone to choose more complex jobs. Consequently, holding complex jobs resulted in higher JS. Srivastava, Locke, Judge, and Adams (2010) reported that individuals with positive CSE actually search for and select tasks having a higher degree of complexity, which, in turn, (directly or indirectly) enhances their task or JS.

Several studies have investigated the association between the dimensions of CSE and achievement of goals. Levy and Baumgardner (1991) conducted a study to find out the influence of self-esteem on goal difficulty and reported that people who have high levels of self-esteem opt for more difficult goals. In addition, Hall and Foster (1977) reported that self-esteem is associated not only with goals but also with task involvement (which was associated with consequent goal setting).

Taking into consideration the locus of control dimension of CSE, Spector (1982) reported that individuals with an internal locus of control exert higher efforts for accomplishing the goal

and persevere more in times of failure. Since JC implicitly assumes challenging goals for employees, individuals with positive CSE are more prone to appraise JC as a challenge.

Regarding the self-efficacy dimension of CSE, researchers have suggested that individuals who have a high level of self-efficacy believe in their abilities and capabilities to manage and implement a particular plan or strategy (Bandura, 1997) and have confidence in their competence to execute their work efficiently (Parker, 1993). Basically, job-related self-efficacy is described as the confidence that one is highly proficient in successfully finishing up a task. Lu, Chang, and Lai (2011) investigated self-efficacy as a moderator in the stressor-strain relationship in a sample of Chinese employees and reported that self-efficacy intensified the negative relationship between lack of autonomy and JS, while unexpectedly buffered the negative relationship of lack of autonomy with JP. This study indicated that self-efficacy could act as a double-edged sword in the environment of a Confucian Chinese society, as a contrast to what may be hypothesized in Western theoretical viewpoints.

Empirical studies have also investigated the relationship between the specific CSE traits and how individuals deal with complex tasks. For instance, individuals having a high level of anxiety (an important component of neuroticism) have reduced performance for complex jobs but not for simple tasks (Spector, 1982). Moreover, studies have reported that self-efficacy and locus of control influence perseverance and coping despite obstacles (Anderson, 1977; Bandura, 1997).

Therefore, on the basis of above theoretical and empirical evidence, it is expected that individuals with positive CSE are more likely to appraise the stressor of JC as a challenge (JCCA) and also will respond more positively to JCCA in terms of job outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity). Hence, the following hypotheses are suggested:

Hypothesis8. CSE moderates the JC-JCCA relationship such that the relationship is stronger for people having positive CSE.

Hypothesis9 (a-d). CSE moderates the JCCA-job outcomes (a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) job creativity) relationship such that the relationship is stronger for people having positive CSE.

2.8.2 CSE as a Moderator in POP-POPHA-Job Outcomes Relationship

Job stressors comprise of influential situations directing employees to take it as demands or opportunities (Schuler, 1980). In the same way, employees may perceive organizational politics as either a threat or an opportunity (Ashforth & Lee, 1990; Vrendenburgh & Maurer, 1984). Organizational politics may result in anxiety if it is perceived as threatening (Baum, 1989). Recently, Valle, and Perrewe (2000) reported that when employees assess POP as threatening, they respond with reactive behaviors and it results in more negative consequences for them. According to Ferris and his associates (1989, 1996a, b), individual responses to POP are mostly determined on the basis of how individuals interpret the experiences.

Ferris et al. (1989) also suggested that there might be certain moderating variables that might strengthen or weaken the relationship between POP and job outcomes, for instance, perceived control. Ferris et al. (1989) described perceived control as the extent to which people perceive that they have the capabilities and abilities to affect their work environment. According to Ferris and his associates (1989, 1996b), people with low perceived control will take POP more as a hindrance and consequently may undergo negative job attitudes and strain. On the other hand, people with high perceived control will take POP more as a chance to prosper and consequently endure positive job attitudes and less strain. Moreover, they further suggested that threat perceptions will, in turn, influence outcomes in a harmful way, and opportunity perceptions will

influence outcomes in a less harmful way or a less negative way. In particular, employees having a high level of personal control will respond less negatively to POP than people having a low level of personal control.

Since self-efficacy beliefs are strongly interrelated with beliefs of perceived control (Taylor & Aspinwall, 1996). Due to this theoretical resemblance, scholars argued for the role of self-efficacy beliefs as a moderator in the relationship between POP and outcomes (Ferris et al., 1989, p. 162). In particular, past studies have exhibited that self-efficacy beliefs moderated the stressor-strain relationships (e.g., Jex & Bliese, 1999; Leiter, 1991; Stumpf, Brief, & Hartman, 1987) in such a way that individuals with high self-efficacy, when encountered with stress, felt less threatened (Little & Madigan, 1997).

Therefore, whether POP are appraised as a challenge or a threat (McGrath, 1976) should also be based on the dispositional traits of individuals such as their CSE. The reason for choosing CSE as a moderator has been found in both stress appraisal and POP literature (Lazarus, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Particularly, POP is considered as an environmental stressor, which individuals appraise as either challenging or threatening (McGrath, 1976). The appraisal process is a resultant of the interaction of the perceived situational stimuli (e.g., POP) with an individual's personality, thinking, goals, and values (e.g., CSE). Indeed, Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) argued that personality of individuals plays a crucial role in determining their reactions to environmental stressors.

Harris et al. (2009) reported that social stressors negatively influenced JS and altruism and positively influenced intentions to leave. Moreover, positive CSE moderated the social stressors-outcomes relationship such that it was found to safeguard the negative influence of social stressors on JS and intentions to leave. Kacmar, Collins, Harris, and Judge (2009) reported that employees'

CSE and their perceptions of the environment (POP and perceptions of leader effectiveness) interacted in influencing the supervisor ratings of their JP. Specifically, in environments perceived as favorable (lower POP and higher perceptions of leader effectiveness) as compared to environments assessed as unfavorable, employees having positive CSE got higher JP evaluation from their supervisors.

Bozeman, Perrewe, Hochwarter, and Brymer (2001) reported that self-efficacy moderated the POP and job attitudes' (JS and organizational commitment) relationship, such that the higher an employee's job self-efficacy, the stronger the negative relationship between POP and job attitudes (JS and organizational commitment). Moreover, neurotic individuals (who have a tendency to undergo a negative affect; McCrae, 1990) are more prone to evaluate stressful circumstances as hindrances rather than challenges (Costa & McCrae, 1985).

On the contrary, extraverted individuals (who have a tendency to experience a positive affect; Tellegen, 1985) are theorized to appraise and as a result, deal with taxing circumstances in a constructive way (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). Hochwarter and Treadway (2003) reported that both high positive affect and negative affect resulted in unfavorable outcomes when encountered with a political environment. Moreover, political behavior, particularly self-promotion, moderated the POP and job outcomes (satisfaction with supervisor and turnover intentions) such that it lessened the negative influence of POP on these outcomes (Harrell-Cook et al., 1999).

Therefore, on the basis of above theoretical and empirical evidence, it is expected that individuals with positive CSE are less likely to appraise stressor of POP as a hindrance (POPHA) and are less likely to respond negatively to POPHA in terms of job outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity). Consequently, the following hypotheses are anticipated:

Hypothesis10. CSE moderates the POP-POPHA relationship such that the relationship is weaker for people having positive CSE.

Hypothesis11 (a-d). CSE moderates the POPHA-job outcomes (a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) job creativity) relationship such that the relationship is weaker for people having positive CSE.

2.9 Research Model of the Study

For more conceptual understanding, the theoretical framework of the current research study is also given below:

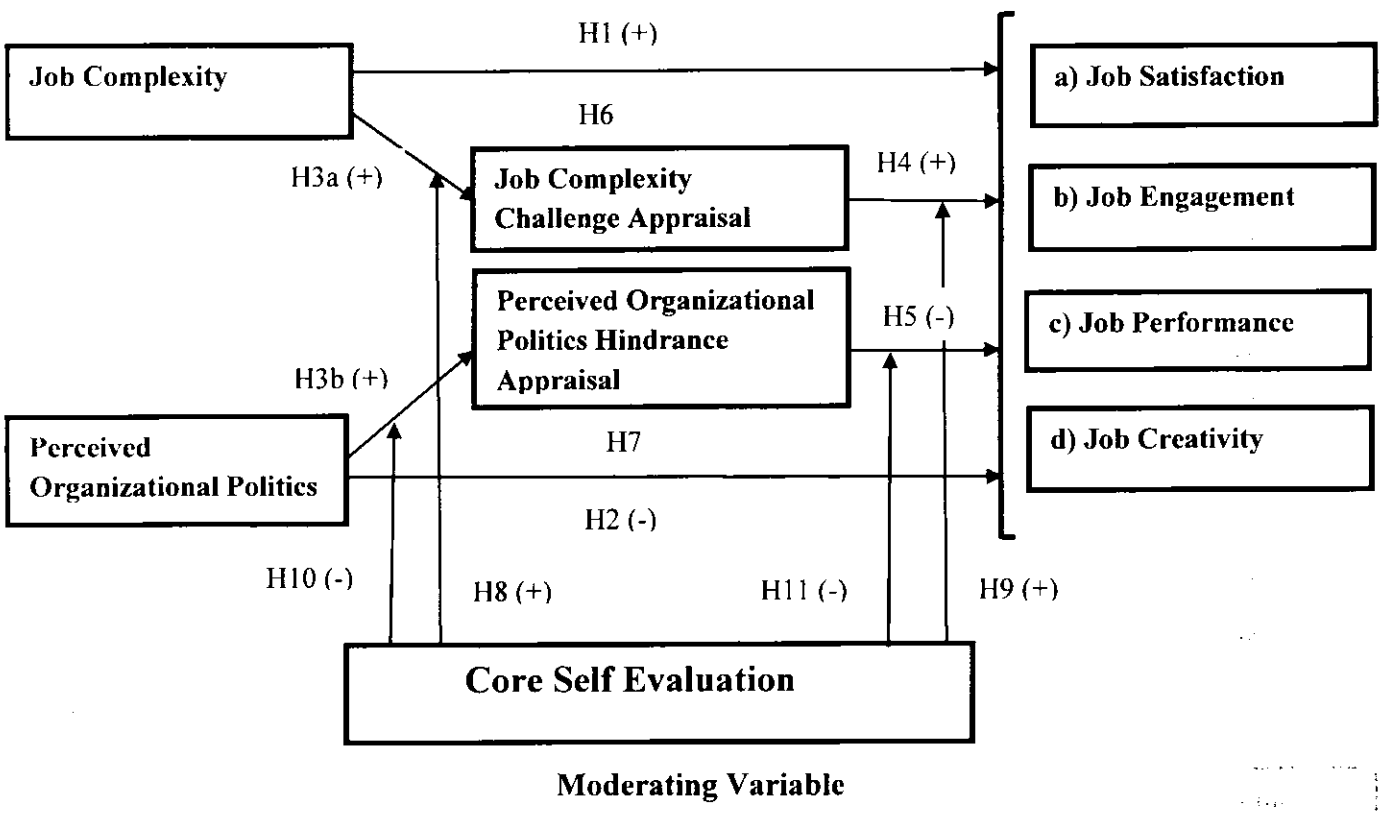

Figure 1. **Research Model of the Study**

2.10 Hypothesis of the Study

The complete hypothesis of the current research study are also given below:

Hypothesis 1 (a-d). JC is positively related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

Hypothesis 2 (a-d). POP is negatively related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

Hypothesis 3a. JC is positively related to JCCA.

Hypothesis 3b. POP are positively related to POPHA.

Hypothesis 4(a-d). JCCA is positively related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

Hypothesis 5(a-d). POPHA is negatively related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

Hypothesis 6 (a-d). JCCA acts as a mediator between JC and job outcomes a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

Hypothesis 7 (a-d). POPHA acts as a mediator between POP and job outcomes a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

Hypothesis 8). CSE moderates the JC-JCCA relationship such that the relationship is stronger for people having positive CSE.

Hypothesis 9 (a-d). CSE moderates the JCCA-job outcomes (a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) job creativity) relationship such that the relationship is stronger for people having positive CSE.

Hypothesis 10). CSE moderates the POP-POPHA relationship such that the relationship is weaker for people having positive CSE.

Hypothesis 11 (a-d). CSE moderates the POPHA-job outcomes (a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) job creativity) relationship such that the relationship is weaker for people having positive CSE.

3 Research Methodology

3.1 Research Design

The research design provides the summary of the complete strategy for conducting research (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). This study has been based on a moderated mediated model which researchers consider as moderate to difficult. The unit of analyses for this research study were individual employees of the organizations. This research study utilizes the survey method for getting responses because it is grounded in perceptions, dispositions, attitudes, and behaviors of individual employees. Past research studies carried out in Pakistan also applied survey method (e.g., Jamal, 1999; Jamil, Raja, & Darr, 2013: Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004).

Since this was a causal study, time-lagged research design was used as it is the most suitable technique for testing causal models, as the cross-sectional technique restricts the implications of the cause and effect relationship. It also tackles the problem of reverse causality in the causal relationships.

The empirical studies in the domain of stressors/job stress have mainly focused on the longitudinal designs to test mediated models. Since temporal preference is an essential requirement for causation, therefore, longitudinal designs are established on the premise that cause comes first before effect in time (Cook, Campbell, & Day, 1979). Researchers in the domain of social sciences generally determine the time to measure variables on the basis of accessibility or practice as compared to other fields where scientifically driven techniques determine the timing of measuring variables (Cole & Maxwell, 2003; Mitchell & James, 2001). According to the opinion of methodologists, time-lagged designs are less prone to common method bias as compared to cross-sectional designs (Maxwell, & Cole, 2007; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Since the nature of this study was causal and to avoid problems associated with the cross-sectional design, the time horizon for this study was longitudinal. Particularly, this was a time-lagged study as data were collected at two points of time with a gap of 2 to 3 months from the same respondent. Time1 (T1) refers to the first time response, and Time2 (T2) refers to the second time response. Independent variables, e.g., Job Complexity (JC) and Perceived Organizational Politics (POP) and moderator Core Self-Evaluations (CSE) are measured at T1. Mediators, e.g., Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal (JCCA) and Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal (POPHA) and Job Outcomes, e.g., Job Satisfaction (JS), Job Engagement (JE), Job Performance (JP), and Job Creativity are measured at T2 according to the prerequisite of the model. The theoretical background of this model necessitated that appraisal of the stressors should be measured at T2 because appraisals although need time to develop but once they are made they instantly influence the outcomes. Hence, in this study stressors (JC and POP) were measured at T1 but their appraisal (JCCA and POPHA) respectively and how these appraisals in turn influence job outcomes are measured at T2.

For further avoiding the problem of common method bias due to survey technique, data were collected from the employees as well as their supervisors. Independent variables (JC and POP), moderator (CSE), mediators (JCCA and POPHA), and Job Attitudes (JS and JE) are self-reported as for measuring perceptions, appraisals, and job attitudes, self-reported data are more suitable. Whereas the Job Behaviors (JP and job creativity) are supervisor-reported. This study was conducted in non-contrived study settings, data was collected from employees in the natural working environment of the organization, where the researcher was having a minimal interference.

3.2 Population

The definition of population is "the entire set of people or observations in which you are interested or which are being studied" (Blerkom, 2017; p. 212). The population for this study was employees working in diverse industries of Pakistan. There are multiple reasons for not confining the population and the consequent sample. Firstly, the major aim of this study is to tape the influence of various job stressors on individuals' job attitudes and behaviors in spite of the organizations in which they are working. Gathering data from several organizations helped to tape utmost variance across a variety of organizational settings and also helped to contrast the organizational level differences in the responses of the employees to the study variables. Secondly, gathering data from various organizations also enriched reliance on the generalizability of results. If data collection is confined to only a small number of organizations or industrial settings, it would have restricted the ability to make implications that could be generalizable to other industries. Therefore, circulating surveys to employees in diverse organizations despite any pre-defined criteria assisted in investigating stress-related issues in both growing and under-growth industries.

This study is based on collecting data from various private and public sector organizations situated in two major cities of Pakistan, i.e., Islamabad and Lahore. Although the data collection is based on convenience, but the data are collected from a variety of public and private sector organizations to increase the generalizability of results. The researchers who conducted quantitative studies restricting their samples to homogenous or one organization recognized that the generalizability of their results was confined due to their sample and population (e.g., Boswell et al., 2004; Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Webster et al., 2011). The population of this study was the permanent employees working at different levels, starting from first level management, middle, and top level management but with a pre-requisite that they must have a supervisor/boss.

3.3 Sample and Data Collection Techniques

It was not possible to collect data from the entire population because of many problems such as resource and time constraints, access to the organizations, extensive dispersion of the selected organizations and industries, etc. Therefore, a representative sample of individual respondents, i.e., employees for the study, by opting for organizations within the population on the basis of sampling techniques such as convenience sampling was selected. A sample of 400 employees was selected. It was guaranteed that all the managerial ranks (e.g., Officers, Assistant Managers, Managers, and General Managers, etc.) are properly symbolized in the survey, in proportion to the percentage of each group in each organization.

This research study is based on non-probability convenience sampling technique because no construct in the model demanded a particular type of work setting and organization. In addition, since it was a time-lagged study, it was very important to have a contact with participants at different points in time. Hence, only those organizations were selected where due to the personal contacts, it was ensured that data would be collected at two points in time. Moreover, it was also guaranteed that each participant must have a boss or a supervisor who looks after the working of the employee.

For survey method, several researchers have recommended distinct sample size, e.g., for simple models 200 (Kelloway, 1998) and moderately complex models, it is 300-400 (Boomsma, 1983). Hence, this study is based on the sample size of 300-400 responses keeping in consideration the complexity of the hypothesized model.

Since English is the formal language of all public and private sector organizations in Pakistan, the questionnaire was formed by using the adapted measures in English. Past empirical studies conducted in Pakistan have also recognized that the English language is not only suitable

but has also resulted in respectable reliabilities (Butt, Choi, & Jeager, 2005; Jamil et al., 2013; Khan, Shahid, Nawab, & Wali, 2013; Raja et al., 2004; Naseer, Raja, Syed, Donia, & Darr, 2016).

Data were collected with the help of self-administered questionnaires where the contact persons in particular organizations also provided support. It was voluntary to contribute to this study and a cover letter accompanied with each questionnaire which not only explained the respondents the importance and scope of this research but also assured them that the privacy of their responses was also maintained. Each questionnaire consisted of two parts: self-reported at T1, self-reported at T2, and supervisor-reported at T2.

To match the responses of the respondents at T1 and T2, the researcher created a key of the serial number for pairing the T1, T2, and supervisor-reported responses. For getting the supervisor-reported data without any ambiguity, the contact person wrote the name of the employee and serial number before handing over the supervisor-reported questionnaire to a supervisor. At certain times, one supervisor was supervising more than one employee, so all those questionnaires were grouped and handed over to a supervisor.

Choosing the right sample was one of the major challenges of our study due to the time-lagged design of the study and supervisor-reported outcomes for Job Behaviors (JP and job creativity). But, we utilized the convenience sampling technique and the final composition of sample comprised of employees from 12 different organizations, including two private sector banks, two represented telecom sector, one from the software development industry, two from the chemical industry, three public sector organizations, and one was from a call center, and the last one was a technical consulting and outsourcing company. The details regarding the composition of the sample are further discussed under the section of sample demographics.

Total of 650 questionnaires were circulated at T1, out of which 500 questionnaires were returned representing a response rate of 77%. At T2, 500 questionnaires were distributed only to the respondents who responded at the T1 response. Out of these 500 questionnaires, 450 were returned representing a response rate of 90%. Matching the T1, T2 and supervisor-reported response resulted in a complete paired response to 375 questionnaires. Out of these 375 questionnaires, 64 questionnaires were dropped due to missing values, and finally, the total sample size of 311 complete useable paired responses was attained for data analysis, which resulted in a final response rate of 48%. The data collection process took 5 to 6 months duration.

3.4 Sample Demographics

The sample of this study comprised of various organizations from private, semi-government, and public sector organizations. 31% of the respondents belonged to the IT sector, 37% of the respondents belonged to the banking sector, 11% of the respondents belonged to the telecom sector, 7% of the respondents belonged to the chemical industry, and 14% belonged to government sector organizations. The findings of the demographic analysis also figured out that respondents in this study belonged to different departments such as customer services, call center, human resource, marketing and sales, information technology, operations, accounts and finance, branch banking, administration, and others. 73% of the respondents had a permanent job, 24% had a contractual job, and 3% had a part-time job.

In terms of the breakup of designations, we found that almost 11% respondents are working as customer services representatives, whereas more than 26% reported that they work as Officer Grade (OG) in a bank, including OG-I, OG-II, and OG-III level, making up the highest representation in our sample, cumulatively. Around 12.6% and 6.7% of respondents also reported being working as Manager and Assistant Manager, respectively. About 17% and 21% of the

respondents are working as Senior Executive/Officer and Junior Executive/Officer respectively. A very small proportion of the sample, e.g., 1.5% reported working as Assistant Vice President. Finally, some 4.2% employees also reported being working as 'Intern' in the sample of 311 respondents.

81% of the respondents were male, and 19% of the respondents were female, whereas 49% of the respondents were single, 50% were married, and 1% had another marital status. Among respondents, 35% had a Bachelor's degree, 50% of the respondents had a Master's degree, and 9% had an MS/MPhil degree. Furthermore, the mean age of the respondents is 30.72 years (SD = 7.63). The mean tenure of the respondent with their current organization is 5.02 years (SD = 5.27). Moreover, the total working experience of the respondent is 7.28 years (SD = 5.71).

3.5 Measures

This study adopts all measures from past studies. It was ensured that the measures used for this study are consistent with the operational definitions of every variable to achieve face validity. Majority of the measures adopted have not only been verified in diverse work settings and occupations but different countries and culture. Moreover, the scales have been recognized to have good reliabilities in Pakistan and other countries. Researchers have suggested that for measuring study variables, using recognized scales decreases the chances of instrumentation threats (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Since the minimum qualification of the respondents is a Bachelor's degree, understanding of the English language was not difficult. Therefore, the questionnaire was developed in the English language.

Although we acknowledge the fact that alternative measures are available for constructs like JS and JP, but this study is based on the measures of JS and JP which have been declared

reliable and valid by recent studies published in the top-tier management journals (Abbas et al., 2014; Nasccr et al., 2016; Raja et al., 2004; Webster et al., 2011). Although using more than one measure of these variables would have enabled a more rigorous testing but it would have increased the length of the questionnaire and based on the time-lagged design of the study, the data collection would have been more difficult. Therefore, using more than one measure for variables in this study, was out of the scope of this study.

The convergent and discriminant tests have been applied in order to ensure that all the measures adopted in the process of data analysis are valid. Convergent validity requires three conditions to comply and such conditions have been examined for each measure. These three conditions involve factor loadings, Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and reliability.

The conditions revolve around the latent construct and the observed variables. Firstly, factor loading refers to the relationship of each variable with the underlying factor. According to Farrell and Rudd (2009), when a latent construct A theoretically correlates with the observed variables such as x1 and x2, it is referred to as factor loading. Secondly, the AVE is estimated by averaging the variation in the observed variables which a latent construct explains theoretically. Farrell (2010) suggests that when these variances are averaged, then AVE is generated. Finally, reliability is obtained when the results constitute consistency of the measurement.

On the other hand, discriminant validity tests the propensity of relatedness of the measures and concepts which are not actually related. According to Bagozzi, Yi, and Phillip (1991), the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is applied for discriminant validity in order to find out that whether uni or multi-dimension construct model is suitable for the research study. It helps in finding the modification indices, which then examine the degree to which a construct is different from the other constructs.

All the variables in the study, except for JP and job creativity, were assessed using a "self-report" questionnaire as self-reporting is recognized to be more suitable for these measures. However, to escape the problem of self-reporting bias, JP and job creativity were assessed using supervisor-rated responses. Unless otherwise declared, all measures were anchored on a five-point Likert scale that varied from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) to specify agreement with each statement and high variable scores designated high levels of the construct in question. A pilot study was also led to validate the instruments. Subsequent questionnaires were used for the collection of data.

3.5.1 Job Complexity (JC)

Job characteristics were measured by using 18 items from the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1980). This scale measures the following facets of the job: skill variety, autonomy, task identity, task significance, and feedback. Several studies have reported that this scale has good reliability and validity (Raja & Johns, 2010; Siegall & McDonald, 1995).

A second-order CFA was used to establish if all five sub-dimensions of JC load on to a single latent factor because the main aim of this study was to investigate overall JC. The results of this CFA (χ^2 = 119.43, df = 90, CMIN/df = 1.33, CFI = .98, NFI = .93, TLI = .97, GFI = .96, AGFI .92, RMR = .03, and RMSEA = .03), as depicted in Table 1, recommended that a single latent factor model has a good fit. Therefore, for obtaining a composite aggregate of JC, an additive measure taking an average of all 18 items was calculated. High scores on this overall mean of JC indicated that respondents rate their jobs as higher on JC. Research studies have provided evidence that the subscales for the five major dimensions have been combined to form a single measure of job scope or JC (Hochwarter et al., 1999b; Raja & Johns, 2010; Siegall & McDonald, 1995).

Firstly, the reliability was attained for five sub-dimensions of JC: 'skill variety (.67, improves to .70 after excluding SV3T1)', 'autonomy (.74)', 'task identity (.59)', 'task significance (.64)'. 'feedback from job (.68)', 'feedback from agents (.71)', and 'collective feedback (.78)'. Then for the composite variable of JC, a Cronbach's alpha reliability co-efficient value of .86 was obtained specifying that data have good internal consistency.

All items have their factor loadings to their respective dimensions in the range of .47 to .79. Furthermore, the five dimensions also loaded with significant high correlations onto their single latent factor JC. Also, the composite variable of JC acquired significant AVE = .41, as depicted in Table 1, Appendix I.

3.5.2 Perceived Organizational Politics (POP)

POP were assessed using the 12-item Perceptions of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS) developed by Kacmar and Ferris (1991). According to the recent meta-analysis, this scale has been recognized as the most commonly used scale for measuring POP (Atinc, Darrat, Fuller, & Parker, 2010). Several studies have validated this scale (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Nye & Witt, 1993; Randall et al., 1999). This measure further consists of three factors comprising of "General Political behavior (6 items)", "Go along to get ahead (4 items)", and "Pay and promotion policies (2 items)". The example of item for the first factor states "There is a group of people in my department who always get things their way because no one wants to challenge them", for the second factor "Promotions in this organization generally don't go to top performers", and for the third factor "In our organization, pay and promotion policies are politically applied".

Since the main aim of this study was to investigate overall construct of POP, thus a second-order CFA was used to determine if all three sub-factors load on to a single latent factor POP. The

findings of this CFA (χ^2 = 72.7, df = 42, CMIN/df = 1.73, CFI =.98, NFI = .95, TLI = .97, GFI = .97, AGFI = .94, RMR = .04, and RMSEA = .05), as shown in Table 1, suggested that a latent single factor model has a good fit. Thus an additive measure taking the mean of all 12 items was used to establish overall POP. High scores on this overall average of POP suggested that respondents have intense perceptions of politics in organizations. This technique for POP is in accordance with past studies (Abbas et al., 2014; Randall et al., 1999; Rosen et al., 2006).

Initially, the reliability was obtained for three sub-factors 'General Political behavior', 'Go along to get ahead', and 'Pay and promotion policies' which is .83, .81, and .64, respectively. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the compound variable of POP was .89 which is indicating that data have good internal consistency. The factor loadings for all items to their respective dimensions were in the range of .63 to .78. Moreover, the three factors loaded onto a single latent factor POP with significant high correlations. In addition, the compound variable of POP also established significant AVE = .48, as depicted in Table 2, Appendix I.

Table 1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Fit Results

	χ^2	*df*	χ^2 /df	CFI	NFI	TLI	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA
JC Single Latent Factor Model	119.43	90	1.33	.98	.93	.97	.96	.92	.03	.03
POP Single Latent Factor Model	72.7	42	1.73	.98	.95	.97	.97	.94	.04	.05
JCCA One Factor Model	56.39	34	1.66	.98	.95	.97	.97	.94	.03	.05
POPHA One Factor Model	33.75	30	1.12	.99	.99	.99	.98	.96	.02	.02
CSE One Factor Model	26.59	8	3.32	.96	.94	.92	.97	.93	.04	.08
JS One Factor Model	14.30	5	2.86	.98	.97	.96	.98	.95	.02	.08
JE One Factor Model	13.23	4	3.31	.99	.99	.95	.99	.92	.04	.08
JP One Factor Model	20.87	9	2.32	.99	.99	.98	.98	.94	.01	.06

JC = Job Complexity, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, JCCA = Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal, POPHA = Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal, JS = Job Satisfaction, JE =Job Engagement, JP – Job Performance

3.5.3 Primary Appraisal

JCCA and POPHA were measured using the 22-item Abusive Supervision Demand Appraisal Measure (ABSDAM) proposed, developed, and validated by Scheuer, Burton, Barber, Finkelstein, and Parker (2015). The JCCA and POPHA subscales each consisted of 11 items. A

sample challenge item states "helps me achieve my work goals" and a sample hindrance item states "prevents me from achieving my work goals".

Although this scale was particularly developed to measure how employees evaluate their supervisors' abusive behavior as a challenge or a hindrance but the items used for measuring challenge and hindrance stress appraisal are so broad in nature which can be used to assess challenge and hindrance stress appraisal of any construct.

The JCCA measure tries to assess the degree to which employees feel their complex job stimulates the feelings of challenge, professional development, mastery, future gains, goal-related, and compatible behavior. On the contrary, POPHA measure tries to evaluate how much POP prevent employees' goal achievement, learning, and professional development.

This study used the same technique deployed by Scheuer et al. (2015) by firstly asking the participants to complete the measures of JC and POP and then they were asked keeping in mind the responses they just provided to evaluate their challenge appraisal for JC and hindrance appraisal for POP.

A single factor CFA findings (χ^2 = 56.39, df = 34, CMIN/df = 1.66, CFI =.98, NFI = .95, TLI = .97, GFI = .97, AGFI = .94, RMR = .03, and RMSEA = .05) ascertain that the construct of JCCA has obtained good model fit indices, as presented in Table 1. Similarly, convergent validity is confirmed since all items loaded in an array of .51 to .70 with AVE= 0.36 as depicted in Table 3, Appendix I. For the JCCA scale, the Cronbach's alpha value of .86 was obtained.

The results of a single factor CFA (χ^2 = 33.75, df = 30, CMIN/df= 1.12, CFI =.99, NFI = .99, TLI = .99, GFI = .98, AGFI = .96, RMR = .02, and RMSEA = .02), as shown in Table 1, have recognized that the construct of POPHA has obtained good model fit indices. Also, convergent

validity is verified as all items loaded in a range of .65 to .83 with AVE= 0.59 as illustrated in Table 4, Appendix I. The Cronbach's alpha value of .94 was obtained for the POPHA scale.

3.5.4 Core Self-Evaluations (CSE)

CSE was measured by the Core Self-Evaluations Scale (CSES) developed and validated by Judge et al. (2003). This scale comprises of 12 items and a sample item states "I am confident I get the success I deserve in life". The authors have reported that this scale has good reliability (α = .84). Although initially the results of a single factor CFA (χ^2 = 121.09, df = 53, CMIN/df = 2.29, CFI = .94, NFI = .90, TLI = .93, GFI = .94, AGFI = .91, RMR = .06, and RMSEA = .06) revealed that the construct of CSE has acceptable model fit indices but the factor loadings indicated that one CSE item (CSE9T1) "I determine what will happen in my life" has low factor loading. Therefore, this item was removed from further analysis and finally the findings of a single factor CFA (χ^2 = 104.71, df = 44, CMIN/df = 2.38, CFI =.95, NFI = .91, TLI = .93, GFI = .94, AGFI = .91, RMR = .06, and RMSEA = .07), as displayed in Table1, indicated that the variable of CSE has good model fit indices. In addition, initially the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of .79 was obtained, but as the "scale if item deleted" analysis indicated, the reliability could be enhanced to .80 after removing this one item. Therefore, we excluded this item from further analysis and finally obtained a reliability of .80. Convergent validity is also confirmed as all the remaining 11 items loaded in an array of .30 to .80 with AVE = .46, as demonstrated in Table 5, Appendix I.

3.5.5 Job Satisfaction (JS)

JS was measured with the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (OAQ) proposed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983). This measure consists of six items

and a sample item states "All in all, I am satisfied with my job". Past research has reported good reliability for this scale (Webster et al., 2011).

Initially, the Cronbach's alpha reliability for this scale was .74 but the "scale if item deleted" analysis indicated that it could be improved to 0.80 after removing one reverse-scored item (JSat5RT2) "In general, I don't like my job". The results of the CFA also suggested that this item has less than .35 factor loading which also necessitated dropping this item from further analysis. For the remaining five items, the factor loadings varied from .49 to .82 with AVE = 0.45 establishing the convergent validity, as displayed in Table 6, Appendix I.

After removing one reverse-coded item, the results of a single factor CFA (χ^2 =14.30, df = 5, CMIN/df = 2.86, CFI = .98, NFI = .97, TLI = .96, GFI = .98, AGFI = .95, RMR = .02, and RMSEA = .08) attained good model fit indices, as shown in Table 1.

3.5.6 Job Engagement (JE)

JE was measured with the shortened version of the Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al., 2002), comprising of vigor (3 items), dedication (3 items), and absorption (3 items). The responses for all items were taken on a 7-point rating scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always). Obtaining high responses on vigor, dedication, and absorption are specifying JE. Research studies have reported that the Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for JE dimensions are above .70 (Salanova, Agut, & Peiro´, 2005).

Initially, the Cronbach's alpha reliabilities were obtained for three dimensions of JE, e.g., for vigor, it is .53 after removing one item, for dedication, it is .79, and for absorption, it is .76. Since the major goal of this study was to examine overall JE, initially the Cronbach's alpha reliability value of .79 was obtained for JE. However, the "scale if item deleted analysis" indicated

that the reliability could be upgraded to .86 after excluding two items (VI1T2 and VI3T2), e.g., "At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy" and "When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work". The CFA results also indicated that these two items have less than .35 factor loadings, which also demanded to drop these two items from further analysis. The results of a single factor CFA after excluding two items (χ^2 =13.23, df = 4, CMIN/df = 3.31, CFI =.99, NFI = .99, TLI = .95, GFI = .99, AGFI = .92, RMR = .04, and RMSEA = .08) achieved good model fit indices, as shown in Table 1. This scale has good convergent validity as factor loadings for the remaining seven items varied from .60 to .77 with AVE = 0.48, as displayed in Table 7, Appendix I.

3.5.7 Job Performance (JP)

JP was assessed using 7-item scale proposed by William and Anderson (1991) with anchors of 1 = "Almost Never" and 7 = "Almost Always". William and Anderson (1991) reported that reliability for this scale was α = .85. A sample item states "meets formal performance requirement of the job". For this measure, supervisor-reported data were collected.

The findings of a single factor CFA (χ^2 =20.87, df = 9, CMIN/df= 2.32, CFI = .99, NFI = .99, TLI = .98, GFI = .98, AGFI = .94, RMR = .01, and RMSEA = .06) revealed good model fit indices as shown in Table 1.

This scale has obtained Cronbach's alpha reliability value of .91. The convergent validity of this scale is also well-determined as the factor loadings for all seven items varied from .56 to .88 with AVE = 0.60, as shown in Table 8, Appendix I.

3.5.8 Job Creativity

Job creativity was assessed with a 3-item scale proposed by Oldham and Cummings (1996) having anchors from 1 = very little to 7 = very much. For this measure, supervisor-reported data were collected. Each respondent's supervisor rated his or her creativity on the subsequent three items "How ORIGINAL and PRACTICAL is this person's work? Original and practical work refers to developing ideas, methods, or products that are both unique and especially useful to the organization"; "How ADAPTIVE and PRACTICAL is this person's work? Adaptive and practical work refers to using existing information or materials to develop ideas, methods, or products that are useful to the organization"; and "How CREATIVE is this person's work? Creativity refers to the extent to which employee develops ideas, methods, or products that are both original and useful to the organization". The alpha reliability for this scale is .86. Since all three items have factor loadings in the range of .80 to .83 with AVE = 0.67, convergent validity is well-proven for this scale, as shown in Table 9, Appendix I.

3.6 Control Variables

According to researchers in the domain of organizational behavior, demographic variables, for instance, gender, age, and tenure have been reported to influence job outcomes (Xie & Johns, 1995). In this study, information about demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status, educational qualification, organization name, and experience was also collected through self-reports. For finding out the linkage among demographic and outcome variables, one-way analysis of variance was performed in this study. The findings of one-way ANOVA revealed that due to the organization, there are significant differences in JCCA ($F = 2.55, p < .01$), POPHA ($F = 7.87, p < .001$), JS ($F = 2.34, p < .01$), JE ($F = 2.34, p < .01$), JP ($F = 3.62, p < .001$), and job creativity ($F = 2.96, p < .01$). Post-hoc Tukey test further disclosed that this significant variation exists for

four organizations comprising of a well-known paint company, software house, a private bank, and a government organization. For controlling the effect of these organization, four dummy coded variables were created, e.g., O10, O8, O2, and O15, respectively and their effect was controlled in their respective analysis. Furthermore, there were no significant variations in these job outcomes due to gender, age, education, marital status, and tenure. Therefore, there was no need to control these variables. Keeping in consideration the recommendations of Becker (2005), demographic variables which caused significant variation were controlled in their respective analysis.

4 RESULTS

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics comprising of means, standard deviations, alpha reliabilities, and bi-variate correlations for all study variables are shown in Table 2. All correlations above .1 were significant at $p < .05$ (2-tailed). The mean for self-reported independent variables and moderator tapped at Time 1 (T1), e.g., Job Complexity (JC; $M = 3.71$, $SD = .49$), Perceived Organizational Politics (POP; $M = 3.07$, $SD = .72$), and Core Self-Evaluations (CSE; $M = 2.47$, $SD = .58$) were obtained. The mean for self-reported mediators tapped at Time 2 (T2) e.g. Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal (JCCA; $M = 3.85$, $SD = .55$) and Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal (POPHA; $M = 3.14$, $SD = .90$) were also obtained. The mean for self-reported outcomes, e.g., Job Satisfaction (JS; $M = 3.87$, $SD = .59$) and Job Engagement (JE; $M = 5.16$, $SD = .97$) and supervisor-reported outcomes, e.g., Job Performance (JP; $M = 4.11$, $SD = .73$) and job creativity ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 1.13$) tapped at T2 were also obtained.

4.2 Correlation Analyses

For finding out the correlations among all study variables, a bivariate correlation analysis was performed. JC was found to have a significant positive correlation with JCCA ($r = .30$), JS ($r = .25$) and JE ($r = .19$). However, JC did not have any significant association with JP ($r = .01$) and job creativity ($r = -.02$). Moreover, JC also had an insignificant correlation with POP ($r = .06$) and POPHA ($r = .05$).

As expected, POP had a significant positive association with POPHA ($r = .16$). However, POP had a negative but an insignificant correlation with all job outcomes, e.g., JS ($r = -.11$), JE (r

-.06), JP (r = -.01), and job creativity (r = -.03). Furthermore, POP also had an insignificant correlation with JC (r = .06) and JCCA (r = .03).

JCCA had a significant positive association with JS (r = .53) and JE (r = .46). In contrast, JCCA had an insignificant correlation not only with job outcomes of JP (r = -.03) and job creativity (r = .02) but also with POPHA (r = .04).

CSE was found to have a significant positive correlation with JCCA (r = .27), JS (r = .33), JE (r = .23) and a significant negative correlation with POP (r = -.17) and POPHA (r = -14). However, CSE was found to have an insignificant relationship with JC (r = .03), JP (r = -.11) and job creativity (r = -.05).

JS had a significant positive correlation with JE (r = .44) but an insignificant correlation with job outcomes of JP (r = -.01) and job creativity (r = .02). JE also had an insignificant association with JP (r = -.01) and job creativity (r = .07). However, JP had a strong and significant positive correlation with job creativity (r = .64).

Table 2. Mean, Standard Deviation, Correlation, and Reliabilities

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. JCT1	3.71	.49	(.86)								
2. POPT1	3.07	.72	.06	(.89)							
3. CSET1	2.47	.58	.03	-.17**	(.80)						
4. JCCAT2	3.85	.55	.30**	.03	.27**	(.86)					
5. POPHAT2	3.14	.90	.05	.16**	-.14*	.04	(.94)				
6. JST2	3.87	.59	.25**	-.11	.33**	.53**	-.02	(.80)			
7. JET2	5.16	.97	.19**	-.06	.23**	.46**	.05	.44**	(.86)		
8. JPT2	4.11	.73	.01	-.01	-.11	-.03	-.09	-.01	-.01	(.91)	
9. Job CreativityT2	4.74	1.13	-.02	-.03	-.05	.02	-.15*	.02	.07	.64**	(.86)

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

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

N = 311

JC= Job Complexity, POP= Perceived Organizational Politics, CSE= Core Self-Evaluations, JCCA= Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal, POPHA= Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal, JS= Job Satisfaction, JE= Job Engagement, JP= Job Performance, T1= Time1 and T2= Time2

4.3 Structural Equation Modelling

The confirmatory factor analysis has been conducted in this study on individual variables measured at T1 and T2 respectively. The analysis has been carried out in AMOS where the technique of Structure Equation Modeling (SEM) is applied to data. It helps to find the direct and mediation path analysis. Research suggests that it is a very consistent technique for examining mediation analysis which permits modeling of both structural and measurement relationship and yields overall fit indices (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 2006). The structural model is recognized as a reliable technique as it hypothesizes on the theory and then for the aim of aiding the user, it draws within the software a visible idea for the causal process (Byrne, 2013).

It has many unique characteristics such as it allows a series of structural paths separately and makes the hypothesis simpler in comparison to other techniques available. It helps in finding

the parameter estimates (beta values) and model fit statistical values which increase the worth of this approach. It also helps in testing and verifying CFAs which decreases the probability of errors.

The SEM is distributed into two parts, i.e., the full measurement model and the structural model. The full measurement model, which is also called full CFA model, reflects the relations among latent or unobserved variables. On the other hand, the structural model, which is also called the path model, determines the relationship between latent variables. According to Byrne (2013), structural model sequentially explains the structural paths as considered by the independent variables which effect other intervening and dependent variables. It is run to confirm the hypotheses. Thus the same SEM has been utilized in this study. In a nutshell, two-staged procedure has been applied, in which first, the CFA model, which is also known as the measurement model, has been tested and verified and then the structural model is applied.

The testing of moderation hypothesis has been done in SPSS using Hayes (2013) process method. Finally, the graphical presentation has also been made for the interactions observed in the moderation analyses.

4.4 Paired Confirmatory Factor Analysis

4.4.1 Two-Factor Vs. One-Factor CFA for IVs (JC and POP)

Since the two independent variables (JC and POP) were self-reported and tapped at T1, a two-factor and a single factor CFA were performed to determine the discriminant validity of these two variables. The findings of CFA, as shown in Table 3, indicated that the model fit indices for a two-factor model (χ^2 = 644.28, df = 374, CMIN/df = 1.72, CFI =.91, NFI = .82, TLI = .90, GFI = .88, AGFI = .85, RMR = .05, and RMSEA = .05) are much better as compared to a one-factor

model (χ^2 = 2346.9, df = 405, CMIN/df = 5.79, CFI = .36, NFI = .33, TLI = .32, GFI = .51, AGFI = .44, RMR = .18, and RMSEA = .12).

Table 3. Confirmatory Factor Analyses Model Fit Results for IVs

	CFAs For IVs (JC, POP)									
	χ^2	*df*	χ^2 /df	CFI	NFI	TLI	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA
One Factor Model	2346.9	405	5.79	.36	.33	.32	.51	.44	.18	.12
Two Factor Model (JC and POP)	**644.28**	**374**	**1.72**	**.91**	**.82**	**.90**	**.88**	**.85**	**.05**	**.05**

JC = Job Complexity, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics

4.4.2 Three-Factor Vs. One-Factor Analysis of IVs (JC and POP) and Moderator (CSE)

It is very important to determine the discriminant validity of the independent variables (JC and POP) and moderator (CSE) before performing the moderation analysis since all three variables are self-reported and are tapped at T1. Therefore, for verifying that all these three variables are distinct constructs, a 3-factor CFA vs. a single factor CFA (combining all these three variables) were performed. The findings of the CFA analysis, as depicted in Table 4, indicated that for a 3-factor model (χ^2 = 1081.73, df = 727, CMIN/df = 1.49, CFI =.92, NFI = .79, TLI = .91, GFI = .86, AGFI = .84, RMR = .05, and RMSEA = .04), fit indices are considerably improved in comparison with a one-factor model (χ^2 = 3749.11, df = 779, CMIN/df = 4.81, CFI = .30, NFI = .26, TLI = .27, GFI = .49, AGFI = .44, RMR = .14, and RMSEA = .11).

Table 4. Confirmatory Factor Analyses Model Fit Results for IVs and Moderator

	CFAs For IVs (JC, POP) and Moderator (CSE)									
	χ^2	*df*	χ^2 /df	CFI	NFI	TLI	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA
One Factor Model (JC, POP and CSE Combined)	3749.11	779	4.81	.30	.26	.27	.49	.44	.14	.11
Three Factor Model (JC, POP and CSE)	**1081.73**	**727**	**1.49**	**.92**	**.79**	**.91**	**.86**	**.84**	**.05**	**.04**

JC = Job Complexity, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, CSE=Core Self-Evaluations

In a one-factor model, all the items were having less than .30 factor loadings except for the POP items which were having factor loadings more than 0.55. However, all items for these three variables had non-significant $p > 0.05$ values. In contrast, in a 3-factor model, items for all three variables (JC, POP, and CSE) loaded onto their respective dimensions with factor loadings of more than .30 having a significant value of $p < 0.01$. In addition, the results of a 3-factor model also confirmed the results of a single factor CFA for CSE indicating that one CSE item was having less than .30 factor loading and having non-significant $p > 0.05$ values. Therefore, this CSE item was removed from further analysis. Overall the results of a 3-factor model confirmed that JC, POP, and CSE are distinct constructs.

4.4.3 Two-Factor Vs. One-Factor CFA for Mediators (JCCA and POPHA)

This study proposes two mediators JCCA and POPHA as parallel mediators. Since these two variables are measured at T2 and are self-reported, it is very crucial to ascertain discriminant validity between these two constructs. For this purpose, two-factor vs. one-factor confirmatory

factor analysis was conducted. The findings of CFA analysis, as presented in Table 5, specified that the model fit indices are superior for a two-factor model (χ^2 = 295.05, df = 188, CMIN/df = 1.57, CFI =.97, NFI = .92, TLI = .96, GFI = .92, AGFI = .89, RMR = .04, and RMSEA = .04) as compared to a one-factor model (χ^2 = 1520.55, df = 209, CMIN/df = 7.27, CFI =.63, NFI = .59, TLI = .59, GFI = .55, AGFI = .46, RMR = .13, and RMSEA = .14).

Table 5. Confirmatory Factor Analyses Model Fit Results for Mediators

	CFAs For Mediators (JCCA, POPHA)									
	χ^2	*df*	χ^2 /df	CFI	NFI	TLI	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA
One Factor Model (JCCA, POPHA Combined)	1520.55	209	7.27	.63	.59	.59	.55	.46	.13	.14
Two Factor Model (JCCA, POPHA)	**295.05**	**188**	**1.57**	**.97**	**.92**	**.96**	**.92**	**.89**	**.04**	**.04**

JCCA Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal, POPHA = Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal

4.4.4 Two-Factor vs. One-Factor Model of All Self-Reported DVs (JS and JE)

This study measures two self-reported dependent variables (JS and JE) at T2. For verifying the discriminant validity of these two constructs, a two-factor vs. a one-factor confirmatory factor analysis was executed.

The results of a two-factor model further confirmed the findings of single factor CFAs for JS and JE that one reverse-coded JS item and two JE items were having factor loadings less than .35. Therefore, after removing these three items, the findings of a two-factor CFA achieved superior fit indices (χ^2 = 96.61, df = 46, CMIN/df = 2.10, CFI =.97, NFI = .94, TLI = .95, GFI =

.95, AGFI = .92, RMR = .05, and RMSEA = .06), as shown in Table 6, as compared to a one-factor model combining these two job outcomes (χ^2 = 466.18, df = 54, CMIN/df = 8.63, CFI = .72, NFI = .70, TLI = .66, GFI = .75, AGFI = .64, RMR = .11, and RMSEA = .16).

Table 6. Confirmatory Factor Analyses Model Fit Results for Self-Reported Job Outcomes

	CFAs For Self-Reported Job Outcomes (JS, JE)									
	χ^2	*df*	χ^2 /df	CFI	NFI	TLI	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA
One Factor Model (JS, JE Combined)	466.18	54	8.63	.72	.70	.66	.75	.64	.11	.16
Two Factor Model (JS, JE)	**96.61**	**46**	**2.10**	**.97**	**.94**	**.95**	**.95**	**.92**	**.05**	**.06**

JS = Job Satisfaction, JE = Job Engagement

4.4.5 Two-Factor vs. One-Factor Model of All Supervisor-Reported DVs (JP and Job Creativity)

This study measures two supervisor-reported dependent variables (JP and job creativity) at T2. For verifying that these two constructs are distinct, a two-factor vs. a one-factor confirmatory factor analysis was implemented.

The findings of a two-factor CFA, as shown in Table 7, accomplished enhanced fit indices (χ^2 = 48.45, df = 29, CMIN/df = 1.67, CFI =.99, NFI = .98, TLI = .99, GFI = .97, AGFI = .94, RMR = .03, and RMSEA = .05) as compared to a one-factor model combining these two job outcomes (χ^2 = 413.31, df = 35, CMIN/df = 11.81, CFI = .82, NFI = .81, TLI = .77, GFI = .79, AGFI = .67, RMR = .11, and RMSEA = .19).

Table 7. Confirmatory Factor Analyses Model Fit Results for Supervisor-Reported Job Outcomes

CFAs for Supervisor-Reported Job Outcomes (JP, Job Creativity)										
	χ^2	*df*	χ^2 /df	CFI	NFI	TLI	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA
One Factor Model (JP, Job Creativity Combined)	413.31	35	11.81	.82	.81	.77	.79	.67	.11	.19
Two Factor Model (JP, Job Creativity)	**48.45**	**29**	**1.67**	**.99**	**.98**	**.99**	**.97**	**.94**	**.03**	**.05**

JP = Job Performance

4.4.6 Four-Factor vs. One-Factor Model of All Mediators (JCCA and POPHA) and Job Attitudes (JS and JE)

Since both the mediators (JCCA and POPHA) and job attitudes (JS and JE) of the study were self-reported and measured at T2, it was very important to determine the discriminant validity of these four constructs. Therefore, a four-factor vs. a one-factor confirmatory factor analysis was performed.

The results of a four-factor model further verified the results of single factor CFAs for JS and JE that one reverse-coded JS item and two JE items were having factor loadings less than .35. Therefore, after removing these three items, the findings of a four-factor CFA attained better fit indices (χ^2 = 683.68, df = 483, CMIN/df = 1.42, CFI =.96, NFI = .88, TLI = .96, GFI = .89, AGFI .86, RMR = .05, and RMSEA = .04) as compared to a one-factor model combining all these variables (χ^2 = 4034.42, df = 527, CMIN/df = 7.66, CFI =.33, NFI = .31, TLI = .29, GFI = .39, AGFI = .31, RMR = .25, and RMSEA = .15) as depicted in Table 8.

Table 8. Confirmatory Factor Analyses Model Fit Results for Job Mediators and Job Attitudes

	CFAs For Job Outcomes (JCCA, POPHA, JS and JE)									
	χ^2	*df*	χ^2 /df	CFI	NFI	TLI	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA
One Factor Model (JCCA, POPHA, JS and JE Combined)	4034.42	527	7.66	.33	.31	.29	.39	.31	.25	.15
Four Factor Model (JCCA, POPHA, JS and JE)	**683.68**	**483**	**1.42**	**.96**	**.88**	**.96**	**.89**	**.86**	**.05**	**.04**

JCCA- Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal, POP= Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal, JS Job Satisfaction, JE = Job Engagement

4.4.7 Full Measurement Model of 8 Variables

For checking the convergent and discriminant validity of the study variables (JC, POP, JCCA, POPHA, JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity) excluding moderator CSE, a full CFA model comprising of all 8 variables was examined.

For assessing the full measurement model, the following fit indices and their recommended values were used: Chi-square χ^2 /df (value should be less than 5), for Confirmatory Fit Index (CFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Goodness of Fit (GFI), and Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit (AGFI) (values should be greater than 0.9 for an acceptable model fit). In addition, for further verifying the satisfactory model fit, Root Mean Square Error of Appropriation (RMSEA) and Root Mean Square Residual Value (SRMR) are used which should have a recommended value of less than .08 for a suitable model fit (Bentler & Bonet, 1980; Bollen, 1989; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1999).

The factor loadings of the full measurement model also verified the outcomes of previous CFAs that one JS reverse-coded item and two JE items were having less than .35 factor loadings. Hence we excluded these items from further analysis. Consequently, the findings of the full measurement model, as shown in Table 9, revealed that all the model fit indices are good and satisfactory (χ^2 = 3628.62, df = 2540, CMIN/df= 1.43, CFI =.90, NFI = .74, TLI = .90, GFI = .77, AGFI = .75, RMR = .06, and RMSEA = .04). Therefore, the results of CFA confirm the full measurement model.

Table 9. Confirmatory Factor Analyses Results for Full Measurement Model

	χ^2	*df*	χ^2 /df	CFI	NFI	TLI	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RMSEA
CFAs for IVs (JC and POP), Mediators (JCCA and POPHA) and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity)										
Full Measurement Model (JC, POP, JCCA, POPHA, JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity)	3628.62	2540	1.43	.90	.74	.90	.77	.75	.06	.04
CFAs for IVs (JC and POP), Moderator (CSE), Mediators (JCCA and POPHA) and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity)										
Full Measurement Model (JC, POP, CSE, JCCA, POPHA, JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity)	4626.28	3348	1.38	.90	.71	.89	.76	.74	.06	.04

JC = Job Complexity, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, CSE = Core Self-Evaluations, JCCA= Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal, POPHA = Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal, JS = Job Satisfaction, JE = Job Engagement, JP = Job Performance

4.4.8 Full Measurement Model of 9 Variables

For verifying the full measurement model comprising of 9 variables (JC, POP, CSE, JCCA, POPHA, JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity), a confirmatory factor analysis was performed. The factor loadings of the full measurement model also verified the outcomes of previous CFAs that one CSE item, one JS reverse-coded item, and two JE items were having less than .35 factor loadings. Hence we excluded these items from further analysis. Consequently, the findings of the full measurement model revealed that all the model fit indices are good and satisfactory (χ^2 = 4626.28, df = 3348, CMIN/df= 1.38, CFI =.90, NFI = .71, TLI = .89, GFI = .76, AGFI = .74, RMR = .06, and RMSEA .04) as presented in Table 9. Therefore, the results of CFA confirm the full measurement model.

4.5 Direct Structural Path Model by using SEM

4.5.1 Path model of JC with Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)

After the analysis and verification of the full measurement model (CFA), the next step was based on examining the direct path between the IVs and the DVs. In particular, for establishing the direct path of JC with job outcomes, the structural model is investigated for confirming the hypothesis 1 (a-d), i.e., JC is positively related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job creativity.

The model fit statistics for the direct path structural model of JC on job outcomes, i.e., (χ^2 1065.02, df = 816, CMIN/df = 1.31, CFI = .95, NFI = .83, TLI = .95, GFI = .87, AGFI = .85, RMR = .05, and RMSEA = .03), as shown in Table 10, indicated that the model successfully fits the data and the direct influence of JC on job outcomes (JS and JE) is supported.

In addition, the standardized path coefficient, as depicted in Table 11 and Figure 2, demonstrates that JC has a positive relationship with JS (β = .34, p < .001) and JE (β = .20, p < .01), thus supporting Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b). However, JC was found to have an insignificant

relationship with JP (β = .00, p > .05) and job creativity (β = -.02, p > .05). Therefore, Hypotheses 1(c) and 1(d) were not supported. Overall Hypothesis 1 (a-d) was partially supported.

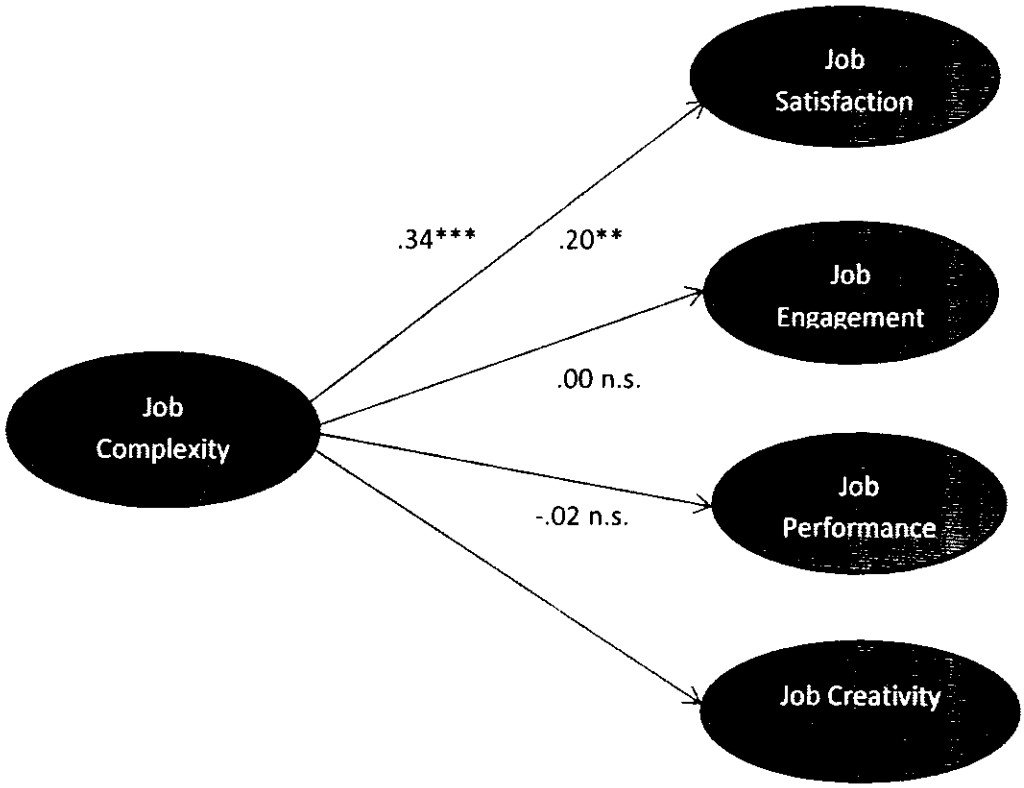

Figure 2. Path Model of JC and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and job creativity)

Table 10. Model Fit Indices for Direct Path Model

CFAs for Path Model										
Direct Path Model	χ^2	*df*	χ^2 /df	**CFI**	**NFI**	**TLI**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**RMR**	**RMSEA**
JC→JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity	1065.02	816	1.30	.95	.83	.95	.87	.85	.05	.03
POP→JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity	756.71	593	1.28	.97	.87	.96	.88	.86	.05	.03
JC→JCCA	517.31	378	1.37	.95	.83	.94	.90	.88	.04	.03
POP→POPHA	481.89	278	1.73	.95	.89	.94	.89	.86	.05	.05
JCCA→JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity	704.20	525	1.34	.96	.87	.96	.89	.86	.05	.03
POPHA→JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity	700.65	488	1.44	.97	.90	.96	.89	.86	.07	.04

JC = Job Complexity, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, JCCA= Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal, POPHA = Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal, JS = Job Satisfaction, JE = Job Engagement, JP = Job Performance

Table 11. Standardized Direct Path Coefficients of the Hypothesized Model

	Path	**Estimate**	**SE**
H1 (a)	JC→JS	0.34***	.10
(b)	JC→JE	0.20**	.14
(c)	JC→JP	0.00 n.s.	.11
(d)	JC→Job Creativity	-.02 n.s.	.15
H2 (a)	POP→JS	-.18**	.05
(b)	POP→JE	-.12*	.08
(c)	POP→JP	.00 n.s.	.07
(d)	POP→Job Creativity	-.04 n.s.	.09
H3 (a)	JC→JCCA	0.35***	.07
(b)	POP→POPHA	0.18**	.06
H4 (a)	JCCA→JS	0.63***	.13
(b)	JCCA→JE	0.53***	.16
(c)	JCCA→JP	-0.04 n.s.	.12
(d)	JCCA→Job Creativity	.08 n.s.	.16

H5 (a)	POPHA→JS	-.08 n.s.	.05
(b)	POPHA→JE	-.01 n.s.	.06
(c)	POPHA→JP	-.12*	.06
(d)	POPHA→Job Creativity	-.18**	.08

***$p \leq .001$, **$p \leq .01$, *$p \leq .05$

JC = Job Complexity, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, JCCA= Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal, POPHA = Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal, JS = Job Satisfaction, JE = Job Engagement, JP = Job Performance

4.5.2 Direct Path of POP to JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity

For establishing the direct path of second independent variable POP with job outcomes, the structural model is investigated for confirming hypothesis 2 (a-d), i.e., POP is negatively related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

For the direct path structural model of POP on job outcomes, the model fit statistics, i.e., (χ^2 = 756.71, df = 593, CMIN/df = 1.28, CFI = .97, NFI = .87, TLI = .97, GFI = .88, AGFI = .86, RMR = .05, and RMSEA = .03), as displayed in Table 10, specified that overall, the model successfully fits the data and the direct influence of POP on JS and JE is supported.

Moreover, the standardized path coefficient, as described in Table 11 and Figure 3, proves that POP is negatively related to JS (β = -.18, $p < .01$) and JE (β = -.12, $p < .05$), therefore, confirming Hypotheses 2 (a) and 2 (b). In contrast, POP was found to have an insignificant relationship with JP ($\beta = .00, p > .05$) and Job Creativity ($\beta = -.04, p > .05$). Therefore, Hypotheses 2 (c) and 2 (d) were not confirmed. Overall, Hypothesis 2 (a-d) was partially supported.

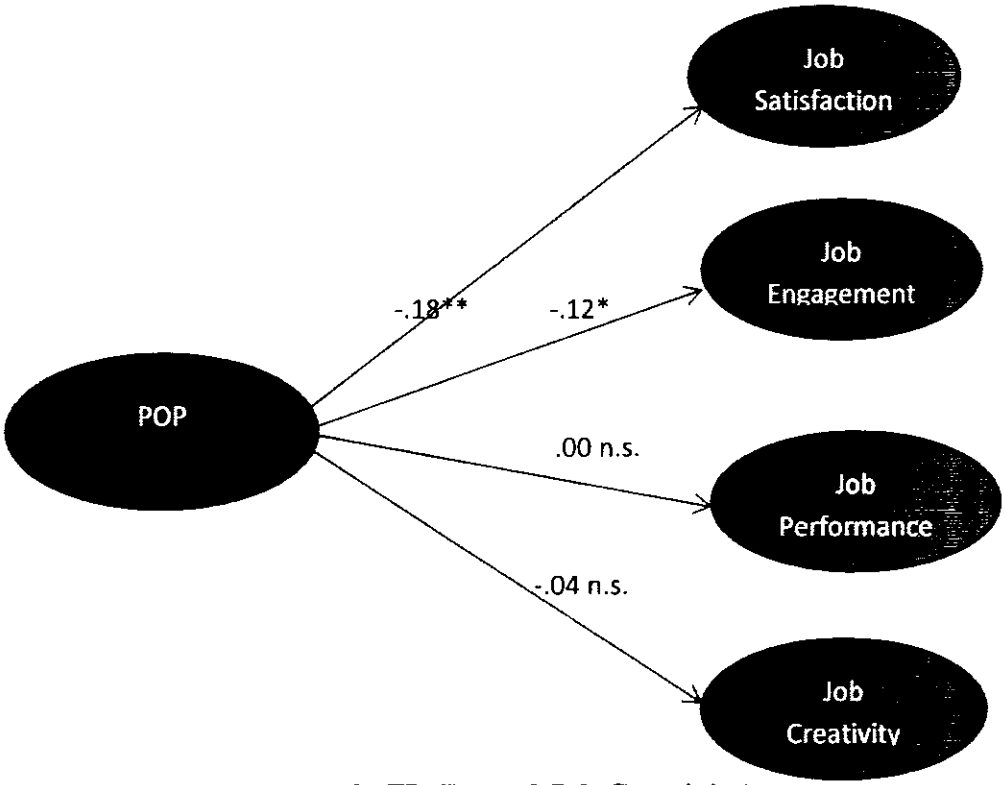

Figure 3. **Path Model of POP and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)**

4.5.3 Direct Path of both IVs (JC and POP) to JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity

Since the original theoretical framework proposed two independent variables (JC and POP), for further re-confirming the model, a direct path model taking both independent variables (JC and POP) and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity) was executed. This structural model is investigated for confirming hypotheses 1(a-d) and 2 (a-d), i.e., JC is positively, and POP negatively is related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity.

For the direct path structural model of JC and POP on job outcomes, the model fit statistics, i.e., (χ^2 = 1840.26, df = 1366, CMIN/df = 1.35, CFI = .93, NFI = .78, TLI = .93, GFI = .83, AGFI = .81, RMR = .05, and RMSEA = .03), specified that overall, the model successfully fits the data and the direct influence of JC and POP on JS and JE is supported. The standardized path

coefficient, as displayed in Figure 4, proves that JC is positively related to self-reported JS (β = .34, $p < .001$) and JE (β = .21, $p < .01$), therefore, confirming Hypotheses 1 (a) and 1 (b). In addition, JC was found to have an insignificant relationship with JP (β = .00, $p > .05$) and Job Creativity (β = -.02, $p > .05$). Therefore, Hypotheses 1 (c) and 1 (d) were not confirmed. These results are almost similar to the individual direct path model of JC with the job outcomes. Overall Hypothesis 1 (a-d) was partially supported. Moreover, the standardized path coefficient, as displayed in Figure 3, proves that POP is negatively related to JS (β = -.18, $p < .01$) and JE (β = -.13, $p < .05$), therefore, confirming Hypotheses 2 (a) and 2 (b). In addition, POP was found to have an insignificant relationship with JP (β = .00, p > .05) and Job Creativity (β = -.03, $p > .05$). Therefore, Hypotheses 2 (c) and 2 (d) were not confirmed. Overall Hypothesis 2 (a-d) was partially supported. These results are almost similar to the individual direct path model of POP with the job outcomes.

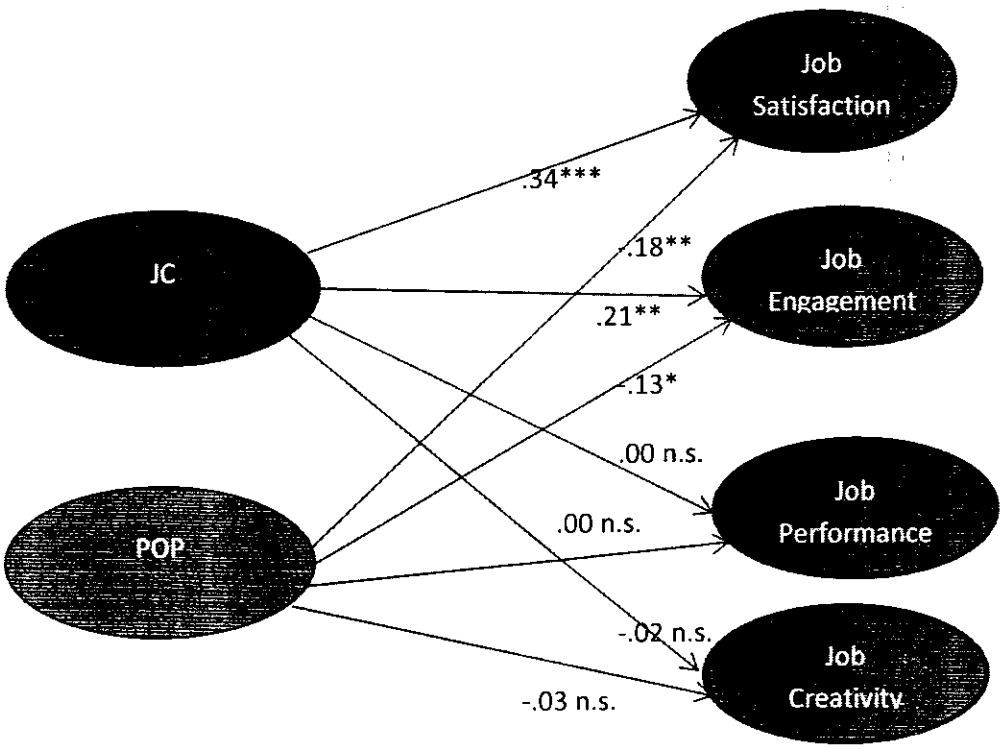

Figure 4. **Path Model of both IVs (JC and POP) to Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)**

4.5.4 Direct Path of JC to JCCA

Hypothesis 3a proposed that JC is positively linked to JCCA. To examine the direct influence of JC on JCCA, the structural model fit statistics (χ^2 = 517.31, df = 378, CMIN/df = 1.37, CFI = .95, NFI = .83, TLI = .94, GFI = .90, AGFI = .88, RMR = .04, and RMSEA = .03) as presented in Table 10, demonstrate that direct effect model produces a sound fit.

For Hypothesis 3a, the structural model fit diagram is displayed in Figure 5. The standardized path coefficient, as depicted in Table 11, illustrates that JC has a significant positive relationship (β = .35, p < .001) with JCCA. Hence the findings of this study completely support hypothesis 3a.

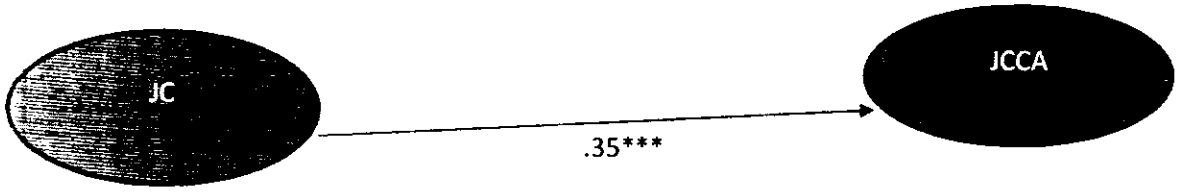

Figure 5. **Path Model for the direct effect of JC on JCCA**

4.5.5 Direct Path of POP to POPHA

Hypothesis 3b suggested that POP has a positive relationship with POPHA. To test the direct influence of POP on POPHA, the structural model fit statistics (χ^2 = 481.89, df = 278, CMIN/df = 1.73, CFI = .95, NFI = .89, TLI = .94, GFI = .89, AGFI = .86, RMR = .05, and RMSEA = .05) as displayed in Table 10, prove that direct effect model generates a satisfactory fit.

For Hypothesis 3b, the structural model fit diagram is exhibited in Figure 6. The standardized path coefficient, as illustrated in Table 11, proves that POP has a significant positive relationship (β = .18, p < .01) with POPHA. Therefore, the findings of this study totally support hypothesis 3b.

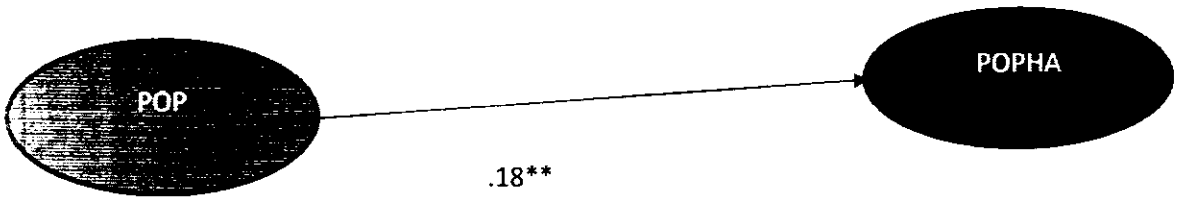

Figure 6. **Path Model for the direct effect of POP on POPHA**

4.5.6 Direct Path of both IVs (JC and POP) to Mediators (JCCA and POPHA)

Since the original model proposed the relationship between both IVs (JC and POP) and mediators (JCCA and POPHA) respectively. Therefore, for further reconfirming the Hypotheses 3a and 3b, which suggested that JC and POP have a positive relationship with JCCA and POPHA respectively, a direct path model was investigated. The structural model fit statistics (χ^2 = 1958.16, df = 1365, CMIN/df = 1.44, CFI = .92, NFI = .77, TLI = .91, GFI = .83, AGFI = .80, RMR = .05, and RMSEA = .04) proved that direct effect model generates a satisfactory fit.

For Hypotheses 3a and 3b, the structural model fit diagram is exhibited in Figure 7. The standardized path coefficient proved that JC and POP have a significant positive relationship with JCCA (β = .33, p < .001) and POPHA (β = .18, p < .01) respectively. Therefore, the findings of this study totally support hypotheses 3a and 3b.

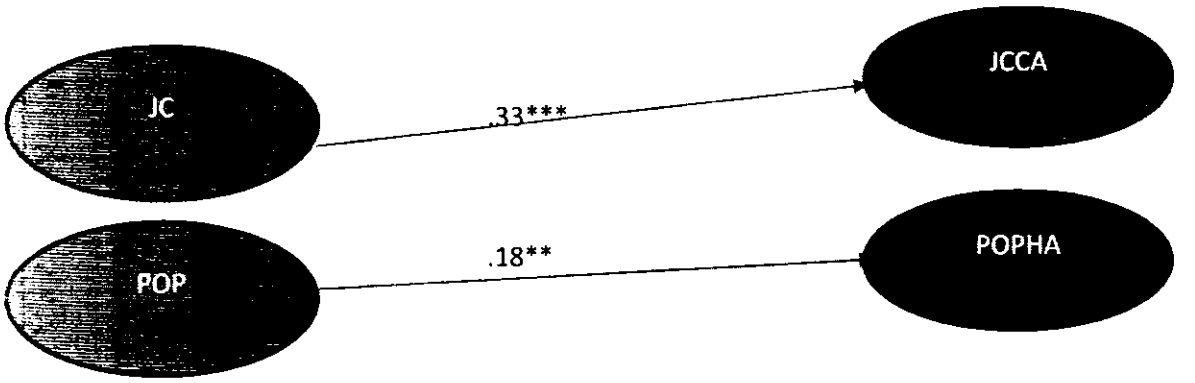

Figure 7. **Path Model for the direct effect of IVs (JC and POP) on Mediators (JCCA and POPHA)**

4.5.7 Path Model of JCCA to Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)

Hypotheses 4 (a, b, c and d) anticipated that JCCA is positively linked to JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity respectively. The structural model fit indices ($\chi 2$ = 704.20, df = 525, CMIN/df = 1.34, CFI = .96, NFI = .87, TLI = .96, GFI = .89, AGFI = .86, RMR = .05 and RMSEA = .03), as displayed in Table 10, revealed that the data fit the model well.

According to the standardized regression path coefficients, as displayed in Table 11 and portrayed in Figure 8, JCCA is positively linked to JS ($\beta = .63, p < .001$) and JE ($\beta = .53, p < .001$). However, JCCA was found to have an insignificant relationship with JP ($\beta = -.04, p > .05$) and Job Creativity ($\beta = .08, p > .05$). Consequently, hypotheses H4 (a and b) are completely supported whereas H4 (c and d) are not supported. Therefore, overall H4 (a-d) are partially supported.

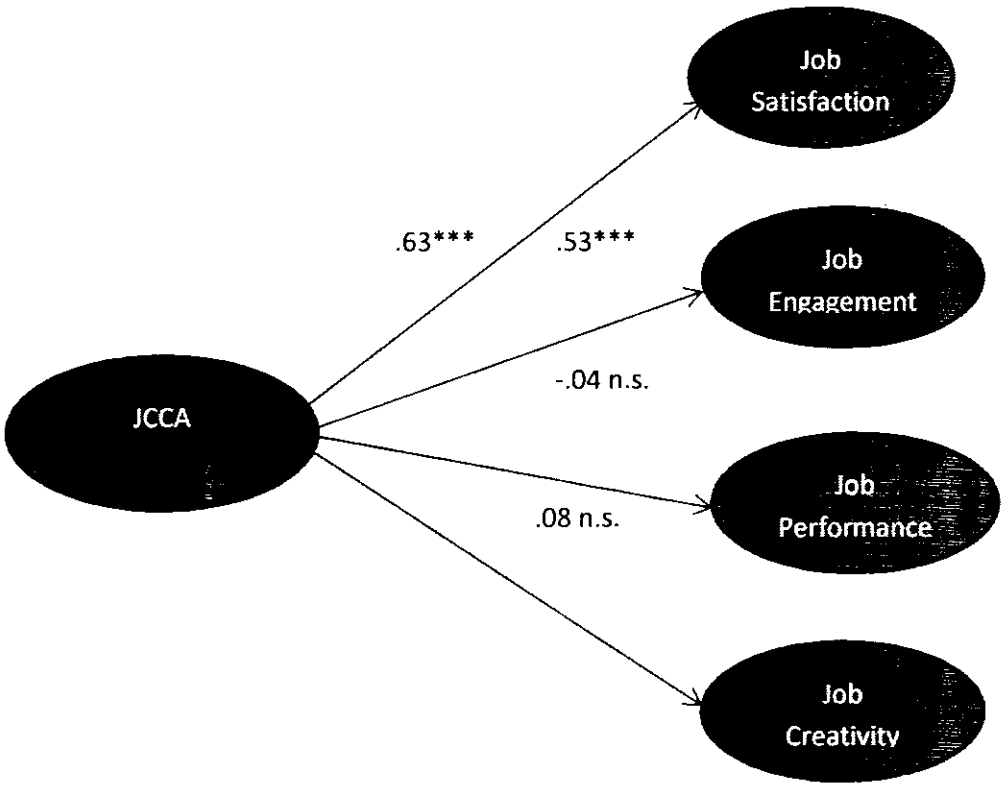

Figure 8. **Path Model Displaying JCCA Direct Effect on Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)**

4.5.8 Path Model of POPHA to Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)

Hypotheses 5 (a, b, c and d) predicted that POPHA is negatively linked to JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity respectively. According to the structural model fit indices (χ^2 = 700.65, df = 488, CMIN/df = 1.44, CFI = .97, NFI = .90, TLI = .96, GFI = .89, AGFI = .86, RMR = .07 and RMSEA = .04), as presented in Table 10, it is illustrated that the model produced satisfactory data fit.

The standardized regression path coefficients, as presented in Table 11 and depicted in Figure 9, specify that POPHA was found to have an insignificant relationship with JS (β = -.08, p > .05) and JE (β= -.01, p > .05). However, POPHA has a significant negative relationship with JP (β = -.12, p < .05) and Job Creativity (β = -.18, p < .01). Accordingly, hypotheses H5 (a and b) are

not supported whereas H5 (c and d) are completely supported. Hence, overall H5 (a-d) are partially supported.

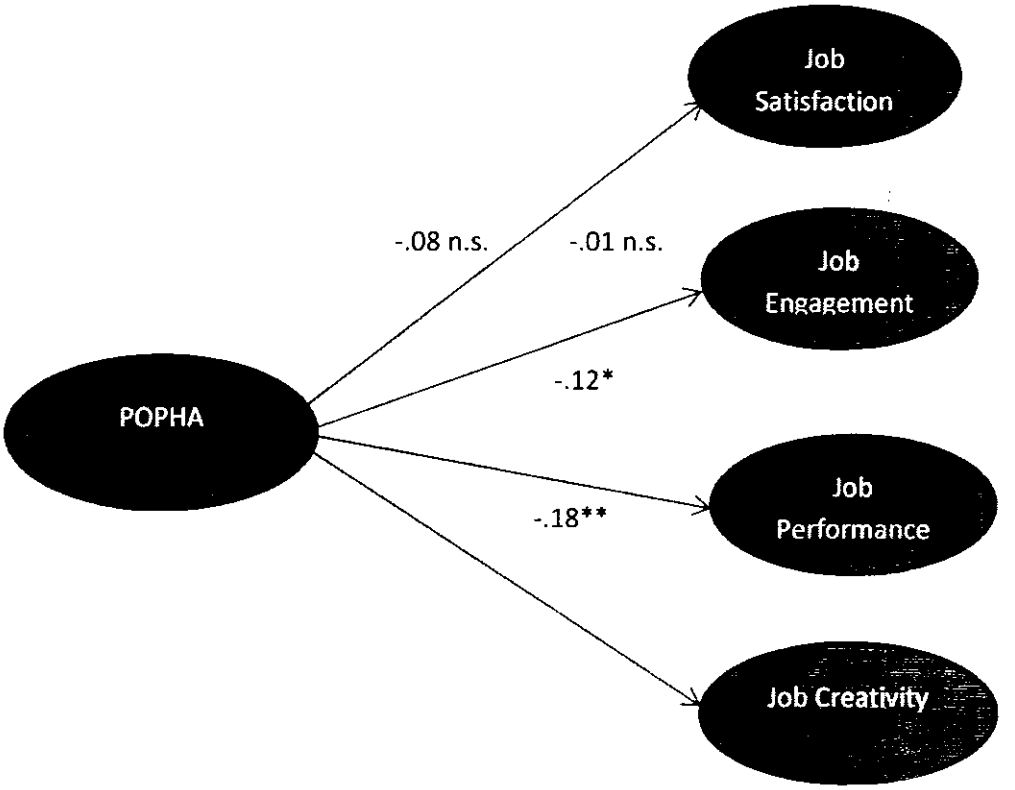

Figure 9. **Path Model Exhibiting POPHA Direct Effect on Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity)**

4.5.9 Path Model of JCCA and POPHA to Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity)

Since the theoretical framework proposed the relationship of both mediating variables (JCCA and POPHA) with the job outcomes, for further reconfirming the model, a structural path diagram was investigated taking both the mediators and job outcomes. Hypotheses 4 (a, b, c and d) predicted that JCCA is positively linked to JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity. Hypotheses 5 (a, b, c and d) predicted that POPHA is negatively linked to JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity.

According to the structural model, fit indices (χ^2 = 1296.02, df = 932, CMIN/df = 1.39, CFI = .95, NFI = .85, TLI = .95, GFI = .85, AGFI = .83, RMR = .06 and RMSEA = .04) illustrated that the model produced satisfactory data fit. The standardized regression path coefficients, as depicted in Figure 10, specify that JCCA was found to have a significant relationship with JS (β = .63, $p < .001$) and JE (β = .53, $p < .001$). However, JCCA has an insignificant relationship with JP (β -.04, $p > .05$) and Job Creativity (β= .08, $p > .05$). Accordingly, hypotheses H4 (a and b) are supported whereas H4 (c and d) are not supported. Hence, overall H4 (a-d) are partially supported. The standardized regression path coefficients, as depicted in Figure 10, specify that POPHA was found to have an insignificant relationship with JS (β = -.06, $p > .05$) and JE (β = .01, $p > .05$). However, POPHA has a significant negative relationship with JP (β = -.11, $p < .05$) and Job Creativity (β = -.13, $p < .05$). Accordingly, hypotheses H5 (a and b) are not supported whereas H5 (c and d) are completely supported. Hence, overall H5 (a-d) are partially supported.

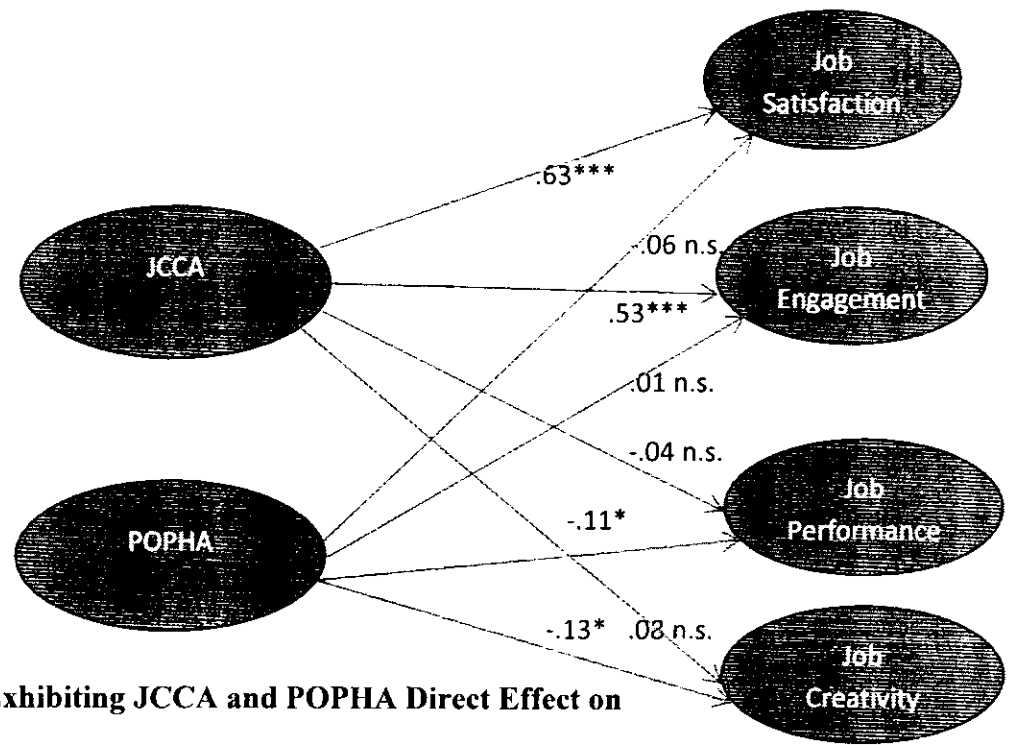

Figure 10. **Path Model Exhibiting JCCA and POPHA Direct Effect on Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity)**

4.6 Mediation Model (Indirect Model)

4.6.1 Path model of JCCA as a mediator between JC and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)

Hypotheses 6 (a-d) anticipated that JCCA plays the role of a mediator between JC and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity). For examining the mediating effect of JCCA between JC and job outcomes, the structural model fit statistics (χ^2 = 1642.92, df = 1309, CMIN/df = 1.26, CFI = .95, NFI = .80, TLI = .95, GFI = .84, AGFI = .82, RMR = .05, and RMSEA = .03), as shown in Table 12, indicated a sound model fit.

For hypotheses 6 (a-d), the structural model fit diagram is displayed in Figure 11. The structural path from JC to JCCA was found to have a significant positive relationship (β = .37, p < 0.001). Moreover, the structural path from JCCA was found to be significantly positively related to JS (β = .59, p < 0.001) and JE (β = .52, p < 0.001). The direct structural path of JC with job outcomes of JS (β =. 08, p> 0.05) and JE (β = .05, p > 0.05) was also found to be insignificant in the presence of mediator JCCA. Therefore, these results indicated that JCCA acted as a full mediator between JC and job outcomes of JS and JE, thus fully supporting Hypotheses 6a and 6b.

However, JCCA was found to have an insignificant relationship with JP (β = -.04, p > 0.05) and Job Creativity (β = .06, p > 0.05). The direct structural path of JC was also found to be insignificant with job outcomes of JP (β = .00, p > 0.05) and Job Creativity (β = -.06, p > 0.05) in the presence of mediator JCCA. Moreover, since the direct path of JC with these job outcomes was also insignificant, hypotheses 6c and 6d were not supported. Thus, overall H6 (a-d) are partially supported.

Table 12. Model Fit Indices For InDirect Path Model

CFAs For Path Model										
InDirect Path Model	χ^2	*df*	χ^2 /df	CFI	NFI	TLI	GFI	AGFI	RMR	RM SEA
JC→JCCA→JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity	1642.92	1309	1.26	.95	.80	.95	.84	.82	.05	.03
POP→POPHA→JS, JE, JP, Job Creativity	1354.90	1015	1.34	.96	.85	.95	.85	.82	.06	.03
Complete Indirect Path Model (Combining POP and JC together)	3682.31	2730	1.35	.92	.74	.91	.78	.76	.05	.03

JC = Job Complexity, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, JCCA= Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal, POPHA = Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal, JS = Job Satisfaction, JE = Job Engagement, JP = Job Performance

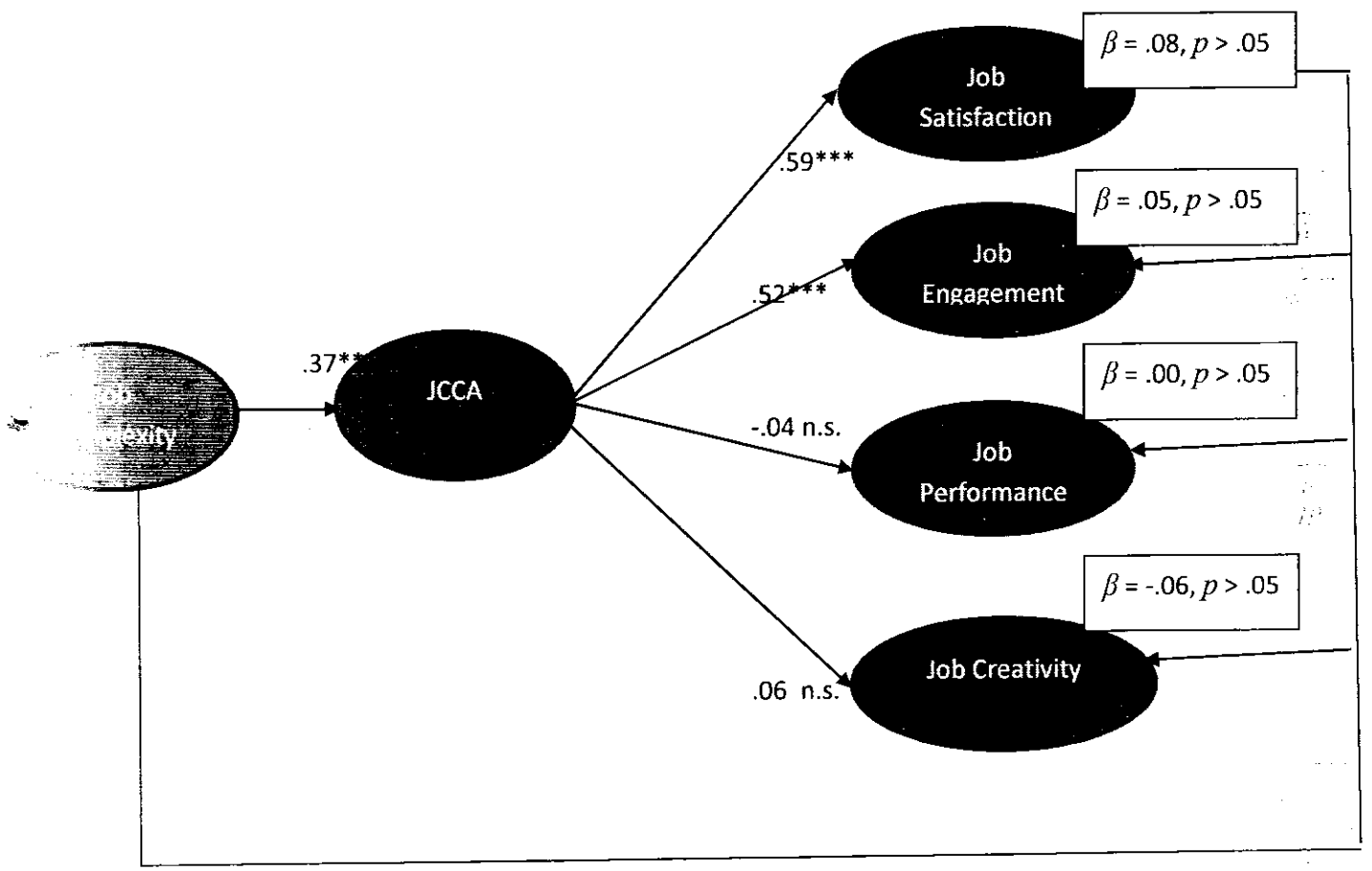

Figure 11. **Path model of JCCA as mediator between JC and Job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)**

4.6.2 Path model of POPHA as a mediator between POP and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)

Hypotheses H7 (a-d) proposed that POPHA acts as a mediator between POP and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) respectively. For investigating the mediating role of POPHA between POP and job outcomes, the structural model fit statistics (χ^2 = 1354.90, df = 1015, CMIN/df= 1.34, CFI = .96, NFI = .85, TLI = .95, GFI = .85, AGFI = .82, RMR = .06, and RMSEA = .03), as revealed in Table 12, specified a sound model fit.

The structural model fit diagram for hypotheses 7 (a-d) is exhibited in Figure 12. The structural path from POP to POPHA was found to have a significant positive relationship (β = .15, $p < 0.05$). However, the structural path from POPHA was found to have an insignificant relationship with JS (β = -.06, $p > 0.05$) and JE (β = -.02, $p > 0.05$). However, the direct structural path of POP with job outcomes of JS (β = -.16, $p < 0.05$) and JE (β = -.13, $p < 0.05$) was negative and significant in the presence of mediator POPHA. Consequently, these results specified that POPHA did not mediate between POP and job outcomes of JS and JE, thus rejecting Hypotheses 6a and 6b.

However, POPHA was found to have a negative and significant relationship with JP (β = -.12, $p < 0.05$) and Job Creativity (β = -.13, $p < 0.05$). The direct structural path of POP was also found to be insignificant with job outcomes of JP (β = .02, $p > 0.05$) and Job Creativity (β = -.01, $p > 0.05$) in the presence of mediator POPHA. Hence, these results indicate that POPHA acted as a full mediator between POP and job outcomes of JP and Job Creativity, therefore, supporting hypotheses 7c and 7d. Overall, hypotheses 7 (a-d) are partially supported.

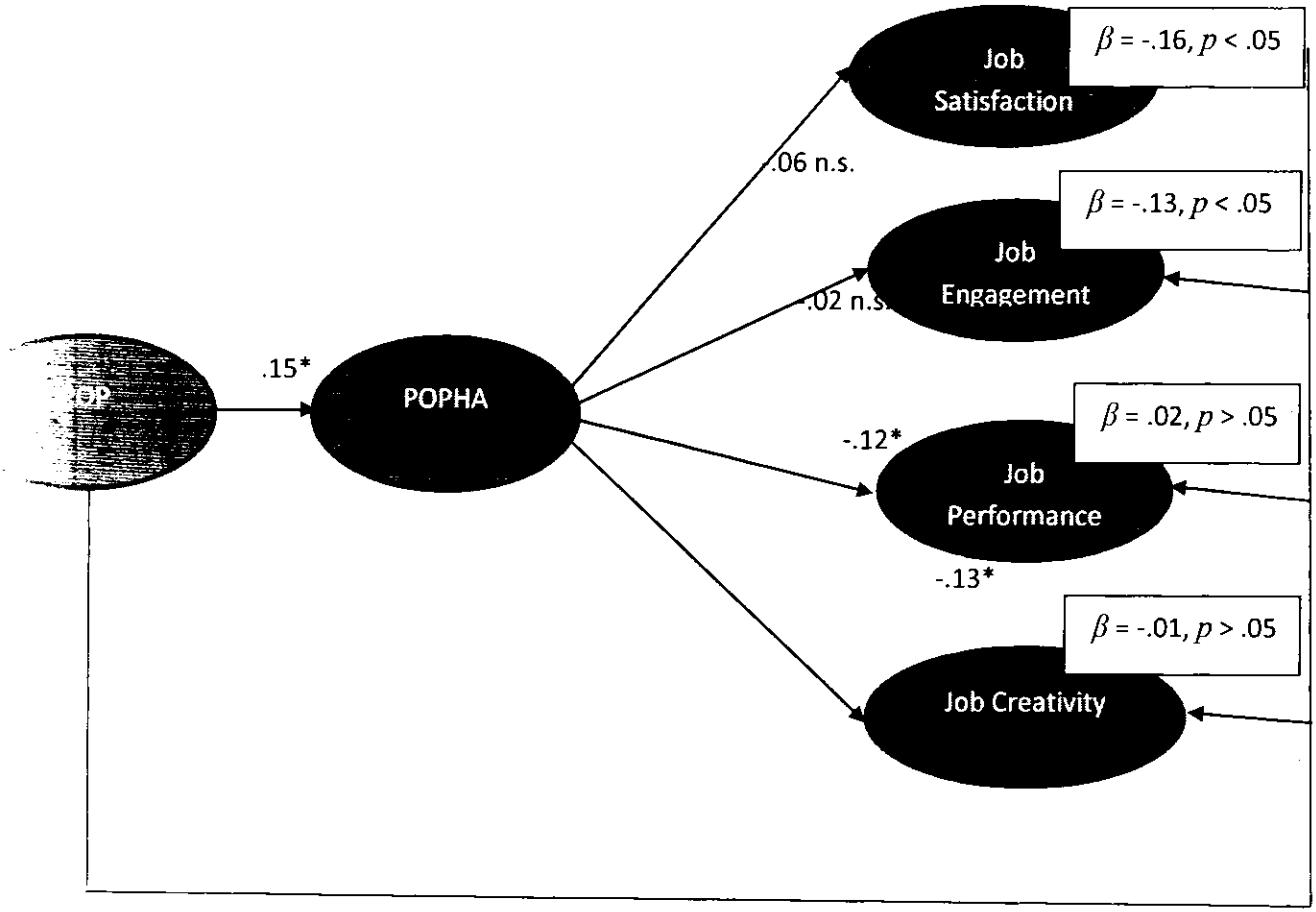

Figure 12. **Path model of POPHA as mediator between POP and Job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)**

In addition, the direct, indirect and total effects for hypothesis 6 (a-d) and hypothesis 7 (a-d) are also given below in Table 13. This further confirms hypothesis 6 (a and b) and hypothesis 7 (c-d) as the indirect effects for these hypothesis are more as compared to the direct effects.

Table 13. **Direct, Indirect and Total Effects for Mediation Hypothesis**

Hyp No.	Model	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect
H6 (a)	JC→JCCA→JS	.295	.076	.220
H6 (b)	JC→JCCA→JE	.241	.047	.194
H6 (c)	JC→JCCA→JP	-.009	.005	-.014
H6 (d)	JC→JCCA→Job Creativity	-.036	-.059	.023
H7 (a)	POP→POPHA→JS	-.173	-.164	-.008
H7 (b)	POP→POPHA→JE	-.130	-.128	-.003
H7 (c)	POP→POPHA→JP	.003	.020	-.017
H7 (d)	POP→POPHA→Job Creativity	-.033	-.015	-.019

4.6.3 Path model of both mediators (JCCA and POPHA) between IVs (JC and POP) and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)

Hypotheses 6 (a-d) anticipated that JCCA plays the role of a mediator between JC and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity). Hypotheses H7 (a-d) proposed that POPHA acts as a mediator between POP and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) respectively. For further reconfirming the model, a complete structural path model was executed taking both IVs, mediators, and job outcomes. The following structural model fit statistics were obtained (χ^2 = 3682.31, df = 2730, CMIN/df = 1.35, CFI = .92, NFI = .74, TLI = .91, GFI = .78, AGFI = .76, RMR = .05, and RMSEA = .03), as revealed in Table 12, that specified a sound model fit.

For hypotheses 6 (a-d), the structural model fit diagram is displayed in Figure 13. The structural path from JC to JCCA was found to have a significant positive relationship (β = .37, p < 0.001). Moreover, the structural path from JCCA was found to be significantly positively related to JS (β = .58, p < 0.001) and JE (β = .51, p < 0.001). The direct structural path of JC with job outcomes of JS (β = .08, p > 0.05) and JE (β = .05, p > 0.05) was also found to be insignificant in the presence of mediator JCCA. Therefore, these results indicated that JCCA acted as a full mediator between JC and job outcomes of JS and JE, thus fully supporting Hypotheses 6a and 6b.

However, JCCA was found to have an insignificant relationship with JP (β = -.04, p > 0.05) and Job Creativity (β = .08, p > 0.05). The direct structural path of JC was also found to be insignificant with job outcomes of JP (β = .03, p > 0.05) and Job Creativity (β = -.03, p > 0.05) in the presence of mediator JCCA. Moreover, since the direct path of JC with these job outcomes was also insignificant, hypotheses 6c and 6d were not supported. Thus, overall H6 (a-d) are partially supported. These results are almost identical to when a separate path model was executed for JCCA as a mediator between JC and job outcomes.

The structural model fit diagram for hypotheses 7 (a-d) is exhibited in Figure 13. The structural path from POP to POPHA was found to have a significant positive relationship ($\beta = .15$, $p < 0.05$). However, the structural path from POPHA was found to have an insignificant relationship with JS ($\beta = -.08$, $p > 0.05$) and JE ($\beta = -.02$, $p > 0.05$). However, the direct structural path of POP with job outcomes of JS ($\beta = -.13$, $p < 0.05$) and JE ($\beta = -.11$, $p < 0.05$) was negative and significant in the presence of mediator POPHA. Consequently, these results specified that POPHA did not mediate between POP and job outcomes of JS and JE, thus rejecting Hypotheses 6a and 6b.

However, POPHA was found to have a negative and significant relationship with JP ($\beta = -.12$, $p < 0.05$) and Job Creativity ($\beta = -.13$, $p < 0.05$). The direct structural path of POP was also found to be insignificant with job outcomes of JP ($\beta = .02$, $p > 0.05$) and Job Creativity ($\beta = .01$, $p > 0.05$) in the presence of mediator POPHA. Hence, these results indicate that POPHA acted as a full mediator between POP and job outcomes of JP and Job Creativity, therefore, supporting hypotheses 7c and 7d. Overall, hypotheses 7 (a-d) are partially supported. These results are almost identical to when a separate path model was executed for POPHA as a mediator between POP and job outcomes.

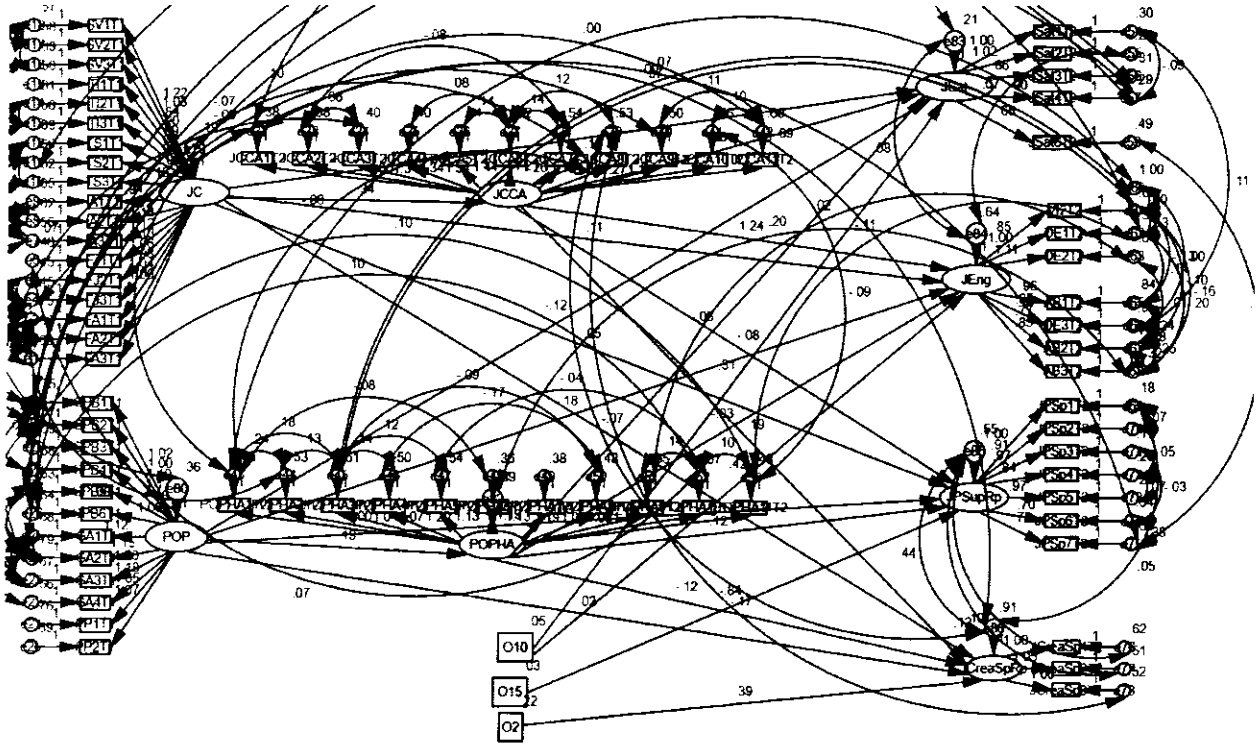

Figure 13. **Path model of both mediators (JCCA and POPHA) between IVs (JC and POP) and Job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)**

4.7 Moderation Analysis

4.7.1 CSE as a moderator between JC and JCCA

Hypothesis 8 proposed that CSE moderates the JC-JCCA relationship such that the relationship is stronger for people having positive CSE. Table 14 illustrates the findings of CSE as a moderator between JC and JCCA. The JC x CSE interaction was found to be insignificant for JCCA (β = -.05, p > .05). Therefore, hypothesis 8 is not supported.

4.7.2 CSE as a moderator between POP and POPHA

Hypothesis 10 predicted that CSE moderates the POP-POPHA relationship such that the relationship is weaker for people having positive CSE. Table 14 demonstrates the results of CSE as a moderator between POP and POPHA. The POP x CSE interaction was found to be significant

for POPHA (β = -.20, p < .05). Moreover, the results of the slope test disclosed that when the value of moderator, e.g., CSE is increased from 0 to +.58, the positive impact of POP on POPHA decreased (from this β = .18, p < .01 to β = .12, p < .01). This finding is in accordance with the hypothesis proposed which claimed that positive CSE would weaken the positive association between POP and POPHA. The interaction plot, as shown in Figure 14, further proves that a high value of positive CSE is weakening the relationship between POP and POPHA. Therefore, hypothesis 10 is supported.

4.7.3 CSE as a moderator between JCCA and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity)

Hypotheses 9 (a-d) anticipated that CSE moderates the JCCA-job outcomes (a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity) relationship such that the relationship is stronger for people having positive CSE. The findings of JCCA and CSE interaction are shown in Table 15. The JCCA x CSE interaction was found to be significant for JS (β = .22, p < .05) and Job Creativity (β = .46, p < .05). Moreover, the results of the slope test disclosed that when the value of moderator, e.g., CSE is increased from 0 to +.58, the positive effect of JCCA increased for JS (from this β = .54, p < .001 to β = .64, p < .001) and Job Creativity (from this β = .05, p > .05 to β = .32, p < .05). This finding is in agreement with the hypothesis proposed which claimed that positive CSE would strengthen the positive association between JCCA and job outcomes (JS and Job Creativity). The interaction plots, as shown in Figures 15 and 16 respectively, further prove that a high value of positive CSE is strengthening the relationship between JCCA and job outcomes (JS and Job Creativity). Therefore, hypotheses 9a and 9d are supported. Moreover, JCCA x CSE interaction was found to be insignificant for JE (β = –.02, p > .05) and JP (β = .01, p > .05). Thus hypotheses

9b and 9c are not supported respectively. Therefore overall hypotheses 9 (a-d) are partially supported.

4.7.4 CSE as a moderator between POPHA and Job Outcomes

Hypotheses 11 (a-d) proposed that CSE moderates the POPHA-job outcomes (a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity) relationship such that the relationship is weaker for people having positive CSE. The POPHA x CSE interaction, as shown in Table 16, was found to be significant for JS ($\beta = .15, p < .05$), JE ($\beta = .22, p < .05$), and JP ($\beta = .18, p < .05$). In addition, the findings of the slope test revealed that when the value of moderator, e.g., CSE is increased from 0 to +.58, the positive insignificant effect of POPHA became positive and significant for JS (from this $\beta = .03$, $p > .05$ to $\beta = .12, p < .05$), and JE (from this $\beta = .09, p > .05$ to $\beta = .22, p < .05$). Also, the interaction plot as presented in Figures 17 and 18 respectively shows that a high value of positive CSE is strengthening the positive relationship between POPHA and job outcomes (JS and JE). Since this effect is opposite to the original hypothesis suggested, that positive CSE would weaken the negative association between POPHA and Job Outcomes, hypotheses 11a and 11b are partially supported.

Moreover, when the value of moderator, e.g., CSE is decreased from 0 to -.58, the negative insignificant effect of POPHA became significant and further strengthened for JP (from this $\beta = -.05, p > .05$ to $\beta = -.13, p < .05$). This result is in accordance with the hypothesis suggested which reasoned that low CSE would further strengthen the negative association between POPHA and job outcomes. Also, the interaction plot as presented in Figure 19 respectively shows that a low value of positive CSE is strengthening the negative relationship between POPHA and JP. Thus, hypotheses 11c is supported. However, the POPHA x CSE interaction was found to be

insignificant for Job Creativity (β = -.01, p > .05). Therefore, hypothesis 11d is not supported. Thus, overall hypotheses 11(a-d) are partially supported.

Table 14. CSE as a Moderator in the Stressors-Primary Appraisal Relationship

	Mediators								
	JCCA (H8)					POPHA (H10)			
Model 1	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	Model 2	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	3.85***	.03	3.79	3.90	Constant	3.15***	.04	3.07	3.22
JC	.34***	.06	.22	.46	POP	.18**	.05	.65	.85
CSE	.25***	.05	-.35	-.15	CSE	-.20**	.07	.07	.33
JCxCSE	-.05 n.s.	.11	-.26	.16	POPxCSE	-.20*	.08	-.36	-.04
ΔR^2 due to Interaction	.00 n.s.				.01*				
F	.19				6.24				
Conditional Effects of Moderator (Slope Test)									
Moderator: CSE	JCCA				Moderator: CSE	POPHA			
-.58	.37***	.09	.18	.55s	-.58	.24**	.06	.75	.98
.00	.34***	.06	.22	.46	.00	.18**	.05	.65	.85
+.58	.31***	.08	.16	.46	+.58	.12**	.08	.48	.79

N= 311 Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported

CSE= Core Self-Evaluations, JC =Job Complexity, JCCA= Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal, POP=Perceived Organizational Politics, POPHA=Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal

Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit

Table 15. CSE as a Moderator in the JCCA-Job Outcomes Relationship

	Job Outcomes															
	Job Satisfaction (H9a)				Job Engagement (H9b)				Job Performance (H9c)				Job Creativity (H9d)			
	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	3.87***	.03	3.81	3.93	5.15***	.05	5.05	5.25	4.13***	.04	4.05	4.21	4.78***	.07	4.67	4.89
JCCA	.54***	.05	.44	.64	.74***	.09	.56	.92	-.04 n.s.	.07	-.18	.11	.05 n.s.	.12	-.15	.25
CSE	.14*	.06	-.25	-.02	.17*	.09	-.35	.00	.14 n.s.	.09	-.32	.03	.06 n.s.	.12	-.13	.25
JCCAxCSE	.22*	.10	.01	.42	-.02 n.s.	.17	-.35	.31	.01 n.s.	.15	-.29	.30	.46*	.22	.10	.82
ΔR^2 due to Interaction	.01*				.00 n.s.				.00 n.s.				.01*			
F	4.39				.01				.00				4.42			
Conditional Effects of Moderator between JCCA and Outcomes (Slope Test)																
Moderator: CSE	Job Satisfaction				Job Engagement				Job Performance				Job Creativity			
-.58	.44***	.07	.31	.58	.75***	.14	.48	1.02	-.04 n.s.	.10	-.24	.16	-.22 n.s.	.18	-.51	.08
.00	.54***	.05	.44	.64	.74***	.09	.56	.92	-.04 n.s.	.07	-.18	.11	.05 n.s.	.12	-.15	.25
+.58	.64***	.07	.50	.79	.73***	.13	.48	.98	-.03	.11	-.24	.17	.32*	.17	.04	.59

N= 311 Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported

JCCA =Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal, CSE= Core Self-Evaluations

Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit

Table 16. CSE as a Moderator in the POPHA-Job Outcomes Relationship

	Job Outcomes															
	Job Satisfaction (H11a)				Job Engagement (H11b)				Job Performance (H11c)				Job Creativity (H11d)			
	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI	B	SE	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	3.85***	.03	3.78	3.91	5.12***	.06	5.01	5.23	4.12***	.04	4.04	4.20	4.74***	.06	4.61	4.87
POPHA	.03 n.s.	.04	-.04	.11	.09 n.s.	.07	-.03	.22	-.05 n.s.	.05	-.14	.04	-.20*	.08	-.35	-.05
CSE	.34***	.06	-.45	-.22	.39***	.10	-.59	-.20	.11 n.s.	.09	-.28	.07	.14 n.s.	.11	-.09	.36
POPHAxCSE	.15*	.06	.04	.27	.22*	.10	.02	.41	.18*	.09	.01	.36	-.01 n.s.	.12	-.24	.23
ΔR^2 due to Interaction	.02*				.01*				.01*				.00 n.s.			
F	6.62				4.74				4.28				0.00			
Conditional Effects of Moderator between POPHA and Outcomes (Slope Test)																
Moderator: CSE	Job Satisfaction				Job Engagement				Job Performance				Job Creativity			
-.58	-.06 n.s.	.04	-.14	.03	-.03 n.s.	.07	-.17	.11	-.13*	.06	-.24	-.02	-.19*	.08	-.36	-.03
.00	.03 n.s.	.04	-.04	.11	.09 n.s.	.07	-.03	.22	-.05 n.s.	.05	-.14	.04	-.20*	.08	-.35	-.05
+.58	.12*	.06	.00	.23	.22*	.10	.02	.42	.04 n.s.	.07	-.09	.17	-.20 n.s.	.12	-.43	.03

N= 311 Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported

POPHA = Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal, CSE= Core Self-Evaluations

Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit

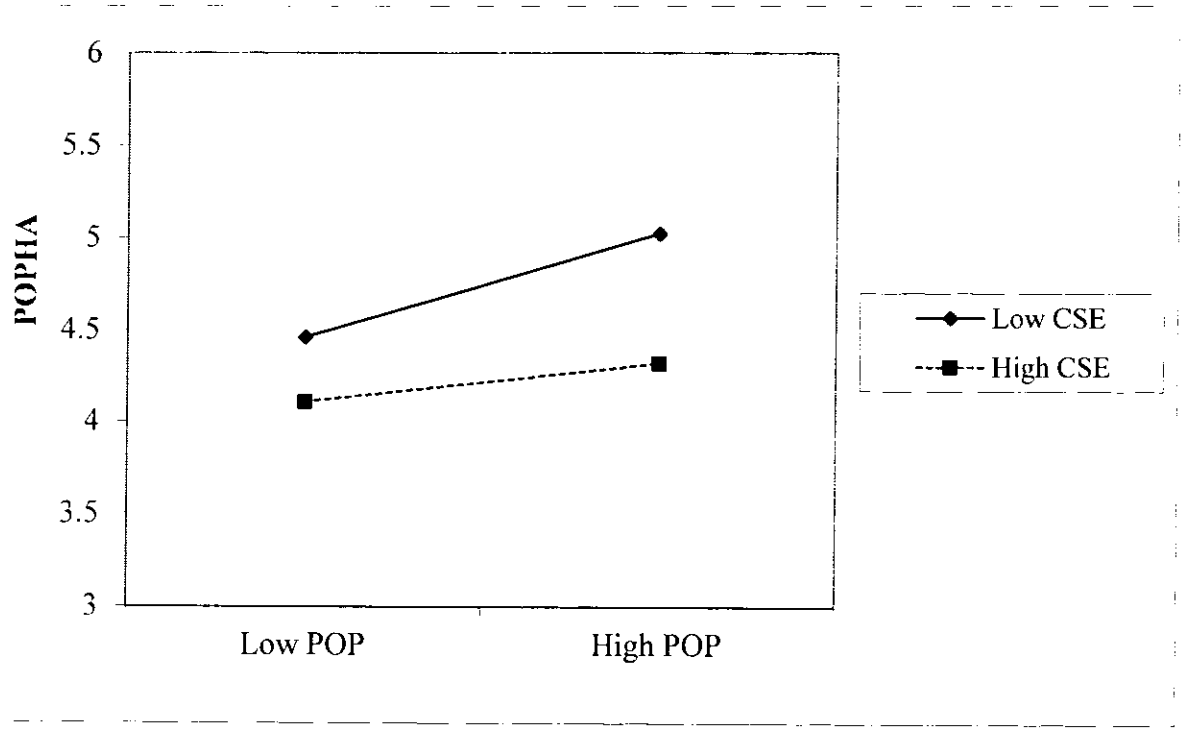

Figure 14. **Interaction Plot showing CSE as a moderator between POP and POPHA**

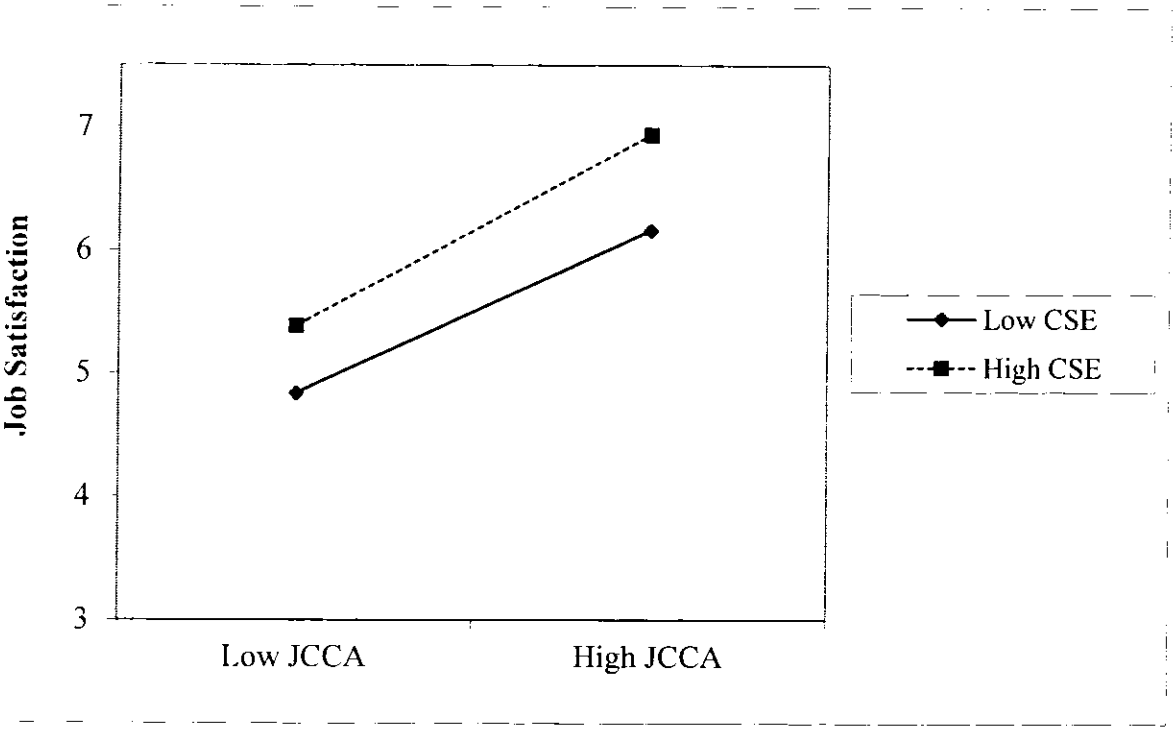

Figure 15. **Interaction Plot showing CSE as a moderator between JCCA and JS**

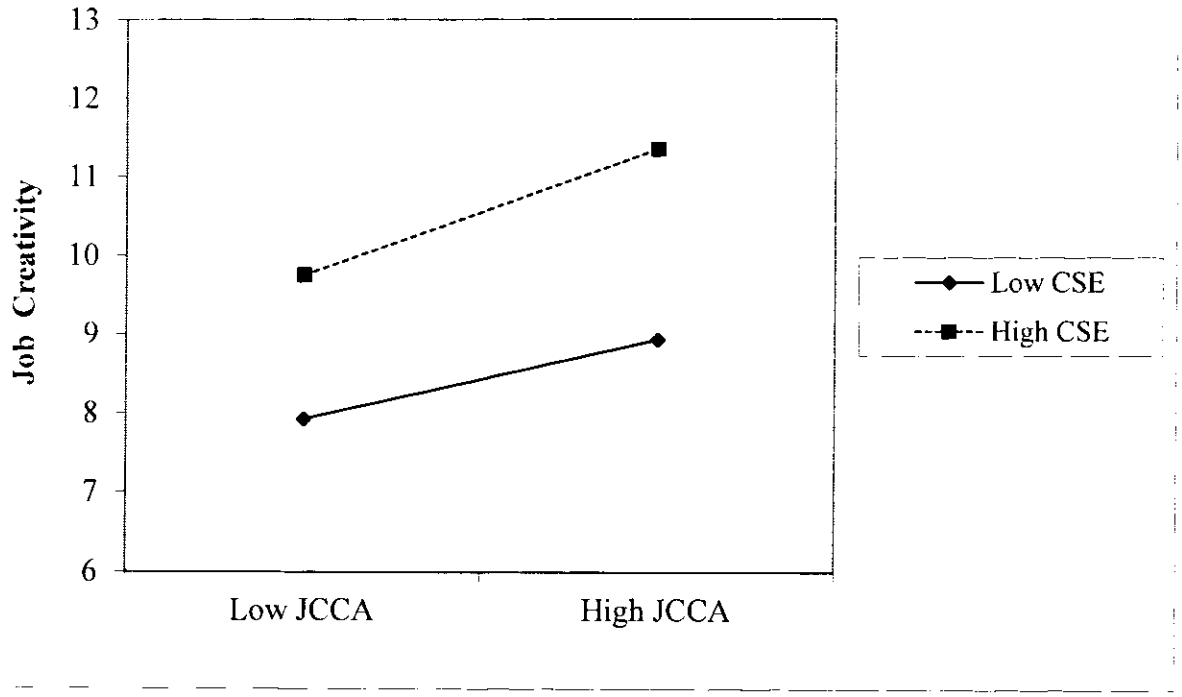

Figure 16. **Interaction Plot showing CSE as a moderator between JCCA and Job Creativity**

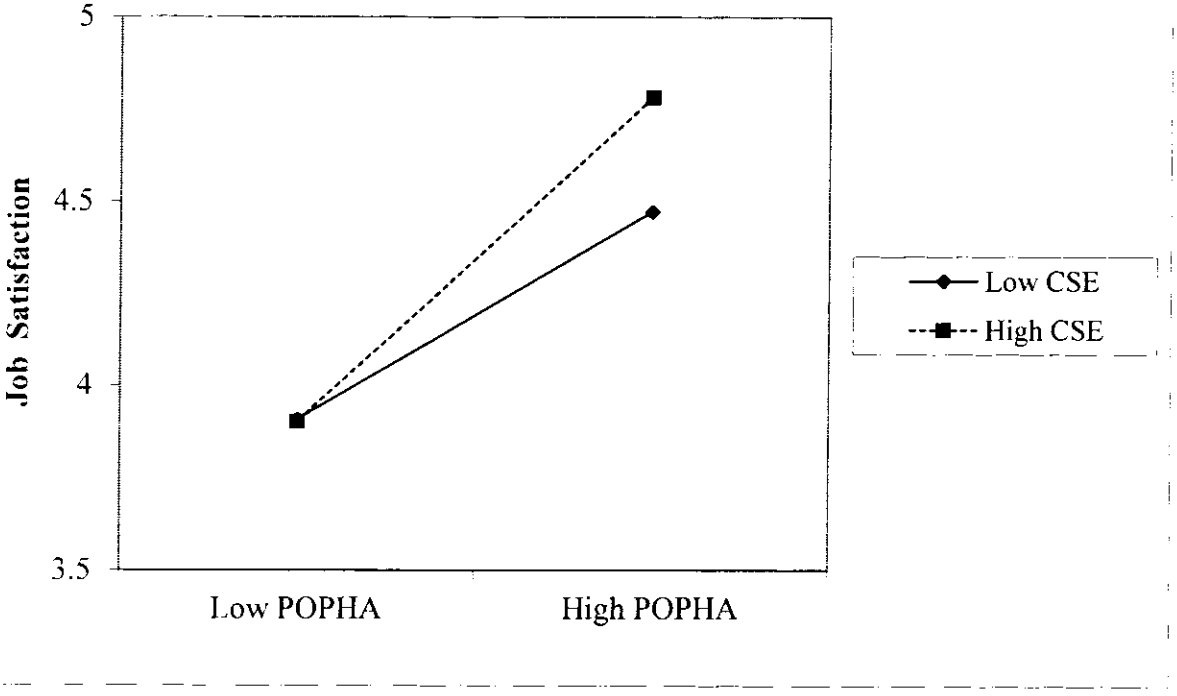

Figure 17. **Interaction Plot showing CSE as a moderator between POPHA and JS**

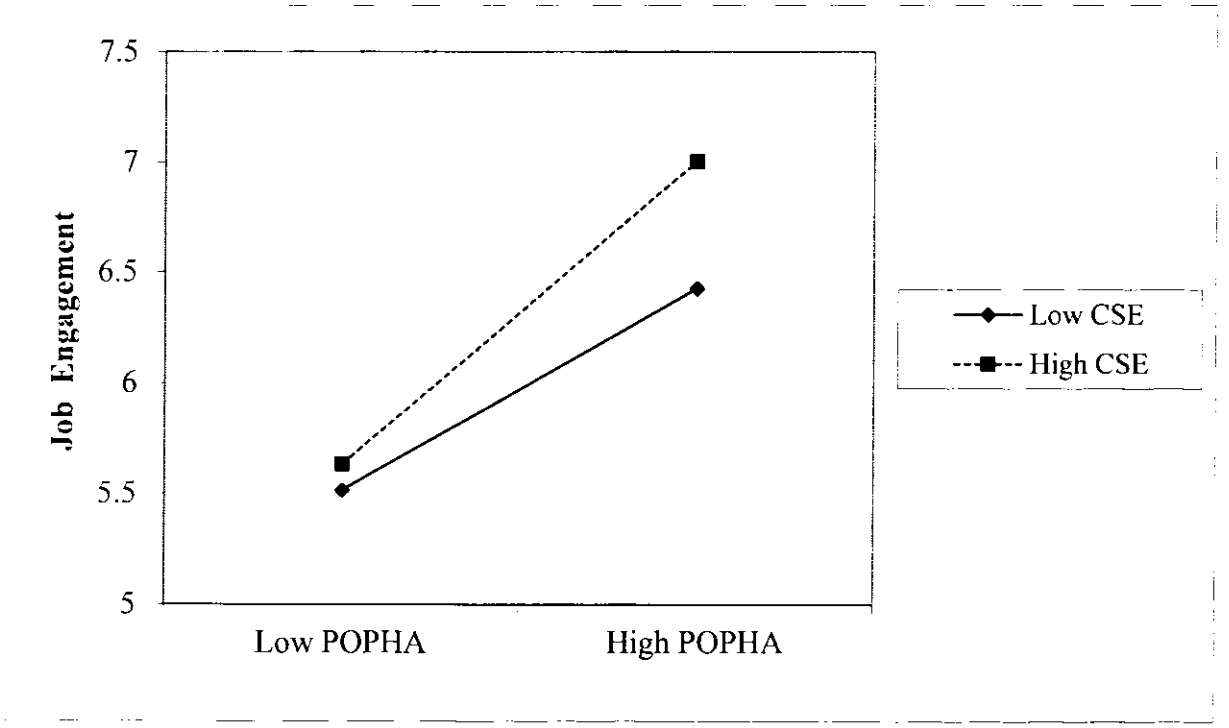

Figure 18. **Interaction Plot showing CSE as a moderator between POPHA and JE**

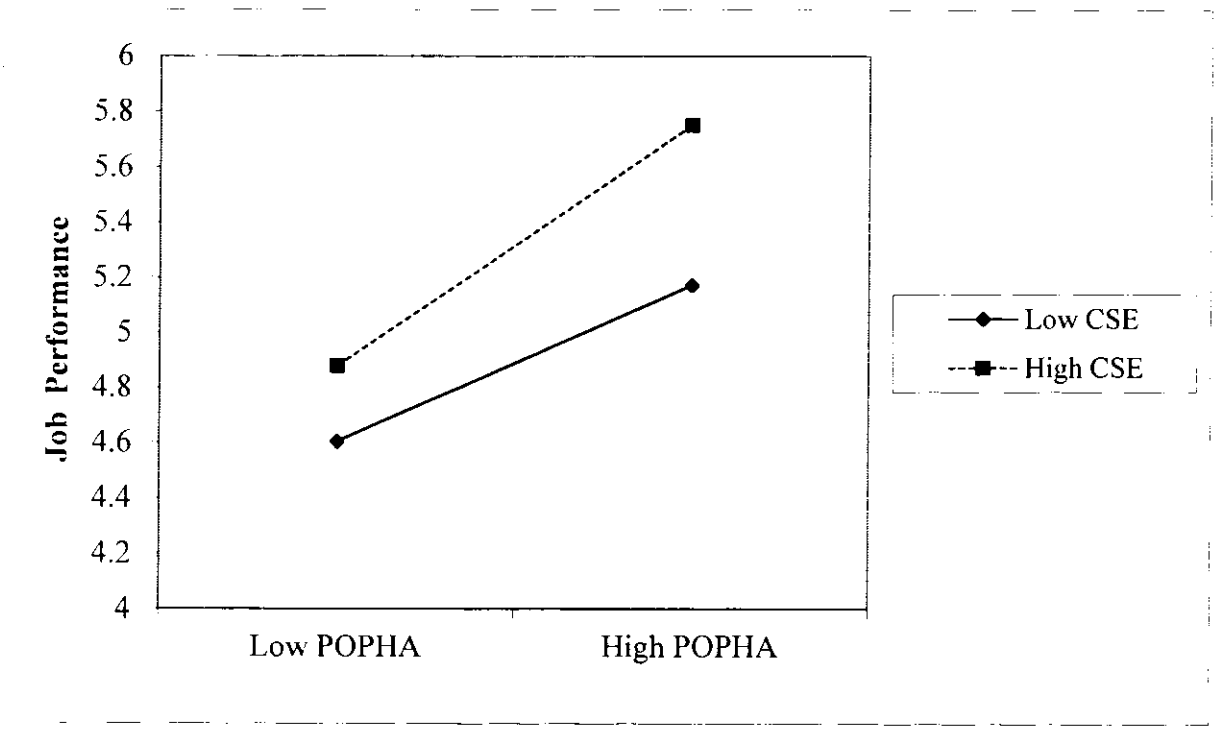

Figure 19. **Interaction Plot showing CSE as a moderator between POPHA and JP**

5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Major Findings' Overview

The major premise of this study was to examine the underlying assumptions of the Transactional Theory of Stress (TTS), i.e., employees appraise stressor of Job Complexity (JC) as a challenge and Perceived Organizational Politics (POP) as a hindrance and how these appraisals, i.e., Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal (JCCA) and Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal (POPHA), mediate between these stressors (JC and POP) and job outcomes of Job Satisfaction (JS), Job Engagement (JE), Job Performance (JP), and job creativity respectively. This study has found a satisfactory support for the majority of the hypotheses which empirically proved the proposed theoretical model.

A total of 36 hypotheses were proposed, out of which 20 hypotheses were supported (16 were fully accepted while four were partially supported). The summary of the acceptance and rejection of the hypothesis is also shown below in Table 16. For investigating the main effects, 18 hypotheses were proposed, and 10 were supported. For analyzing the indirect effect, out of eight hypotheses, four got approved and for moderation effect out of 10, six attained support.

Overall, the results of this study can be generalized as the sample of this study was not restricted to any one particular type of organization but in fact comprised of various organizations, such as private sector banks, telecom companies, software development and a chemical based company, public sector organizations, and a technical consultant outsourcing firm.

Table 17. **Summary of Results**

Hyp No.	Hypothesis	Status	Overall Status
H1	(a) JC→JS	Accepted	Partially Accepted
	(b) JC→JE	Accepted	
	(c) JC→JP	Not Accepted	
	(d) JC→Job Creativity	Not Accepted	
H2	(a) POP→JS	Accepted	Partially Accepted
	(b) POP→JE	Accepted	
	(c) POP→JP	Not Accepted	
	(d) POP→Job Creativity	Not Accepted	
H3a	JC→JCCA	Accepted	Accepted
H3b	POP→POPHA	Accepted	Accepted
H4	(a) JCCA→JS	Accepted	Partially Accepted
	(b) JCCA→JE	Accepted	
	(c) JCCA→JP	Not Accepted	
	(d) JCCA→Job Creativity	Not Accepted	
H5	(a) POPHA→JS	Not Accepted	Partially Accepted
	(b) POPHA→JE	Not Accepted	
	(c) POPHA→JP	Accepted	
	(d) POPHA→Job Creativity	Accepted	
H6	(a) JC→JCCA→JS	Accepted	Partially Accepted
	(b) JC→JCCA→JE	Accepted	
	(c) JC→JCCA→JP	Not Accepted	
	(d) JC→JCCA→Job Creativity	Not Accepted	
H7	(a) POP→POPHA→JS	Not Accepted	Partially Accepted
	(b) POP→POPHA→JE	Not Accepted	
	(c) POP→POPHA→JP	Accepted	
	(d) POP→POPHA→Job Creativity	Accepted	
H8	JCxCSE→JCCA	Not Accepted	Not Accepted
H9	(a) JCCAxCSE→JS	Accepted	Partially Accepted
	(b) JCCAxCSE→JE	Not Accepted	
	(c) JCCAxCSE→JP	Not Accepted	
	(d) JCCAxCSE→Job Creativity	Accepted	
H10	POPxCSE→POPHA	Accepted	Accepted
H11	(a) POPHAxCSE→JS	Partially Accepted	Partially Accepted
	(b) POPHAxCSE→JE	Partially Accepted	
	(c) POPHAxCSE→JP	Accepted	
	(d) POPHAxCSE→Job Creativity	Not Accepted	

JC= Job Complexity, POP= Perceived Organizational Politics, CSE= Core Self-Evaluations, JCCA= Job Complexity Challenge Appraisal, POPHA= Perceived Organizational Politics Hindrance Appraisal, JS= Job Satisfaction, JE= Job Engagement, JP= Job Performance

Generally, the findings of this study are both similar and different in comparison with the results of the past studies. Regarding the relationship of stressors (JC and POP) with job outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity), the findings of this study reported a significant relationship of stressors (JC and POP) with job attitudes (JS and JE) which is similar to past studies but also an insignificant relationship of these stressors (JC and POP) with job behaviors (JP and Job Creativity) where past studies reported mixed findings regarding the significance of these relationships.

Moreover, the findings of this study made an important contribution in the area of stressors by actually reporting that JC is appraised as a challenge (JCCA) and POP is actually appraised as a hindrance (POPHA) and also these appraisals mediate the relationship between stressors (JC and POP) and job outcomes respectively. Moreover, the findings of this study reported that CSE emerged as a significant moderator in the stressors-appraisal-job outcomes relationship, implying that an individual personality e.g. their positive CSE plays an important role in influencing the appraisal of stressors and also how individuals respond to these appraisals in terms of job outcomes.

5.2 Direct Effects

5.2.1 JC-Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) Relationship

Hypotheses 1 (a-d) proposed that JC is positively related to JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity respectively. The findings of this study suggested that JC Time1 (T1) has a positive relationship with self-reported JS and JE at Time2 (T2), thus supporting Hypotheses 1(a) and 1(b). However, JC was found to have an insignificant relationship with supervisor-reported JP and Job Creativity

at T2. Therefore, Hypotheses 1(c) and 1(d) were not supported. Overall, Hypotheses 1 (a-d) were partially supported.

JC had a significant positive relationship with JS and JE implying that when employees perceive their job as complex, they are more likely to respond with higher JS and JE. This study's results are similar to past empirical studies which have reported that complex and enriched jobs are very valuable for organizations as they result in constructive job attitudes such as higher JS (Bj. Orvell & Brodin, 1992; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980; Humphrey et al., 2007; Judge, 2000; Morgeson & Campion, 2003) and JE (Albrecht, 2010; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Christian et al., 2011; Kahn, 1990, 1992; Saks, 2006; Wildermuth & Pauken, 2008). This study confirms the belief that JC has a positive influence on the cognitive and emotional functioning of employees (Frese, 1982).

Conversely, according to the results of this study, JC had an insignificant relationship with supervisor-reported JP and job creativity. This finding is not entirely surprising as past empirical studies (Fried, 1991; Kopelman, 1985; Oldham, 1996; Parker et al., 2001) and particularly two meta-analyses (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Loher et al., 1985) have reported that job characteristics/JC have weak correlation with JP. Moreover, even though studies have reported that work characteristics are important elements which impact the creativity at work (Harrison et al., 2006; Hammond et al., 2011; Ohly et al., 2006; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Shalley et al., 2004). Our study exhibited insignificant relationship between JC and job creativity. One possible explanation for this could be employees' perception about their job is less likely to influence their supervisors' perceptions of their JP and job creativity.

Moreover, this study reported a significant positive relationship between JC and job attitudes (JS and JE), but the strength of this relationship is moderate instead of high, e.g., for JS

(β = .34, $p < .001$) and JE (β = .20, $p < .01$). These findings are similar to studies (Fried, 1991; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Johns et al., 1992; Loher et al., 1985; Parker et al., 2001) which have reported that a significant relationship exists between job characteristics/JC and JS but the magnitude of this relationship is moderate instead of high. These results have actually led the researchers to call for more theory building and empirical research in this area (Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson & Campion, 2003). Particularly, Parker et al. (2001) argued that it is important for the expansion of the work design literature to figure out other mediators in this relationship. This study tried to fulfill this gap in the literature by examining JCCA as a mediator in the JC and job outcomes' relationship.

5.2.2 POP-Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) Relationship

Hypotheses 2 (a-d) proposed that POP is negatively related to a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity respectively. This study results revealed that POP T1 is negatively related to self-reported JS and JE at T2, hence confirming Hypotheses 2 (a) and 2 (b) respectively. In contrast, POP was found to have an insignificant relationship with supervisor-reported JP and Job Creativity at T2. Therefore, Hypotheses 2 (c) and 2 (d) respectively were not confirmed. Overall, Hypotheses 2 (a-d) were partially supported.

POP was found to have a significant negative relationship with JS and JE implying that when employees have higher POP, they are more likely to respond with lower JS and JE. The findings of this study are in agreement with past empirical studies which have reported that POP negatively influence JS and JE (Chang et al., 2009; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Drory, 1993; Ferris et al. 1989, 2002; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Harrell-Cook et al., 1999; Kacmar et al., 1999; Lin, Siu, Shi, & Bai, 2009; Miller et al., 2008; Nye & Witt, 1993; Poon, 2003; Valle & Perrewe´ 2000; Vigoda, 2000b). In comparison to JS as an outcome of POP, still, there is

a lack of research examining the POP and JE relationship as pointed out by the latest meta-analysis by Crawford et al. (2010). Thus, this is a very important contribution of this study that it examined and reported that POP have a negative relationship with JE.

Even though researchers hypothesized a negative relationship between POP and in-role JP on the premise that POP distract employees from their in-role JP because their efforts are directed to deal with this stressor instead of performing the main job functions (e.g., Chang et al., 2009; Ferris et al., 2002; Jex, 1998; Kacmar et al., 1999; Ongori & Agolla 2008; Randall et al., 1999; Rosen et al., 2015). However, the findings of this study reported that POP had an insignificant relationship with supervisor-reported job outcomes (JP and Job Creativity), inferring that employees' POP are less likely to influence how supervisors rate their JP and Job Creativity. This finding is not totally surprising as past empirical studies (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 1997; Hochwarter et al., 2000; Parker et al., 1995; Randall et al., 1999) particularly meta-analysis (Chang et al., 2009; Miller et al., 2008) have reported conflicting findings regarding the significance of relationship between POP and in-role JP. Moreover, studies have also reported that a weak or insignificant negative relationship exists between POP and JP of employees being reported by their supervisors (Zivnuska, Kacmar, Witt, Carlson, & Bratton, 2004; Vigoda, 2000b). One possible explanation for this could be that POP are more of an individual phenomenon less likely to influence how supervisors evaluate their employees. These results also indicate the need for more future research examining the direct relationship as well as mediators in this relationship. This study tried to fulfill this gap in the literature by examining POPHA as a mediator in the POP and job outcomes' relationship.

5.2.3 JC-JCCA Relationship

Hypothesis 3a proposed that JC is positively linked to JCCA. The results of this study revealed that JC self-reported at T1 has a significant positive relationship with JCCA self-reported at T2. Hence the findings of this study completely support hypothesis 3a, one of the major hypotheses proposed in this study. Although in the past, several empirical studies reported a positive relationship between JC and job attitudes and behaviors (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hammond et al., 2011; Harrison et al., 2006; Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson & Campion, 2003) but this is the first study which has actually confirmed the perspective of the challenge-hindrance model of stressors (Cavanaugh et al., 2000) by testing the underlying assumption of the TTS and proved that JC is appraised as a challenge.

5.2.4 POP-POPHA Relationship

Hypothesis 3b suggested that POP has a positive relationship with POPHA. According to the findings of this study, POP self-reported at T1 have a significant positive relationship with POPHA self-reported at T2, thus fully supporting hypothesis 3b. This is also a very important hypothesis suggested in this study, implying that when employees have higher POP, they are more likely to appraise POP as a hindrance. Although researchers have acknowledged POP as a distinct hindrance stressor (Chang et al., 2009) and the majority of the empirical studies have reported that POP have a negative relationship with employee attitudes and behaviors (Chang et al., 2009; Crawford et al., 2010; Miller et al., 2008). These findings are actually based on the belief that POP are appraised as a threat/hindrance on the premise that political happenings restrict an employee's capacity to accomplish desired personal and career outcomes (Ferris et al., 1989; Vigoda, 2000b), but still, there is no study which has actually tested that individuals appraise POP as a hindrance. Thus this study is among those very rare studies which confirmed the viewpoint of the challenge-

hindrance model of stressors (Cavanaugh et al., 2000) by testing the underlying assumptions of TTS and proving that individuals appraised POP as a hindrance.

5.2.5 JCCA-Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) Relationship

Hypotheses 4 (a, b, c and d) anticipated that JCCA is positively linked to JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity respectively. The results of this study indicated that JCCA self-reported at T2 is positively linked to JS and JE self-reported at T2. However, JCCA self-reported at T2 was found to have an insignificant relationship with supervisor-reported JP and Job Creativity at T2. Consequently, hypotheses H4 (a and b) are completely supported whereas H4 (c and d) are not supported. Therefore, overall H4 (a-d) are partially supported.

These study results indicate that JCCA positively influences job attitudes (JS and JE) which is in line with the past studies that have reported the appraisal of CS may likely generate positive attitudes and emotions (Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In addition, similar to the findings of past studies that reported challenge is positively correlated with intrinsic motivation (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996), positive emotions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Skinner & Brewer, 2002), and the experience of flow (Csikszentmihalyi & LeFevre, 1989), this study showed that JCCA positively influences the JS and JE of employees.

Although researchers have reported that employees who appraised a task as challenging exhibit higher JP and Job Creativity (Amabile & Conti, 1999; Amabile & Kramer, 2007; Amabile et al., 1996; Beehr et al., 2000; Jex, 1998; McGrath, 1976; Tomaka et al., 1993) because due to challenge appraisal, individuals tend to feel intrinsically motivated (mostly due to interest, enjoyment, passion, and challenge of the job itself) and as a result, consume energy and accordingly, significant outcomes will occur (LePine et al., 2005). However, just like JC, JCCA

also had an insignificant relationship with supervisor-reported outcomes (JP and Job Creativity). This finding is not totally surprising as Webster et al. (2011) reported challenge appraisal had a non-significant relationship with job dissatisfaction, turnover intentions, and psychological strain. Probably, this finding is due to the reason that employee appraisal of their job as a challenge is more of an individual phenomenon and it is less likely to influence supervisors' rating of their subordinates' JP and Job Creativity.

5.2.6 POPHA-Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) Relationship

Hypotheses 5 (a, b, c and d) predicted that POPHA is negatively linked to JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity respectively. This study results revealed that POPHA self-reported at T2 was found to have an insignificant relationship with self-reported JS and JE at T2. However, POPHA self-reported at T2 has a significant negative relationship with supervisor-reported JP and Job Creativity at T2. Hence, hypotheses H5 (a and b) are not supported whereas H5 (c and d) are completely supported. Hence, overall H5 (a-d) are partially supported.

In contrast to JCCA and job outcomes, POPHA had a negative but non-significant relationship with self-reported outcomes (JS and JE). Although past empirical studies have reported that the appraisal of hindrance stressors is likely to result in negative attitudes and emotions (Boswell et al., 2004; Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In particular, hindrance appraisals were found to influence unfavorable job outcomes such as job dissatisfaction and turnover intentions (Webster et al., 2011). On the contrary, the findings of this study reported that POPHA had an insignificant relationship with job attitudes of JS and JE.

Probably, this lack of significant relationship might be coherent with the emergent perspective that politics in organization are not always destructive and damaging (Ferris et al.,

2002; Mayes & Allen, 1977) but it can be useful if employees perceive it as giving them a profound comprehension of organizational practices (Dulebohn & Ferris, 1999; Fedor & Maslyn, 2002; Fedor et al., 2008; Ferris et al., 1996b; Kumar & Ghadially, 1989). For instance, Randolph (1985) suggested that organizational politics are not necessarily bad; it is just the means through which individuals can achieve something for the welfare of the organization or their individual gain. The constructive consequences of organizational politics are finishing the job-related tasks, career growth, and an amplified sense of achievement, power, recognition, and success (Vigoda, 2002). These opposing perspective and conflicting findings have led the researchers to call for more empirical research to examine the underlying means through which POP influence job outcomes (Zivnuska et al., 2004). This lack of relationship with job attitudes might be an indication that employees can also appraise POP as a challenge and that challenge appraisal, in turn, might be related to the job attitudes of JS and JE. To maintain parsimony, this study only examined hindrance appraisal of POP, but future research can also examine challenge appraisal of POP and how that challenge appraisal, in turn, influences job attitudes and behaviors.

Conversely, POPHA had a significant and negative relationship with supervisor-reported outcomes (JP and Job Creativity). This study added in the existing body of knowledge by examining the underlying assumption that the degree to which POP might influence job outcomes is based on how much the individual appraises the situation as threatening and hostile (Ferris et al., 1989). The results of this study are in agreement with the past researchers who postulated that hindrance appraisal is likely to have a negative relationship with JP (Beehr et al., 2000; Jex, 1998; McGrath, 1976) on the premise that generally, hindrance appraisals stimulate negative emotions, for instance, anger, guilt, and nervousness, etc. (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Skinner & Brewer, 2002). Moreover, since the appraisal and the coping processes to handle stressors, particularly

POP, entail several cognitive and emotional efforts (Cooper et al., 2001; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), which causes strains which repeatedly result in reduced JP as it drains out energy that could be used to perform the job tasks (Cohen, 1980). Particularly, this study tried to fulfill an important gap in the literature by actually investigating the underlying assumption of the TTS that individuals appraised POP as a hindrance and hindrance appraisal, in turn, negatively effected their JP and Job Creativity as reported by their supervisors.

5.3 Indirect Effects

5.3.1 Indirect Effects through JCCA

Hypotheses 6 (a-d) anticipated that JCCA plays the role of a mediator between JC and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity). These study findings revealed that JCCA acted as a full mediator between JC and self-reported job outcomes of JS and JE, thus fully supporting Hypotheses 6a and 6b. However, JCCA did not emerge as a significant mediator between JC and supervisor-reported outcomes of JP and Job Creativity. Hence hypotheses 6c and 6d were not supported. Thus, overall H6 (a-d) are partially supported.

Regarding the mediation hypothesis, JCCA acted as a mediator between JC and self-reported outcomes (JS and JE) indicating that employees' higher perceptions of JC transform into JCCA which, in turn, positively influences their JS and JE. This confirmed the underlying belief that when a stressor is perceived as a challenge, it may cause internal arousal and superior performance results (LePine et al., 2005; McGrath, 1976). Moreover, these study results are in accordance with the past research which has reported that perceived challenge mediated the work characteristics and constructive workplace attitudes (Boswell et al., 2004). Thus this study fulfilled

an important gap in the literature by examining the role of JCCA as a mediator in the JC-job outcomes relationship as suggested by the TTS.

Although few studies have reported that challenge appraisal acted as a mediator in the work characteristics and job outcomes (such as creativity and proactive behavior) relationship (Amabile & Conti, 1999; Amabile et al., 1996; Ohly & Fritz, 2010). Even though this study proposed the role of JCCA as a mediator in JC-job outcomes (JP and Job Creativity) relationship, based on the findings of the past studies that challenge appraisal is associated with positive affect (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Skinner & Brewer, 2002) and positive affect is linked to performance-related behaviors, for instance, creativity (Amabile et al., 2005) and proactive behavior (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009), but these study results revealed that JCCA did not mediate between JC and supervisor-reported outcomes (JP and Job Creativity) implying that probably, JCCA is more of an idiosyncratic phenomenon which although can influence the self-reported outcomes (JS and JE) but did not impact the supervisor assessment of an employee's JP and Job Creativity.

5.3.2 Indirect Effects through POPHA

Hypotheses H7 (a-d) proposed that POPHA acts as a mediator between POP and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) respectively. These study results indicated that POPHA did not mediate between POP and self-reported job outcomes of JS and JE, thus rejecting Hypotheses 6a and 6b. Moreover, POPHA acted as a full mediator between POP and supervisor-reported job outcomes of JP and Job Creativity at T2, therefore, supporting hypotheses 7c and 7d. Overall hypotheses 7 (a-d) are partially supported.

Even though past studies have examined variables such as emotions and emotional behaviors as mediators in the POP and job attitudes such as JS (Liu et al., 2006; Rosen et al., 2009).

Moreover, Ferris et al. (1989) suggested that the extent to which POP might affect JS is based on how much the individual appraises the situation as threatening and hostile. However, the findings of this study reported that POPHA has not mediated between POP and job attitudes of JS and JE as POPHA did not have a significant relationship with these outcomes. This lack of relationship between POPHA and job outcomes of JS and JE might be an indication that since politics is considered as an inherent constituent of every organization, employees have learned how to deal with it and probably they might appraise it as a challenge. As researchers have pointed out, employees can appraise POP both as a threat or an opportunity (Ashforth & Lee, 1990; Vrendenburgh & Maurer, 1984). For the purpose of maintaining parsimony, this study only examined the hindrance appraisal of POP, but future research can also examine the challenge appraisal of POP and how that appraisal, in turn, influences these job attitudes and behaviors.

Since these study findings also indicated that POPHA acted as a mediator between supervisor-reported outcomes of JP and Job Creativity, implying that when employees had higher POP, they appraised POP as a hindrance and this POPHA, in turn, influenced their supervisor rating of their JP and Job Creativity. These study findings confirm the underlying belief that when employees appraise POP as a hindrance, they react with negative emotions and behaviors (Baum, 1989; Ferris et al., 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Valle & Perrewe, 2000). In addition, the finding that POPHA mediated between POP and job outcomes (JP and Job Creativity) is in line with past empirical studies which reported that employee morale, emotional experiences (e.g., frustration, anxiety, and tension), and job attitudes (e.g. JS, JE and affective commitment) acted as a mediator between POP and JP (Chang et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2006; Karatepe, 2013; Rosen et al., 2006; Rosen et al., 2009). This study acknowledged the suggestions of the latest meta-analysis (Miller et al., 2008) which indicated that there is a shortage of research investigating the underlying

psychological mechanisms linking POP with job attitudes and behaviors and proposed that TTS can play a very important role in explaining the relationship of POP with job outcomes. Therefore, this is a very important contribution of this study as it examined POPHA as a mediator in POP-Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) relationship.

5.4 Moderation

5.4.1 CSE as a moderator between JC-JCCA Relationship

Hypothesis 8 proposed that CSE moderates the JC-JCCA relationship such that the relationship is stronger for people having positive CSE. The JC x CSE interaction was found to be insignificant for JCCA, thus rejecting hypothesis 8. These results suggest that CSE did not emerge as a significant moderator in the JC and JCCA relationship. One possible explanation for this finding can be that people high in CSE prefer to choose jobs which are complex in nature and have higher perceptions of JC (Judge et al., 1998; Judge et al., 2000; Srivastava et al., 2010). For them, their personality is less likely to influence the appraisal of JC as a challenge.

5.4.2 CSE as a moderator between JCCA-Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) Relationship

Hypotheses 9 (a-d) anticipated that CSE moderates the JCCA-job outcomes (a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity) relationship such that the relationship is stronger for people having positive CSE. The JCCA x CSE interaction was found to be significant for job outcomes (JS and Job Creativity), and the results of the slope test also disclosed that when the value of CSE is increased, the positive effect of JCCA increased for JS and Job Creativity. Therefore, hypotheses 9a and 9d are supported. Moreover, JCCA x CSE interaction was found to be insignificant for JE and JP. Thus hypotheses 9b and 9c are not supported respectively. Therefore overall hypotheses 9 (a-d) are partially supported.

These study findings actually proved this belief that positive CSE not only overcame the adverse but also generated the most of the good (Judge & Hurst, 2007). This study reported that CSE emerged as a significant moderator in the JCCA and job outcomes' (JS and Job Creativity) relationship. The results of the slope test also revealed that CSE strengthened the positive relationship between JCCA and job outcomes (JS and Job Creativity). Since people having positive CSE consistently evaluate themselves as valuable, proficient, and view their life as controllable (Judge et al., 2004), the results of this study imply that individuals with positive CSE are more satisfied and creative when they have appraised their job as a challenge.

Even though researchers suggested that individuals positive CSE due to their high coping abilities are more likely to achieve better performance, specifically for complex jobs (Judge et al., 2000). But the findings of this study suggested that CSE has not emerged as a significant moderator in the JCCA and job outcomes of JE and JP. Probably, this lack of significance is due to the fact that nowadays, JE and JP are being considered as an inherent component of an employee's job duties. Moreover, whether an employee has positive or negative CSE, nowadays, job requires employees to be engaged in their jobs and perform their job duties specified in their job description.

5.4.3 CSE as a moderator between POP-POPHA Relationship

Hypothesis 10 predicted that CSE moderates the POP-POPHA relationship such that the relationship is weaker for people having positive CSE. The POP x CSE interaction was found to be significant for POPHA and also the results of the slope test revealed that positive CSE weakened the positive association between POP and POPHA. Thus, hypothesis 10 is supported. Therefore, CSE emerged as a significant moderator in the POP and POPHA relationship implying that for individuals having positive CSE, their POP are less likely to transform into appraisal of POP as a

hindrance. In contrast, for people having negative CSE, they are more likely to appraise POP as a hindrance.

Although Ferris et al. (1989, 1996b) suggested the variable of perceived control as moderator in the POP and threat/opportunity perceptions but still there are very few studies which have examined the role of individual differences, particularly dispositional variables, as a moderator in the POP and appraisal relationship. An individual personality has long been recognized as playing a crucial role in determining their reactions to environmental stressors (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995). Particularly, extraverted individuals (who have a tendency to experience positive affect; Tellegen, 1985), are theorized to appraise demanding circumstances as a challenge (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). In contrast, neurotic individuals (who have a tendency to experience negative affect; McCrae, 1990) are more prone to evaluate stressful circumstances as threats rather than challenges (Costa & McCrae, 1985). Moreover, individuals with high self-efficacy, when encountered with stress, felt less threatened (Little & Madigan, 1997). Though self-efficacy and neuroticism (or emotional stability) are important components of CSE but there are very few studies which have examined CSE as a moderator in the appraisal of POP as a hindrance.

While studies have separately acknowledged the role of CSE as a moderator in the POP literature (Bozeman et al., 2001; Kacmar et al., 2009) and stress appraisal literature (Lazarus, 1999; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) but so far there are very few studies which examined the role of CSE as a moderator in the POP and POPHA and this is a very important contribution of this study. Even though it has been decades researchers recognized that POP is as an environmental stressor which individuals can either appraise as challenging or threatening where an individual's personality (e.g., CSE) can play an important role in this appraisal process (McGrath, 1976). Since individuals with positive CSE perceive fewer stressors, experience less strain, and involve themselves more

in effective coping strategies (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2009; Luria & Torjman, 2009), this study actually proved the underlying belief of TTS by actually proving that individuals with positive CSE due to their coping abilities are less likely to appraise POP as a hindrance. In particular, positive CSE weakened the positive association between POP and POPHA.

5.4.4 CSE as a moderator between POPHA and Job Outcomes

Hypotheses 11 (a-d) proposed that CSE moderates the POPHA-job outcomes (a) JS, b) JE, c) JP, and d) Job Creativity) relationship such that the relationship is weaker for people having positive CSE. The POPHA x CSE interaction was found to be significant for job outcomes (JS, JE, and JP). The results of the slope test revealed that positive CSE is strengthening the positive relationship between POPHA and job outcomes (JS and JE) and low value of positive CSE is strengthening the negative relationship between POPHA and JP. Since these effects are opposite to the original hypothesis proposed e.g. positive CSE would weaken the negative association of POPHA with these job outcomes. Thus, hypotheses 11a, 11b, and 11c are partially supported. However, the POPHA x CSE interaction was found to be insignificant for job creativity. Therefore, hypothesis 11d is not supported. Thus, overall hypotheses 11(a-d) are partially supported.

The results of this study also confirmed the findings of the past studies which reported that overall CSE buffered the negative influence of social stressors on JS (Harris et al., 2009) and even self-efficacy (considered as an important component of CSE) moderated the stressor-strain relationships (e.g., Jex & Bliese, 1999; Leiter, 1991; Stumpf et al., 1987). Particularly, self-efficacy was reported to strengthen the negative relationship between POP and JS (Bozeman et al., 2001). CSE also moderated the POP-JP relationship such that in environments perceived as favorable, e.g., lower POP, employees having positive CSE got higher performance evaluation from their supervisors (Kacmar et al., 2009). The findings of this study imply that CSE consists of

important positive capacities which buffered the negative influence of POP (considered as an important hindrance stressor) on job attitudes and behaviors.

5.5 Theoretical Implications

This study tried to fulfill an important gap in the domain of work stressors by trying to answer the question that why and how work stressors are linked to job outcomes (Richardson, 2017; Rosen et al., 2015; Webster et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2014). Although researchers have tried to answer the query that why and how work stressors influence job outcomes with a number of stress theories (See for a latest review Rosen et al., 2010), however, there are very few studies which have incorporated TTS (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) to answer this query. Recently, there has been a renewal of interest by researchers in this TTS which is evident from these studies (LePine et al., 2016; Steenbergen et al., 2008; Tuckey et al., 2015; Webster et al., 2011).

Particularly, the most important contribution of this study is that it examined the basic assumptions of the TTS (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) by actually measuring employees' challenge and hindrance appraisal of workplace stressors. Even though the empirical studies have categorized stressors as challenges or hindrances on the assumption that generally, the majority of individuals appraise stressors in a similar way but it can be argued that employees' appraisals is the underlying means for the distinct relationship of challenges/hindrances stressors with job outcomes (LePine et al., 2005). According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984), appraisals are an important underlying mechanism which ascertains that whether events are evaluated as challenge or hindrance (primary appraisal) and whether and what types of coping techniques are utilized (secondary appraisal). The purpose of this study is to test the basic assumptions of the TTS by actually assessing employees' challenge and hindrance evaluation of workplace stressors.

Particularly, JC has been recognized as a challenge stressor and POP as a hindrance stressor (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; LePine et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2007), but there is no study to the best of my knowledge which has actually examined that whether employees perceive JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance. The reason for choosing the stressors of JC and POP is based on the findings of past empirical studies which reported that JC and POP have conflicting findings with job outcomes and indicated the possibility of a mediator. Particularly, this study suggested that appraisal is the underlying mechanism in the relationship of these stressors with job outcomes but still, past research has not examined this very important assumption of the TTS. Thus, this study tried to fulfill this important theoretical and empirical gap in the domain of challenge-hindrance stressors framework by actually examining whether individuals appraise stressors of JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance.

In addition, the TTS also advocates that the primary appraisal of a situation (challenge and hindrance appraisal) acts as a mediator in the stressors and job outcomes' relationship. While several empirical studies have examined the influence of stressors as an antecedent to strains and other job outcomes, there are very few studies which have actually investigated the role of primary appraisal as a mediating variable in the workplace stressors and job outcomes' relationship (LePine at al., 2016; Tuckey et al., 2015; Webster et al., 2011). Researchers have also stressed that it is important for the extension of the work design and POP literature to figure out other mediators in this relationship (Parker et al., 2001). Therefore, another important contribution of this study is that it also examined how JCCA and POPHA mediate between stressors (JC, POP) and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) respectively.

In addition, individual differences play a very important role in how individuals react to certain stressors, affecting the way people appraise and deal with the stressors (e.g., Folkman &

Lazarus, 1985; Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991; Hemenover & Dienstbier, 1996; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Mackey & Perrewe, 2014; Perrewe´ & Spector, 2002; Smith & Lazarus, 1990; Vollrath, 2001). Researchers have stressed out that the role of dispositional theory should be considered in the appraisal of stressors and how individuals respond to those stressors (Lin et al., 2014). Particularly, Lepine et al. (2005) suggested that personality construct such as CSE might influence the way individuals appraise and react to work stressors. Researchers have suggested that "individuals with positive CSE appraise themselves in a consistently positive manner across situations; such individuals see themselves as capable, worthy, and in control of their lives" (Judge et al., 2004, pp. 326–327). But still, there are very few studies which have examined how individual personality, e.g., their CSE can influence this appraisal process. Another important contribution of this study is that it also examined how individual personality, e.g., their positive CSE influences individuals appraising JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance. Moreover, this study also examined how an individual personality, e.g., CSE influences the relationship of appraisals (JCCA and POPHA) with job outcomes.

5.6 Methodological Implications

There is a possibility that the results of this study could have been affected by Common Method Variance (CMV) as the independent variables (JC and POP), mediators (JCCA, POPHA), moderator (CSE), and job attitudes (JS and JE) were based on self-reported questionnaires (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Although the data collection using self-reported questionnaires is useful and one of the most common methods to capture respondents' attitudes, behavior, perceptions, and other related personality dimensions (see Schmitt, 1994; Wallbott & Scherer, 1989), however, respondents may exaggerate and create unwanted bias that can affect results. But since this was a time-lagged study where the independent variables and moderator were tapped at T1 and mediators

and job outcomes were tapped at T2, the chances of CMV are less. Moreover, since the job behaviors (JP and Job Creativity) in this study are also supervisor-reported, the chances of CMV are further minimized. To confirm that our results are not significantly affected by CMV, we performed Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) that ruled out the possibility of self-reported measures influencing our results.

Furthermore, researchers have emphasized the fact that the research findings with interaction/ moderation effects should not be critiqued for CMV (Harris & Kacmar 2005; Siemsen, Roth. & Oliveira, 2010; Wall, Jackson, Mullarkey, & Parker, 1996). As pointed out by Siemsen et al. (2010), "finding significant interaction effects despite CMV in the dataset should be taken as strong evidence that an interaction effect exists" (p. 470). We believe that the findings of this study are not affected by CMV due to three major reasons; firstly, the study with moderation/interaction effects diminishes the CMV, secondly, survey enumeration with multiple items for measuring a single construct lessens the CMV, and lastly, survey was administered in such a way that maintained the anonymity of the respondents which further reduced the chances of biasness.

5.7 Managerial Implications

According to the applied point of view, since organizations spend huge resources to handle stress (Cooper et al., 2001; Riga, 2006), it is imperative to understand how stressors influence work outcomes in order to enrich the effectiveness of stress management practices (Ivancevich & Ganster, 2014; Ongori & Agolla, 2008). The results of this study actually assisted the practicing managers in proving that employees actually appraise the stressor of JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance. Moreover, this study also proved the assumptions of the TTS that appraisals are the underlying mechanisms linking stressors with job outcomes. Moreover, the results of this study also revealed that the personality of individuals, e.g., CSE plays an important role in influencing

not only the stressors (JC and POP)-appraisal (JCCA and POPHA) relationship but also the appraisal (JCCA and POPHA)-job outcomes relationship.

Therefore, these findings imply that the human resource managers should try to design jobs in a way that are complex, challenging, and stimulating as such jobs are appraised as a challenge and subsequently this challenge appraisal increases JS and JE. Moreover, managers should also try to reduce the hindrance stressor of POP, as it is appraised as a hindrance and consequently has a negative influence on JP and Job Creativity. These findings imply that the managers should create a positive work environment having low POP as when POP are high, it is appraised as a hindrance by employees and, in turn, reduces their job behaviors, e.g., JP and Job Creativity.

If we compare both the stressors in terms of their influence on job attitudes and behaviors, so it can be implied that JC affects job attitudes (JS and JE) directly and also through JCCA but it did not have any effect on job behaviors. In contrast, POP had a direct negative influence on job attitudes (JS and JE) but not through the mediator of POPHA. However, POP influenced job behaviors of JP and Job Creativity through POPHA as POPHA acted as a full mediator in the POPHA-job behaviors (JP and Job Creativity) relationship. Therefore, the results of this study further supported the notion that it is not necessary that people by nature are equally good in performing all these job behaviors (Raja & Johns, 2010). Moreover, the effect of dispositional variable, e.g., CSE was also highlighted, since we took more than one dependent variable (Johns, 2006).

Researchers have highlighted that it is very important for organizations to identify individual differences and place them in jobs that are compatible with their distinct needs, personality, skills, and competencies (Lawler, 1974). In particular, the construct of personality has

received a lot of research attention because of the role it plays in the selection and placement decisions in organizations (Raja & Johns, 2010).

The findings of this study have important implications for managers, particularly for human resource managers in the area of selection and placement. Particularly, the human resource managers should try to develop their selection practices to attract, recruit, select, and retain employees having a high level of CSE, because such employees due to their positive traits not only take the maximum benefit of challenge stressor of complex jobs but also tackle the hindrance stressor of POP very well. Whereas people with low positive CSE can be placed on low complexity jobs to facilitate their natural inclination toward these types of jobs.

When organizations are in the process of selection, particularly personnel testing, they can ensure this by including a measure of CSE (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2011). Moreover, human resource managers should not only try to select individuals with high CSE but they should also use techniques such as role modeling, pep talks, and constructive feedback for enhancing employees sense of achievement, confidence, success, individual, and professional development, which are all the main elements of CSEs (Bandura, 1997; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2011).

Since this study was conducted in a developing country, it also specifies valuable insights for professionals and researchers. As the number of multinational firms continues to increase in Pakistan (Colakoglu, Allen, Miah, & Bird, 2016; Jadoon, Butt, & Hayat, 2016; Ullah, Ghani, & Javed, 2013), these companies often either transfer managers from developed countries to Pakistan or hire locals who have acquired their terminal degrees or professional experience in advanced countries. Although this study has not tested the specific propositions of the JCM and POP, but the findings of this study enlighten these managers that JCM and POP can be generalized to a

developing country such as Pakistan in terms of relationship of JC and POP with important job attitudes.

5.8 Strengths of the Study

This study has got several strengths. Firstly, this study is based on time-lagged research designs as it is the most suitable technique for testing causal models and is less prone to CMV as compared to cross-sectional designs (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Maxwell, & Cole, 2007). Moreover, this study is a response to the call by researchers who suggested that instead of cross-sectional studies, researchers should focus more on longitudinal studies by measuring stressors and outcomes at multiple points in time (Rosen et al., 2015). Thus, this study measured the stressors (JC and POP) at T1 and their appraisals (JCCA and POPHA) and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) at T2. Secondly, this study has collected supervisor-reported data for two job behaviors, i.e., JP and Job Creativity, which has further reduced the problem of CMV due to survey technique.

Thirdly, the population for this study was employees working in diverse industries of Pakistan, e.g., public and private sector organizations situated in two major cities of Pakistan, i.e., Islamabad and Lahore. Gathering data from several organizations helped to tape utmost variance across a variety of organizational settings and also enhanced reliance on the generalizability of results.

Fourthly, all the scales used in this study to measure independent, mediating, moderating, and dependent variables have obtained good reliability as Cronbach's alpha reliability for all the variables were in the range of .79 to .94. The convergent and discriminant validity were also obtained for all the study variables.

Fifthly, since majority of occupational stress theories are developed and tested in Western industrialized countries (Jamal, 1999; Siu, 2002; Xie, 1996), this study tested the generalizability of stressors (JC and POP) in a developing Asian country, e.g., Pakistan.

5.9 Limitations and Future Research Directions of the Study

This study also comprises of certain limitations which further highlight new research directions for future researchers. For the purpose of avoiding methodological complications, this study examined only the challenge appraisal of JC and hindrance appraisal of POP. Future research can examine both the challenge and hindrance appraisal of JC and POP as the TTS also claims that individuals can appraise a stressor as a challenge and a hindrance to varying levels.

For maintaining parsimony, this study only examined how the personality construct of CSE influences the appraisal of stressors and that relationship of appraisal with job outcomes. Future research can also examine the role of other personality variables as moderators such as big-five personality traits and other narrow personality traits such as type A, self-monitoring, etc. Future research can also examine how state like personality constructs such as psychological capital influence the appraisal of stressors. Moreover, other situational variables such as leader member exchange, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, and political skill can also be examined as moderators in stressors-appraisal and appraisal-job outcomes relationship.

This study only examined the job outcomes of JS, JE, JP, and job creativity. Future research can examine other job outcomes as well like organizational commitment, psychological empowerment, psychological detachment, and job burnout, etc. Moreover, this study only tapped the appraisal of stressors and job outcomes at Time2. The appraisal of stressors and job attitudes

and behaviors can also be examined at both T1 and T2 to analyze the temporal differences in challenge appraisal of JC and hindrance appraisal of POP and the job attitudes and behaviors.

To tackle the issue of CMV, this study tapped employee's JP and Job Creativity as reported by their supervisor. However, the results of this study indicated that JCCA had an insignificant relationship with supervisor-reported JP and Job Creativity. Probably indicating that appraisal is more of an individual phenomenon, less likely to influence the JP and Job Creativity of employees as reported by their supervisors. Future research can also examine both job behaviors of JP and Job Creativity reported by self and supervisors to tap these differences.

5.10 Conclusion

The most important theoretical and empirical contribution of this study in the domain of challenge-hindrance stressors framework is that it examined the basic assumptions of the TTS (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) by actually examining whether individuals appraise stressors of JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance. In addition, the TTS also advocates that the primary appraisal of a situation (challenge and hindrance appraisal) acts as a mediator in the stressors and job outcomes relationship. Therefore, another important contribution of this study is that it also examined how JCCA and POPHA mediate between stressors (JC, POP) and job outcomes (JS, JE, JP, and Job Creativity) respectively. Another important contribution of this study is that it also examined how individual personality, e.g., their positive CSE influences individuals appraising JC as a challenge and POP as a hindrance. Moreover, this study also examined how an individual personality, e.g., CSE influences the relationship of appraisals (JCCA and POPHA) with job outcomes.

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APPENDIX I

Table 1 Factor Loadings, AVE and Reliabilities of JC

JC	Factor Loadings	Sq Multiple Correlations	AVE	Reliability
SV1T1	.74	.55		
SV2T1	.71	.51		
SV3T1	.47	.22		
TI1T1	.57	.32		
TI2T1	.54	.29		
TI3T1	.61	.37		
TS1T1	.56	.31		
TS2T1	.71	.51		
TS3T1	.58	.33		
A1T1	.67	.49		
A2T1	.79	.63		
A3T1	.61	.38		
FJ1T1	.64	.41		
FJ2T1	.62	.39		
FJ3T1	.65	.43		
FA1T1	.63	.39		
FA2T1	.73	.53		
FA3T1	.67	.45		
			.41	.86

AVE Average Variance Extracted

Table 2 Factor Loadings, AVE and Reliabilities of POP

POP	Factor Loadings	Sq Multiple Correlations	AVE	Reliability
GPB1T1	.64	.41		
GPB2T1	.64	.40		
GPB3T1	.72	.51		
GPB4T1	.67	.44		
GPB5T1	.68	.46		
GPB6T1	.64	.41		
GA1T1	.73	.53		
GA2T1	.73	.53		
GA3T1	.78	.60		
GA4T1	.64	.40		
PP1T1	.63	.39		
PP2T1	.75	.56		
			.48	.89

AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Table 3 Factor Loadings, AVE and Reliabilities of JCCA				
JCCA	**Factor Loadings**	**Sq Multiple Correlations**	**AVE**	**Reliability**
JCCA1T2	.52	.27		
JCCA2T2	.62	.38		
JCCA3T2	.65	.42		
JCCA4T2	.70	.49		
JCCA5T2	.67	.45		
JCCA6T2	.62	.38		
JCCA7T2	.57	.32		
JCCA8T2	.57	.33		
JCCA9T2	.57	.33		
JCCA10T2	.54	.29		
JCCA11T2	.51	.26		
			.36	.86

AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Table 4 Factor Loadings, AVE and Reliabilities of POPHA

POPHA	Factor Loadings	Sq Multiple Correlations	AVE	Reliability
POPHA1T2	.65	.43		
POPHA2T2	.74	.54		
POPHA3T2	.73	.54		
POPHA4T2	.81	.65		
POPHA5T2	.75	.56		
POPHA6T2	.81	.65		
POPHA7T2	.80	.64		
POPHA8T2	.83	.68		
POPHA9T2	.76	.57		
POPHA10T2	.74	.55		
POPHA11T2	.80	.65		
			.59	.94

AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Table 5 Factor Loadings, AVE and Reliabilities of CSE				
CSE	**Factor Loadings**	**Sq Multiple Correlations**	**AVE**	**Reliability**
CSE1T1	.68	.46		
CSE2T1	.71	.51		
CSE3T1	.65	.42		
CSE4T1	.80	.64		
CSE5T1	.61	.37		
CSE6T1	.77	.60		
CSE7T1	.62	.38		
CSE8T1	.73	.54		
CSE10T1	.69	.48		
CSE11T1	.30	.09		
CSE12T1	.73	.53		
			.46	.80

AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Table 6 Factor Loadings, AVE and Reliabilities of JS

JS	Factor Loadings	Sq Multiple Correlations	AVE	Reliability
JSat1T2	.69	.47		
JSat2T2	.82	.67		
JSat3T2	.69	.48		
JSat4T2	.64	.41		
JSat6T2	.49	.24		
			.45	.82

AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Table 7 Factor Loadings, AVE and Reliabilities of JE

JE	Factor Loadings	Sq Multiple Correlations	AVE	Reliability
VI2T2	.66	.44		
DE1T2	.73	.53		
DE2T2	.77	.60		
DE3T2	.72	.52		
AB1T2	.72	.52		
AB2T2	.60	.36		
AB3T2	.62	.38		
			.48	.86

AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Table 8 Factor Loadings, AVE and Reliabilities of JP				
JP	**Factor Loadings**	**Sq Multiple Correlations**	**AVE**	**Reliability**
JPSp1T2	.88	.78		
JPSp2T2	.82	.67		
JPSp3T2	.86	.74		
JPSp4T2	.83	.69		
JPSp5T2	.81	.65		
JPSp6T2	.56	.32		
JPSp7T2	.61	.38		
			.60	.91

AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Table 9 Factor Loadings, AVE and Reliabilities of Job Creativity				
JCrea	**Factor Loadings**	**Sq Multiple Correlations**	**AVE**	**Reliability**
JCreaSp1T2	.80	.64		
JCreaSp2T2	.82	.67		
JCreaSp3T2	.83	.69		
			.67	.86

AVE= Average Variance Extracted

APPENDIX II

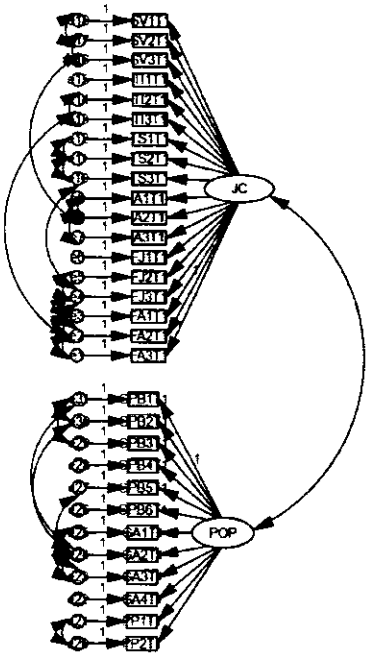

Figure 1. Two Factor Analysis of JC and POP

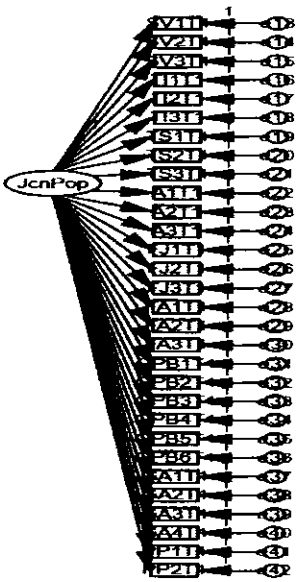

Figure 2. One Factor Analysis of JC and POP (F1=JC+POP)

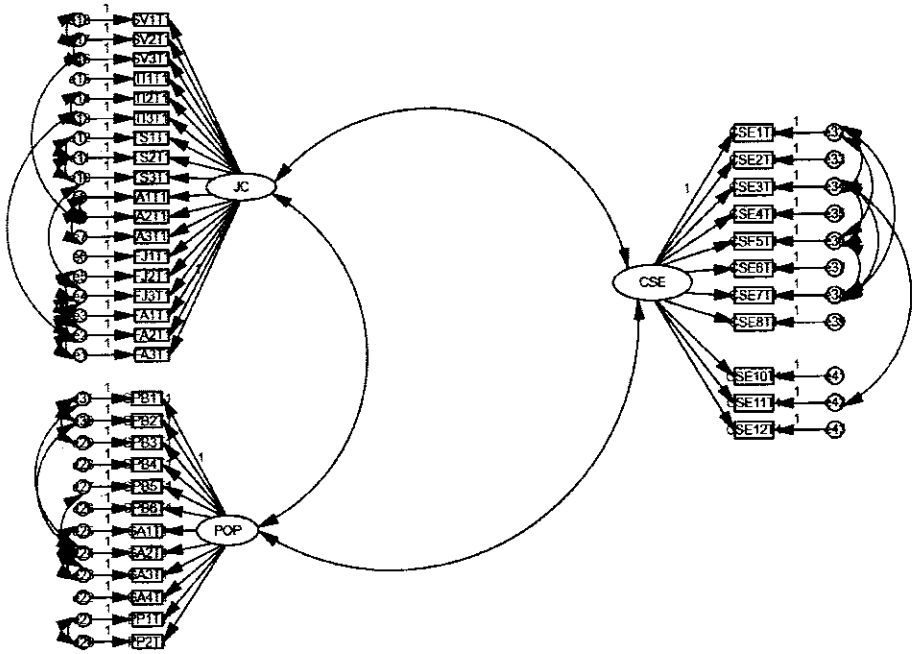

Figure 3. Three Factor Analysis of JC, POP and CSE

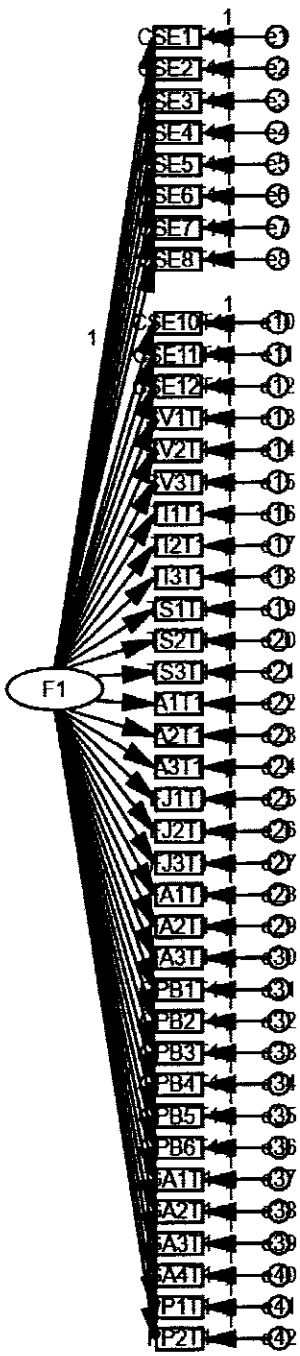

Figure 4. One Factor Analysis of JC, POP and CSE (F1=JC+POP+CSE)

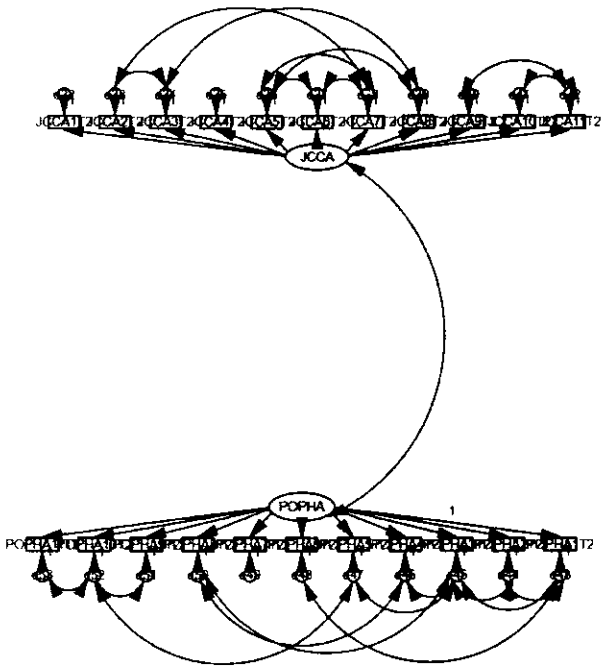

Figure 5. Two Factor Analysis of Mediators (JCCA and POPHA)

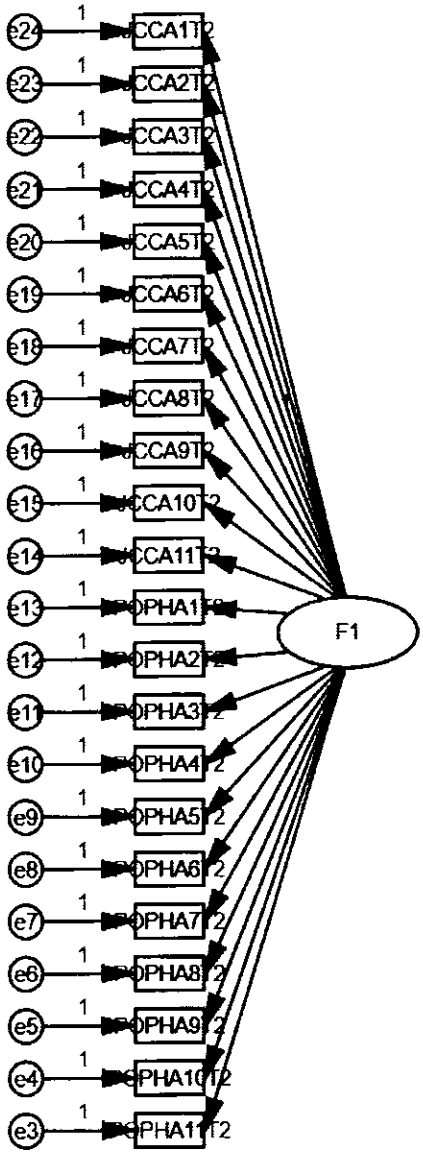

Figure 6. One Factor Analysis of Mediators JCCA and POPHA (F1=JCCA+POPHA)

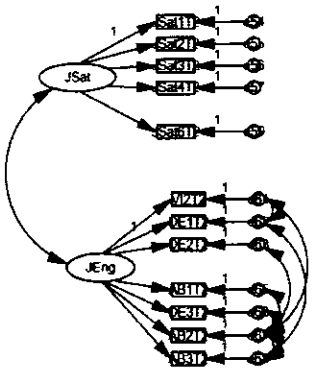

Figure 7. Two Factor Analyses of Self-Reported DVs (JS and JE)

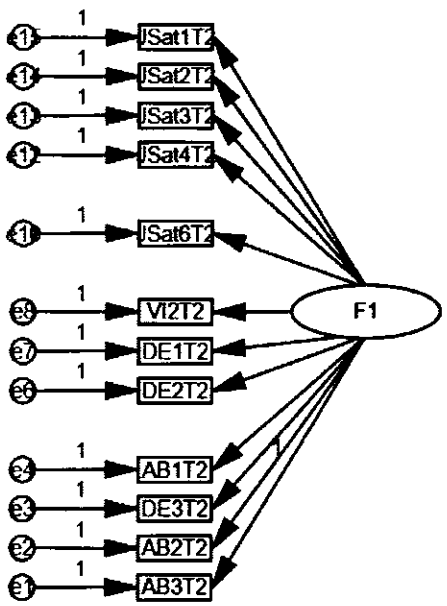

Figure 8. One Factor Analyses of Self-Reported DVs JS and JE (F1=JS+JE)

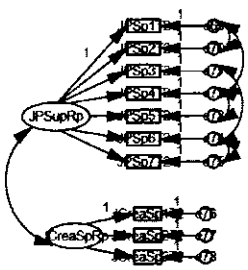

Figure 9. Two Factor Analyses of Supervisor-Reported DVs (JP and Job Creativity)

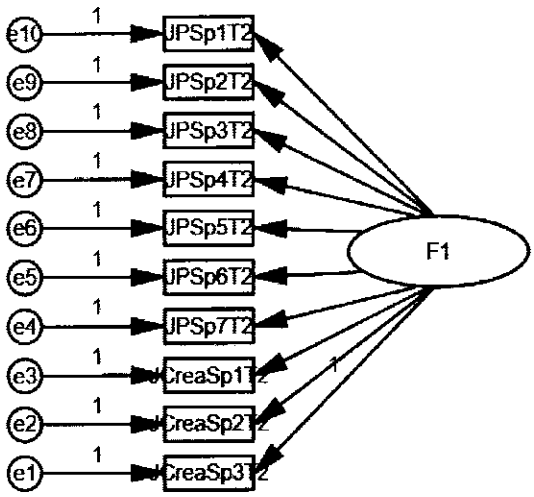

Figure 10. One Factor Analyses of Supervisor-Reported DVs JP and Job Creativity (F1=JP+Job Creativity)

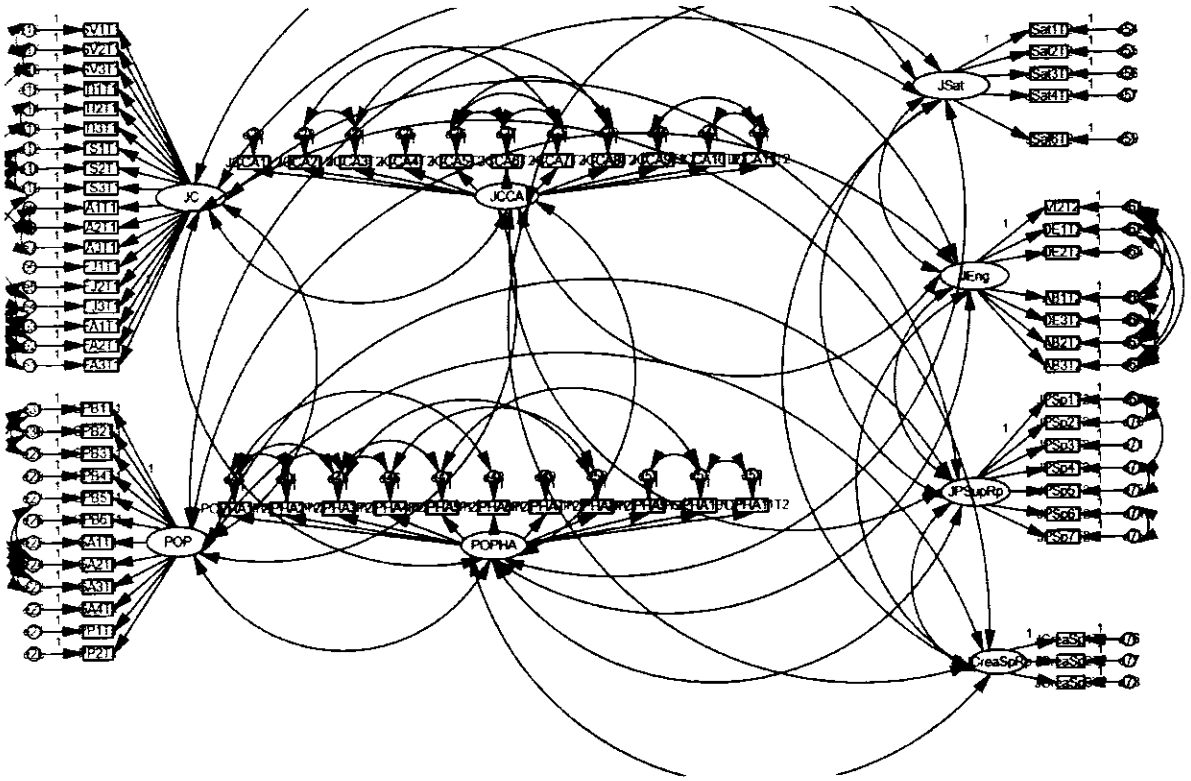

Figure 11. Full Measurement Model comprising of 8 variables

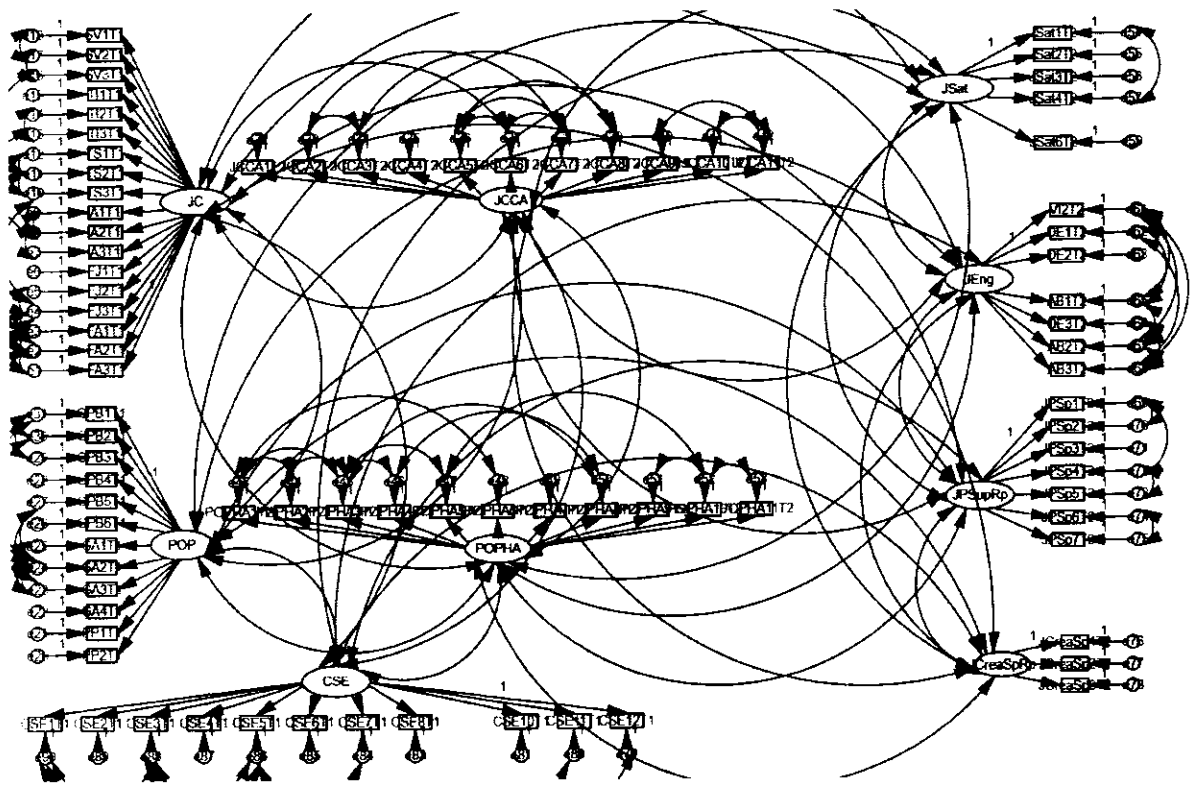

Figure 12. Full Measurement Model With all Variables

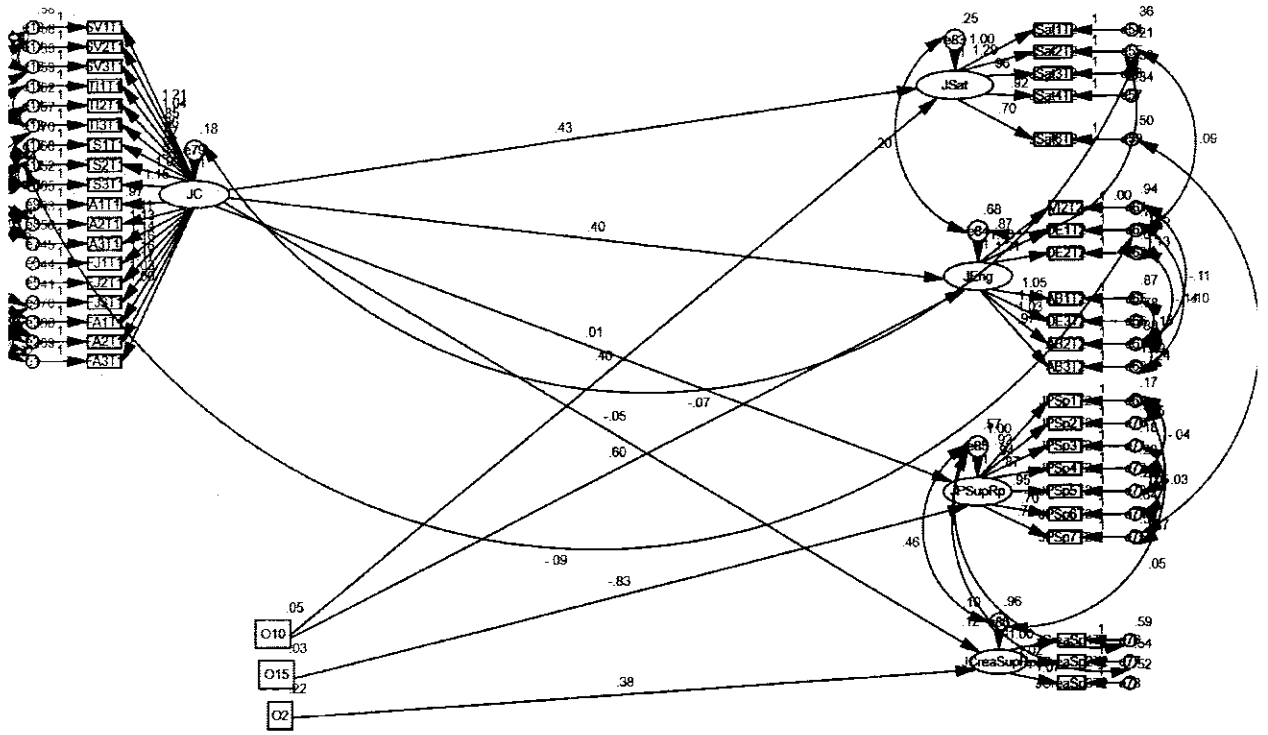

Figure 13. Path Model of JC and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity)

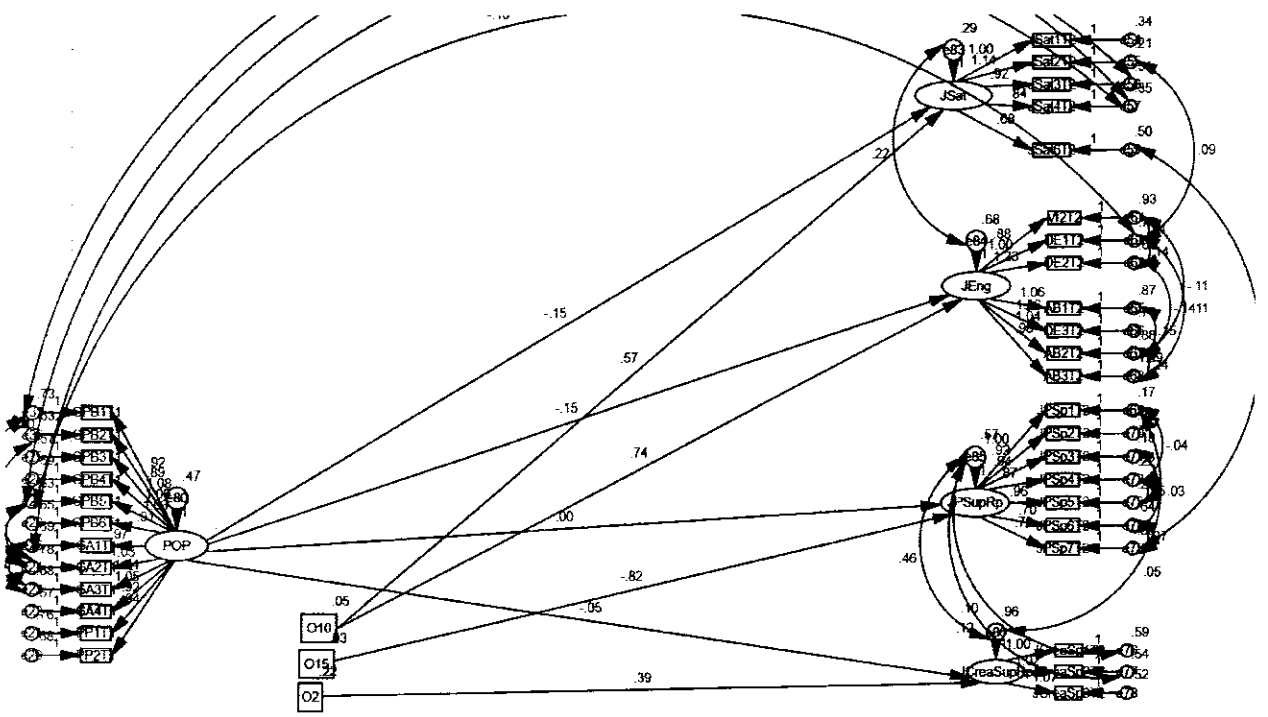

Figure 14. Path Model of POP and Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity)

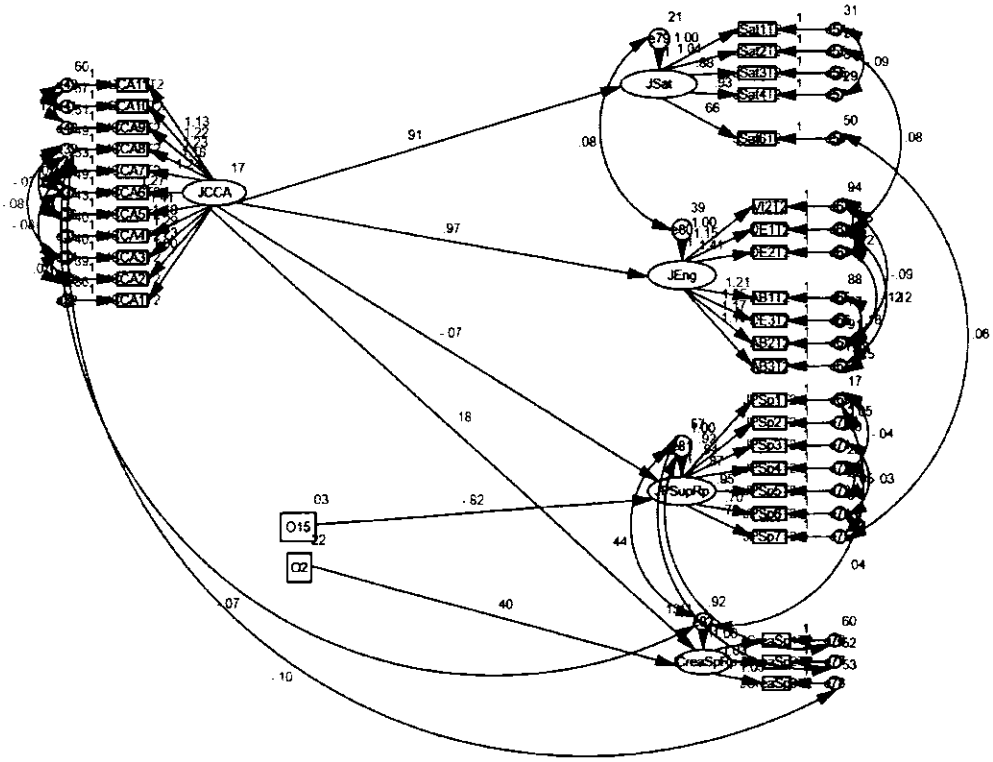

Figure 15. Path Model Displaying JCCA Direct Effect on Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity)

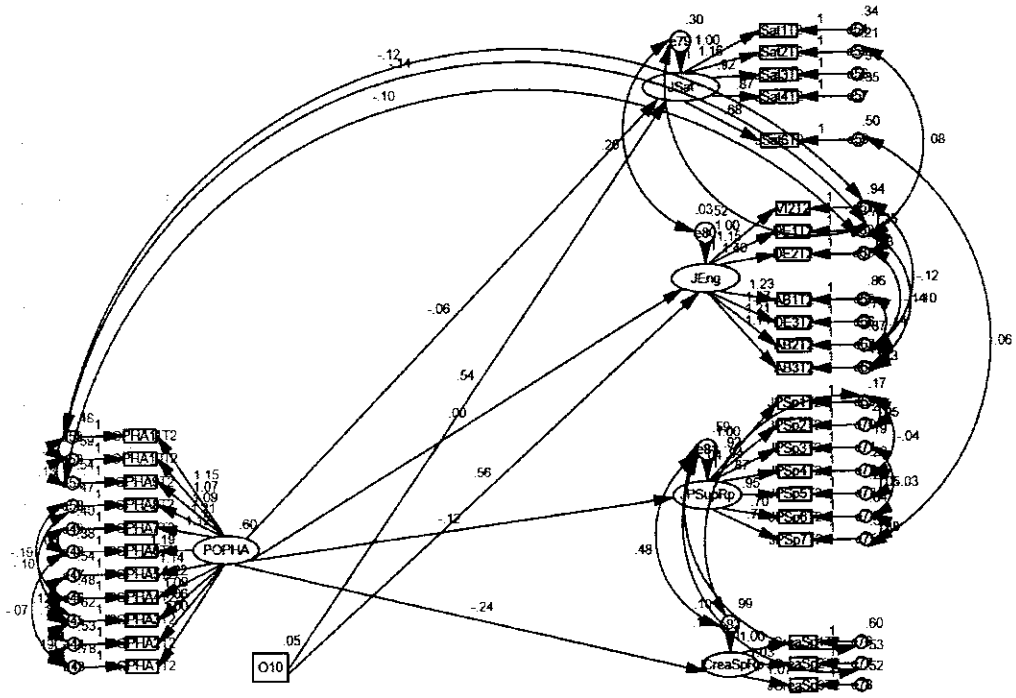

Figure 16. Path Model Exhibiting POPHA Direct Effect on Job Outcomes (JS, JE, JP and Job Creativity)