PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS MODERATORS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AMONG GRADUATE EMPLOYEES IN NIGERIA

By

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Declaration

I, John Kolawole Aderibigbe, hereby declare that the content of this Doctor of Commerce Degree thesis in Industrial Psychology is my own research, and that it has not previously been submitted to another university, for assessment or completion of any postgraduate qualification. I also declare that the thesis complies fully with the University of Fort Hare Policy on Plagiarism and that as advised by my supersor, the responsibility for adhering to the ethics of originality and proper referencing is mine, and mine alone.

Signature: …………………………

John Kolawole Aderibigbe

Date: …………………………..

Acknowledgments

wife to me. For your spiritual and much other support, I will forever be grateful. I love you forever and always, Mine. To my beautiful and wonderful daughter, Prevail, thank you for your indescribable love. Thanks, my little angel. I love you.

Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AMOS: Analaysis of mement structure

CRT: Conservation of resources theory

EI: Emotional Intelligence

GE: Graduate employee

MPIOO: Model of psychological intervention for occupational stress and organisational

citizenship behaviour

MRA: Multiple regression analysis

OS: Occupational stress

OCB: Organisational citizenship behaviour

PECS: Positivist explanatory cross-sectional survey

POB: Positive organizational behaviour

POS: Positive organizational scholarship

PsyCap: Psychological capital

ABSTRACT

The study investigated psychological capital and emotional intelligence as moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among graduate employees in Nigeria, using the explanatory cross-sectional (survey) research design and three sampling techniques (The Two-stage Cluster Sampling Method, The Convenience Sampling Method and The Purposive Sampling Technique) to sample 1532 male and female graduate employees in Nigeria. A structured validated questionnaire was used to collect data from the respondents. Six hypotheses were stated and tested in the study towards propounding a model, using Pearson Correlation Analysis, Multiple Regression Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling. The results show that there is a weak positive relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, $r = 0.070$, $p<0.01$; there is a significant positive relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour, $r = 0.588$, $p<0.01$; there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour, $r = 0.473$, $p<0.01$; psychological capital is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, $F_{(2,1529)} = 8.514$; $R^2 = 0.011$; $p <.05$; emotional intelligence is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, $F_{(2,1529)} = 5.945$; $R^2 = 0.008$; $p <.05$; psychological capital and emotional intelligence are significant joint moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, $F_{(1,1530)} = 221.240$; $R^2 = 0.186$; $p <.05$; psychological capital has a direct and significant positive effect on organisational citizenship behaviour, $R= 0.657$, $p<.001$; emotional intelligence has a direct and significant positive effect on organisational citizenship behaviour, $R= 0.183$, $p<.001$; psychological capital has a direct and significant positive effect on occupational stress, $R= 0.100$, $p<.001$; emotional intelligence has a direct and significant positive effect on psychological capital, $R= 0.547$, $p<.001$.

Based on the results, the study concludes that psychological capital and emotional intelligence are significant joint moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. The proposed model was, therefore, empirically confirmed. The researcher recommends that the empirical model of effective management of occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, which has been propounded in the study, should be adopted and applied by teachers, lecturers, seminar facilitators, workshop trainers, supervisors and managers during their coaching or training sessions.

Key words: *Emotional intelligence, graduate employee, Nigeria, occupational stress, organisational citizenship behaviour, psychological capital*

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter provides a background to the study, followed by a statement of the problem, research objectives, statement of hypotheses, significance of the study, delimitation of the study and the ethical considerations. In addition, the chapter includes a synopsis of the entire thesis in chapters, and it concludes with a summary.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

This study seeks to investigate the impact of psychological capital and emotional intelligence as moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among graduate employees in Nigeria. It is a documented fact that occupational stress is widespread worldwide (Malikeh, & Rahele, 2013; Khamisa, Oldenburg, Peltzer, & Ilic, 2015). Moreover, there are clear signs of many variables that affect Nigerian graduate employees, which are most likely to cause severe occupational stress, and this, in turn, could negatively affect employees and their ability to demonstrate citizenship behaviour (Akanmu, 2011; Adegbami, 2013).

Occupational stress is a negative career-related concept that generates concerns among career holders, and it has the ability to influence individual and organisational outcomes (Beheshtifar & Nazarian, 2013). In other words, occupational stress is a negative phenomenon, the occurrence of which often stimulates an unpleasant response to the work environment making it appear

threatening to the employees. Moreover, prolonged occupational stress could manifest itself physically, emotionally and psychologically in the lives of the affected employees.

The commonly reported physical symptom of occupational stress is a headache, which makes the affected employees unconsciously tense in their necks, foreheads and shoulder muscles (Chandra & Parvez, 2016). The other known symptoms of occupation stress are digestive problems, ulcers, hypertension, anxiety and inordinate sweating, coronary illness, strokes and even male pattern baldness. Emotionally, an affected employee frequently displays nervousness, outrage, depression, fractiousness, frustration to ordinary issues, dementia and an absence of focus for any assignment, because the mind of the individual is negatively impacted. The psychological manifestations of occupational stress, on the other hand, include withdrawal from society, phobias, compulsive behaviours, eating disorders and night fears. It consequently results in counterproductive work behaviours or attributes such as intention to quit, low productivity and turnover behaviour among others (Yahaya, Yahaya, Ma'alip, Ramli & Kamal, 2012) if it is not well managed.

Among the various identified job conditions that lead to occupational stress, according to Narban, Narban and Singh (2016), are the design of tasks (such as underutilization of employees' ability or skill, high workload, inconsistent rest times, long work durations, routinely hectic tasks, minimal control over work, and rigidity), style of the management (such as lack of employees' involvement in management decisions, poor organisational communication, lack of employee-friendly policies, carelessness to employee family needs) and interpersonal relationships (such as poor social environment and low level of support or lack of help from co-employees and superiors). The other conditions are work roles (such as conflicting job expectations and overwhelming responsibility), career concerns (such as job insecurity, lack of

opportunity for career development and frequent changes) and unpleasant or dangerous environmental conditions such as air pollution overcrowding and noise (Narban, Narban & Singh, 2016).

Organisational citizenship behaviour, on the other hand, is one of the most widely examined areas in industrial/organisational psychology and human resource management literature. Over the past two decades, organisational citizenship behaviour has gained significant research attention which is evident from the growing number of studies on the topic. It is an essential phenomenon in the formal work setting because of its potency to facilitate interpersonal relationships among employees, and also to increase organisational performance (Pradhan, Jena & Bhattacharya, 2016). Organisational citizenship behaviour is an alternative form of performance behaviour, which is differentiated from the traditional performance that relies heavily on official assignments and tasks (Karolidis, 2016). For instance, having subordinates who are highly engaged in organisational citizenship may improve managers' efficiency by allowing them to devote a greater amount of time to long-range planning matters. Hence, managers, employees and the organisations at large benefit from the positive behaviours (Lelei, Chepkwony & Ambrose, 2016). These behaviours are explained by concepts such as pro-social behaviours, extra-role behaviours, contextual performance, spontaneous behaviours or organisational citizenship behaviour.

In the contemporary world of work, organisational citizenship behaviour is one of the variables that improves performance and the quality of services that are provided by the employees (Behtooee, 2016). It can lead the organization into achieving its aims and objectives. Organisational citizenship behaviour is a central part of performance management. Employees

who engage in the behaviour are mostly found to be predisposed to it while others are shaped by the influence of the environment. It consequently implies that organisational citizenship behaviour could be the result of nature or nurture in terms of development, and it could as well be accounted for by the combination of the two broad factors.

In consideration of the implications of occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, it is quite necessary for scholars and human resource management practitioners, to urgently investigate factors that could be effective in managing both phenomena, which exist in the contemporary world of work. In the course of the study, the research participants or respondents were not only considered in their entirety but they were also disaggregated according to various biographical and occupational characteristics. The study thus reveals whether findings pertaining to the whole sample also apply to various demographic segments thereof. This is important, because some previous research findings suggest that this may be the case (Oweke, Muola & Ngumi, 2014; Restila, 2015; Profili, Sammarra & Innocenti, 2016).

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Scholars have linked challenges that are related to employee performance in current employment to high levels of occupational stress (Baxter, 2010; Laschinger, 2011). In the same vein, studies have shown that occupational stress is significantly related to both task related work behaviour and non-task related work behaviour of employees (Adebiyi, 2013; Arogundade & Lawal, 2016). The World Health Organization has also reported occupational stress as a global epidemic (WHO, 2010). Obviously, the consequence of an increasingly strenuous work environment is evident in Nigerian work settings, as cases of job dissatisfaction, a high rate of absenteeism, employee intention to quit, labour turnover, and poor job performance (contrast to organisational citizenship behaviour) remain evident among graduate employees in Nigeria

(Adebayo & Ogunsina, 2011; Adebiyi, 2013; Adetayo, Ajani & Olabisi, 2014; Arogundade & Lawal, 2016).

So far, broad studies throughout the years have centred more on identifying the stressors (Paillé, 2011; Brynien & Igoe, 2016). Literature further reveals that most studies conducted on occupational stress have concentrated on determinants, as opposed to results, such as employee performance, turnover intention, turnover behaviour and employee productivity (American Psychological Association, 2013; Goh, Pfe!er & Zenios, 2015). Hence, few scientific investigations have been conducted to devise psychological intervention strategies to ameliorate the situation and ensure organisational citizenship behaviour (Ahmad, Hussain, Saleem, Qureshi & Mufti, 2015). Furthermore, though there is an increasing consideration of the phenomenon of organisational citizenship behaviour by researchers, a thorough review of the literature shows a lack of agreement about the scope of the concept (Farzianpour, Foroushani, Kamjoo & Hosseini, 2011). However, the current study sought to examine empirically the roles of psychological capital and emotional intelligence as moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour in order to fill the existing vacuum identified in the literature.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main objective of the study was empirically to investigate the moderating influence of psychological capital and emotional intelligence on the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among university graduate employees in Nigeria.

The subsidiary objectives of the study were to explore:

1. the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour;

2. the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour;

3. the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour;

4. the impact of psychological capital as a moderator in the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour;

5. the impact of emotional intelligence as a moderator in the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour;

6. the impact of psychological capital and emotional intelligence jointly moderators in the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

1.5 THE PROPOSED MODEL

There are six hypotheses that were generated from the proposed model, which is presented in figure 1.1 below. The proposed model consists of one dependent variable (organisational citizenship behaviour), one independent variable (occupational stress), and two moderator variables (psychological capital and emotional intelligence).
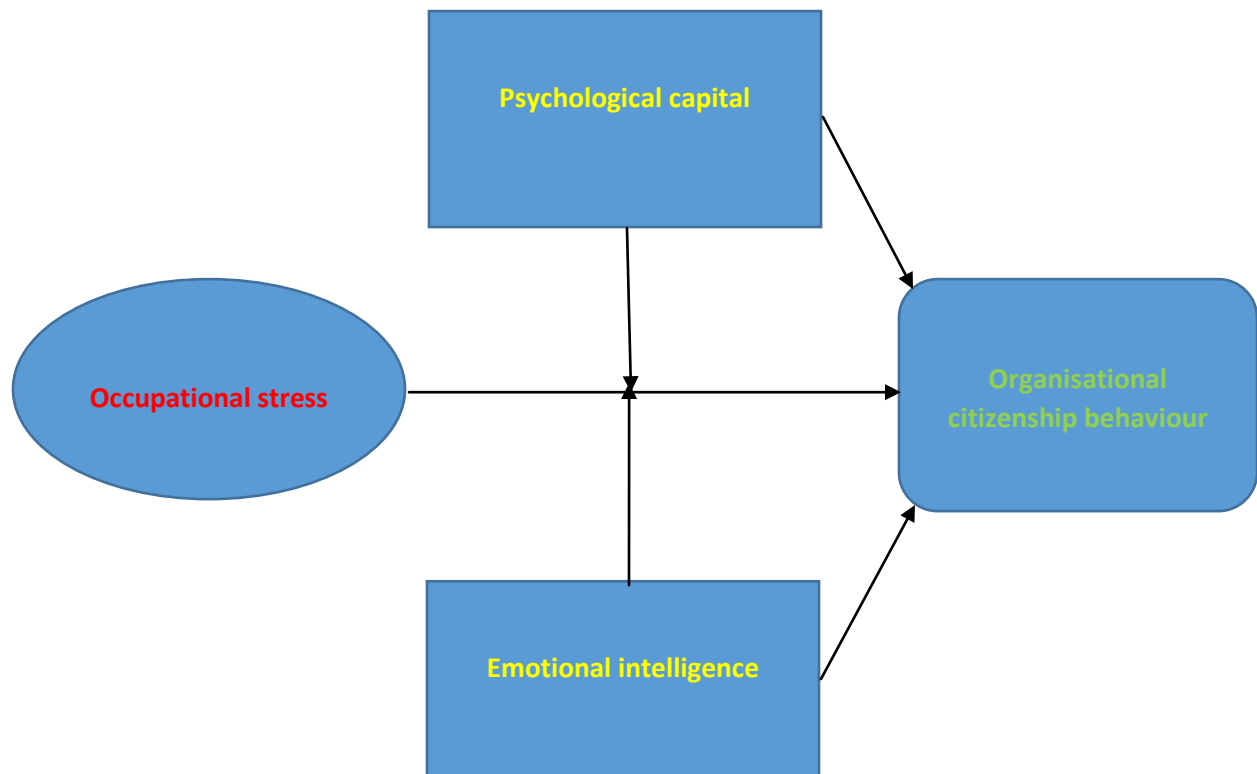
Figure 1.1 Proposed model of psychological intervention for effective management of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour

1.6 STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

Based on the past studies reviewed and on logical grounds, the present study states the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1

H_0: There is no statistical significant relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

H_1: Occupational stress is significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 2

H_0: There is no statistical significant relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour.

H_1: Psychological capital is significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 3

H_0: There is no statistical significant relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour.

H_1: Emotional intelligence is significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 4

H_0: There is no statistical significant moderating impact of psychological capital on the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

H_1: Psychological capital is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 5

H_0: There is no statistical significant moderating impact of emotional intelligence on the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

H_1: Emotional intelligence is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 6

H_0: There is no statistical significant joint moderating impact of psychological capital and emotional intelligence on the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

H_1: Psychological capital and emotional intelligence are significant joint moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The intention of this study was to propound an empirical model or framework as to how organisational citizenship behaviour can be improved among graduate employees, through psychological capital and emotional intelligence, under the stressful work situations caused by factors such as globalization and competition. The importance of research on human resource-related issues to the industries, organisations and the national economy at large, cannot be overemphasized (Mathis, Jackson & Valentine, 2014). Perhaps, among the leading causes of the failure of some organisations and the national economy today is, perhaps, the problem of human resource management.

Although, visions and goals are usually set by the organisations, the achievements might not be fully guaranteed, without the presence and contributions of a set of individuals with attributes such as organisational citizenship behaviour, positivism and emotional intelligence (Berman, Bowman, West & Van Wart, 2012). It therefore poses a big challenge to the governments, employers of labour and human resource practitioners in the contemporary world of work to

ensure that healthy, highly motivated and productive work teams are available for the national and the world economy. To this effect, the findings of the present study will yield strategic recommendations and suggestions that will be useful in the following areas:

I.   in improving the knowledge of the governments and the management of organisations on how organisational citizenship behaviour can be reinforced among employees.

II.   in helping the management of industries and organisations to design intervention programmes toward ensuring an effective management of occupational stress among employees.

III.   in promoting the awareness of society at large about the possible effects of occupational stress on organisational citizenship behaviour.

IV.   in stimulating the attention of society at large about the moderator role of psychological capital on the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

V.   in promoting the awareness of society at large about the moderator role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

VI.   in increasing the volume of existing literature on the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

1.8 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

It is a documented fact that occupational stress is widespread worldwide and there are clear signs of many variables that affect Nigerian graduate employees (Akanmu, 2011; Adegbami,

2013), which are most likely to cause severe occupational stress and hinder employee and organisational performances. However, the focus of the present study was to examine the possible joint and independent moderating roles of psychological capital and emotional intelligence on the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. While concentrating on this, the moderator variables, psychological capital and emotional intelligence were each considered in the study as a whole variable, not as the dimensions of a variable. Hence, the concepts and terms involved are operationally and exclusively defined below to reveal the scope and boundaries of the present study:

- *Organisational citizenship behaviour:* Organisational citizenship behaviour is a set of helping behaviours that are voluntarily exhibited by an employee towards his or her subordinates or clients with the primary motive of ensuring satisfactory individual and organisational performances (Falvo, Hichy, Capozza, & De Carlo, 2002). Its component parts that were tapped by a questionnaire on organisational citizenship behaviour included altruism, conscientiousness and civic virtue.

- *Occupational stress:* Occupational stress is defined as the harmful physical and emotional responses that usually transpire when a job's prerequisites do not correspond with the abilities and/ or resources of an employee (NIOSH, 1999). Its component parts were tapped by the aforementioned questionnaire on job stress, including physical strain and emotional strain.

- *Psychological capital:* This is described as an employee's positive mental state of development, which is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the needed effort so as to prosper at challenging responsibilities; (2) having a positive attribute (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) determining goals and, when necessary, alternative ways to objectives (hope) with a specific end goal to succeed; and (4) when affected by issues and afflictions, managing, enduring

and even going past them (resilience) to reach success (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). Its component parts were tapped by the aforementioned questionnaire of psychological capital including hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism.

- *Emotional intelligence:* Emotional intelligence describes the mental capacity of a person to constructively regulate his or her emotions in challenging situations so as to gain emotional and intellectual control and overcome the situations (Bar-On, 1997). Its component parts were tapped by the aforementioned questionnaire of emotional intelligence including self-control, self-awareness, self-expression and others-awareness.

- *Graduate employees:* The term 'graduate employees' refers to both the first degree (B.Sc/B.Ed/B.A) graduates of the universities and the Higher National Diploma (H.N.D.) graduates of the polytechnics that are being employed and are serving in the private and public establishments in Nigeria. In the context of the educational qualifications and the grading system of Nigeria, the Higher National Diploma certificate is equivalent to the first degree certificate, and the holders of both certificates are regarded as the graduates of the higher education institutions (Bauduy, 2008). Hence, the two aforementioned categories of graduates were included as participants in this study, because they both serve as graduate employees in the work force of the country.

1.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN THE STUDY

The participants' voluntary participation in the study was sought through a letter of consent to be signed by each of the participants. They were informed about the importance of the study as the findings from the study may positively influence the government policy helping in improving their conditions of employment and service respectively. Moreover, assurance was given to the participants in respect of confidentiality of all information supplied.

Furthermore, the participants were instructed not to indicate any means of identification such as name, identity number or organisational affiliation. With utmost sense of sincerity, information concerning the study and its outcomes was accurately submitted to the appropriate institutions. Thus, the researcher ensured that no instance of misleading actions were demonstrated in the course of the study. The researcher also ensured that the study was conducted in a conducive environment such that would not expose the participants to any physical or psychological hazard.

1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1: Introduction

The chapter lays the foundation of the study, through a systematic explanation of the motivations behind the research, and presentation of coinciding targeted goals or visions, which are clearly encapsulated under the following sub-headings: background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, statement of hypotheses, significance of the study, delimitation of the study and the ethical considerations.

Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework and Conceptual Literature

The chapter presents the philosophical explanations of the variables that are involved in the study, based on the underpinning assumptions of a pertinent existing theory, which is commonly applied within the jurisdiction of the study, and it also reports the scholarly views of various experts about each of the variables under consideration in the study.

Chapter 3: Review of Empirical Literature Review

The chapter focuses on the reports of other researchers who have previously conducted numerous scientific research related to issues of consideration in the present study. The study therefore presents a comprehensive pool of reliable findings or results, which are carefully collated from the existing related studies, by means of a thorough review of the relevant contemporary journals, upon which the present study forms its opinions.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

The chapter presents systematic processes and approaches which were adopted and applied in the study in designing the suitable research format; identifying the targeted population; determining the appropriate population sample size, the effective and efficient sampling techniques, standardized research instruments, and ethical procedures for data collection; and deciding the appropriate statistical instruments or tools.

Chapter 5: Presentation of Research Results

This chapter presents the results of statistical analysis of the data collected in tabular and diagrammatic forms based on the stated hypotheses. It further shows an inclusive interpretation of the results.

Chapter 6: Discussion of Results, Conclusions, Recommendations and Limitations of the Study

The chapter comprehensively debates the findings of the present investigation in the light of the findings of previous related studies, and elucidates more with the support of some of the similar findings that are presented in the chapter three of the study. The chapter further clarifies the meaning of each of the results that are presented and interpreted in chapter five of the study. It also presents the various submissions, in the form of conclusions that could be drawn from the present findings. Based on the discussions of the present study's findings and its conclusions, the study also suggests and recommends some effective and practical approaches that could be adopted and applied by managers, employers and other stakeholders in ensuring an effective management of the identified issues of interest in the present study, and finally indicates some areas for future research which the study did not cover.

1.11 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER ONE

First, the chapter introduced the research topic, and it provided the background of the study. Second, the chapter presented a comprehensive statement of the research problem, and it further highlighted the main and specific objectives of the study. Next, the chapter stated the research hypotheses, followed by the significance of the study. Besides, the chapter clearly showed the scope and boundaries of the study, and the ethical issues that were considered. Lastly, the chapter provided the structure of the thesis from the first chapter to the last.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND CONCEPTUAL LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a general overview of the existing academic, scholarly and philosophical literature on occupational stress, organisational citizenship behaviour, psychological capital and emotional intelligence. The chapter is divided into two sections. Section one of the chapter presents a comprehensive theoretical explanation of the relationship among the aforementioned variables by using the theory of conversation of resources. Section two of the chapter presents the conceptual literature on each of the variables of concern in the study from the points of view of the various experts that are recognized in the field of study.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.2.1 Conservation of Resources Theory

The Theory of Conservation of Resources was propounded by Hobfoll (1989). The theory is grounded on the basic *principles of conservation and acquisition*, which explain that individuals are interested in protecting their personal resources (i.e. conservation) and acquiring new resources (i.e. acquisition). According to Hobfoll (1988), resources are approximately characterized as assets, states, conditions, and different things that individuals esteem. From the fundamental *principles of conservation and acquisition* emerged the *assumptions of primacy of resource loss and resource investment.*

In explaining the *assumption of primacy of resource loss*, Hobfoll (1989) explains that it is psychologically more dangerous for a person to lose possessions than it is helpful for him or her

to recover the resources that are lost. On the other hand, the theory further clarifies the *assumption of resources investment* by explaining that people invest in resources for three basic reasons. First, the theory argues that people invest in personal resources so as to guard against loss of resources. Second, that individuals invest in resources in order to recuperate from losses. Third, the theory explained further that individuals tend to invest in their personal resources for them to gain more resources. Hobfoll (2001) also underlines the strength of conservation of resources theory as it goes beyond predictions of stress and strain to giving a comprehensive understanding of the motivation behind the abilities of individuals to cope with strenuous situations.

In view of the above presentation of conservation of resources theory, its basic principles and assumptions, the present study explains the moderating role of psychological capital and emotional intelligence in the association between work stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among graduate employees. First, the study relates resources to psychological capital as explained in the theory. Psychological capital is, composed of individuals' self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience. In the present study, individual graduate employees' personal resources are the aforementioned components of psychological capital, which they have developed over a period of time, perhaps in the course of their previous academic training and general experience of life. Psychological capital is, therefore, viewed as a prestigious personal asset that is possessed and protected by the graduate employees. They will even like to increase the present levels at which it has been possessed rather than losing it. Thus, the individual graduate employees would ensure that their levels of hope, expectations, flexibility and positivity are highly conserved. This corroborates with the assertions of the theory about the motive behind individuals' abilities in coping with strenuous situations.

Similarly, in applying the second basic principle – *acquisition* - to the present study, according to the theory of conservation of resources, it alludes to the capacity of a person to acquire new or more resources in addition to what he or she has already conserved. This in a way explains the concept of 'emotional intelligence'. Emotional intelligence is a personality trait that could be learnt or developed through learning processes, based on the perspective of behaviourism (Bandura, 1986; Bandura & Walters, 1963). This is related to the view of Hobfoll (1989), which explains that in addition to individuals' interest in protecting their personal resources, human beings also have a need to acquire new psychological resources. Thus, emotional intelligence is another form of desirable resource which could be acquired and developed to a reasonably high level by an employee, and it would positively influence his or her career functions as well as social relationships. Emotional intelligence could be acquired by employees through learning, training, experience, interaction with significant others in the environment, and through exposure to challenging situations such as job related duties and responsibilities that are meant to build their mental capacity.

Hence, both psychological capital and emotional intelligence serve as employee resources that could help them in adapting to work situations and job demands, and they are both regarded as moderators of the association between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. Thus, psychological capital and emotional intelligence are valuable personal assets or resources that are worthy of protection and investment by employees and employers.

In addition, the assumption of *primacy of resource* according to Hobfoll (1989) suggests that it is mentally more dangerous for a person to lose possessions than it is helpful for him or her to recover the resources that are lost. This assumption applies to the investigation of the

moderating role of psychological capital and emotional intelligence on occupational stress as it relates to organisational citizenship behaviour. Based on the assumption of primacy of resources, employees who possess low levels of self-confidence, resilience, optimism and hope, and at the same time are less intelligent emotionally, will easily lose their ability to cope with stressful work environments and, consequently, will fail in performing the mandatory in-role and voluntary extra-role functions in an organization. The implication of the perpetual existence of such occurrences among employees, if not quickly arrested by buffering the effect of the inherent work stress through intervention strategies that aim at increasing the levels of psychological capital and emotional intelligence, are hazardous to the collective objectives and goals of organisations.

Moreover, the assumption of resources investment, according to Hobfoll (2001), elucidates that individuals invest resources with specific end goals, i.e., to make preparations for asset misfortune, to recuperate from misfortunes, and to pick up possessions. This has more often than not been seen in the circumstances of adapting to occupational stress, proposing that adapting requires investment of assets to curtail resource losses in the future (Ito & Brotheridge, 2003; Vinokur & Schul, 2002). For instance, Halbesleben and Bowler (2007) examined the preservation of assets hypothesis to explain a motivating pattern of relationships between emotion, stress and employee performance such that emotional exhaustion prompted a lower in-role job performance, but a greater investment in organisational citizenship behaviours that were directed toward supervisors and coworkers.

Consequently, the model of conservation of resources highlights the significance of procuring, keeping up and encouraging sensible levels of psychological capital and emotional intelligence by graduate employees, for them to cope with their present work loads and extra-demands.

These qualities also help them guard to against the associated negative outcomes of occupational stress such as turnover behaviour, turnover intention, job dissatisfaction, burnout and poor job performance, and rather exhibit more desirable behaviour such as organisational citizenship behaviour, which is synonymous with employee performance, productivity and commitment. Hence, if an employee possesses, acquires and improves on his or her level of expectation, flexibility, positivity and self-confidence, these combined with a reasonable amount of emotional intelligence will make it easier for him or her to cope with the physical and emotional stressors that are inherently associated with his or her job. They will also enable the employee to help his or her subordinates in performing their tasks satisfactorily and, consequently, will lead to organisational effectiveness.

2.3 CONCEPTUAL LITERATURE

2.3.1 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

2.3.1.1 Origin of organizational citizenship behaviour

The phrase "organisational citizenship behaviour" is derived from the Latin word "Otix", which implies moral, and from the Greek word "Otos" that means personal characteristic or custom (Parveen, 2012). Generally, the development of the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour is accredited to the work of Professor Dennis Organ. According to Karolidis (2016), Organ had initially described organisational citizenship behavour as a concept that depicts an employee's interest in tasks that are optional, and those tasks that are not specifically or unequivocally perceived by the formal reward framework, but which promote the effective functioning of the organization. It was further clarified that Organ primarily identified three fundamental characteristics ("not job role demand", "not in the range of performance appraisal", and "beneficial to organisational function") of organisational citizenship behaviour.

However, Bhatla (2016) states that about a half century before Professor Organ conceptualized the phenomenon of organisational citizenship behaviour, Chester Bernard had earlier reported in his first publication that the willingness of an employee to contribute his or her supportive efforts to the business was vital to effective accomplishment of organisational objectives. It was further stated that individuals differ in their willingness to contribute to the organisation, and also that the individual differences in behaviour cannot be explained by differences in ability. Similarly, Ahmed and Khan (2016) report that the incentives to motivate spontaneous and informal contributions are different from those that motivate task proficiency. Attention was also given to the idea of employees' extra-role behaviours, and note that employees at times voluntarily contribute extra efforts for the achievement of the organisational outcomes. Professor Dennis Organ based his construct 'organisational citizenship behaviour' on the philosophy of Chester Barnard. These insights prompted much of the subsequent research in the area.

The first empirical measure of organisational citizenship behaviour was constructed by Smith, Organ and Near (1983), which includes helping and compliance subscales. This prompted researchers, most especially in organisational or industrial psychology, to investigate further on the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour. Regardless of the increase of research on organisational citizenship behaviour, debates continued over the years concerning the basis of the construct. In any case, a recognizing highlight is that supervisors cannot demand or constrian their subordinates to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour, and the employees do not or cannot expect any sort of formal prizes for these optional practices. However, Organ (1997) has earlier reported that supervisors do consistently consider and remunerate (preferential treatment, performance ratings and promotions) organisational citizenship behaviour which is exhibited by their subordinates, both directly and indirectly. An essential

declaration, therefore, which is prominent in Organ (1988) is that organisational citizenship behaviour is often internally driven, emerging from inside and maintained by a person's inherent desire for a feeling of accomplishment, capability, having a place or affiliation.

Organ contends that organisational citizenship behaviour is different from the related construct of organisational commitment, which was developed by organisational scholars. In order to buttress the view of Professor Dennis Organ, Jahangir, Akbar and Haq (2004) state that though organisational citizenship behaviour may be empirically related to organisational commitment, it is imperative to stress that organisational citizenship behaviour refers to a specific class of employee behaviours, while organisational commitment is essentially attitude-based. The unique contribution of Organ, therefore, was the identification of a class of employee work behaviours, which Organ categorized as organisational citizenship behaviours, and whose relationship with job satisfaction, among other organisational variables, might be meaningfully examined in the search for practically significant workplace behaviours that are related to employee job attitudes.

2.3.1.2 Meaning of organisational citizenship behaviour

Organizational citizenship behavour is described as an extra-role behaviour, and explained as not a job responsibility which is obligatory in terms of the formal employment contract, but it comprises of a number of informal supportive behaviours of employees. Bateman and Organ (1983) explain further that organisational citizenship behaviour is composed of behaviours that are under the employees' control, though not explicitly stated by the employer, but they improve the efficiency and effectiveness of corporate's performance. However, Organ (1988) provides a multifaceted definition of organisational citizenship behaviour, which is composed of *Altruism*: helping subordinates to adapt to their individual organisationally assigned tasks in an

uncommon situation; *Conscientiousness:* to perform organisationally assigned responsibilities in a way that is beyond the expectation; *Sportsmanship:* stresses the dynamic parts of the organization as opposed to the undesirable parts; *Civic virtue:* involves assisting the administrative operations of the organization; and *Courtesy:* brainstorming with subordinates before acting, notifying before actions and information exchange.

Based on the multifaceted perspective, and in view of the aforementioned components of the construct, organisational citizenship behaviour is defined as a positive behaviour that goes beyond the formal requirements of the job but promotes effective functioning of the organisation, improves employees' task performance by freeing up resources, helps to coordinate activities between employees and uplifts coworker productivity (Organ, 1988). Organ (1997) later improved on the earlier given definition of organisational citizenship behaviour, and reconsidered the concept as a contextual performance similar to Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) perspective about the construct. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) define organisational citizenship behaviour as a set of supportive behaviours, which are usually exhibited by some employees in the organization in order to foster the broader organisational, social, and psychological environment by volunteering oneself for activities that past an individual's formal role expectations, steadiness of energy to finish vital assignment necessities, help to others, the following of rules and, finally, through the defence of the organisation objectives.

Borman, Penner, Allen, and Motowidlo (2001) conclude that organisational citizenship behaviour includes the contributions of employees to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological contexts, which support task performance. However, Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Pain and Bachrach (2000) provide a wider scope of organisational citizenship behaviour that is composed of personal innovation, sportsmanship, civic virtue, self-satisfaction,

personal development, helping behaviours and organisational commitment. Similarly, Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (2006) came up with another revision of the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour, one which emphasises the optional nature of the phenomenon, and defines it as the optional commitments that go past the strict portrayal, and that do not make a case for legally binding reward from the formal reward framework (Karolidis, 2016).

Altruim refers to voluntary actions that help another person with a work problem, such as instructing a new employee on how to use equipments, helping a co-worker to catch up with a backlog of work or fetching materials that a collegue needs and cannot get on his or her own. *Courtesy* refers to all those foresighted gestures that help someone else to prevent a problem, such as keeping others informed of decisions and actions that may affect them. *Civic virtue* means responsible constructive involvements in the political processes of an organisation, including not just expressing opinions, but also reading mails, attending meetings and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organisation. *Consciousness* implies a behavioural partnership of going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality and resources of the organisations. Sportmanship explains the spirit of friendship among employees and the existing friendly social environment in the organisations.

According to Karolodis (2016), the advantages of the above revised definition of organisational citizenship behaviour by Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (2006) is that: (a) it keeps up the difference that has exactly been demonstrated to exist between task execution and organisational citizenship behaviour, (b) it is more consistent with Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) definition of contextual performance, and (c) it stays away from a portion of the challenge of reviewing organisational citizenship behaviours as optional behaviour for which an employee might not obtain official rewards.

Since Organ's imaginative conception of the concept of organisational citizenship behaviour, several other scholars have explained the phenomenon, utilizing phenomena such as contextual performance, extra-role behaviour, organisational spontaneity and pro-social organisational behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Those behaviours are usually considered as organisational citizenship behaviour, which, although are not compulsory by the organisation, if exhibited by employees will be advantageous to the organisation (Farzianpour, Foroushani, Kamjoo & Hosseini, 2011; Khurana, Singh & Khandelwal, 2014).

For instance, Brief and Motowidlo (1986) explains pro-social organisational behaviour as a behaviour, which is performed by a member of an organization, directed towards an individual, group, or organisation with whom he or she interacts while discharging his or her organisational duties, and performed with the expectation of advancing the welfare of the person, group, or organization toward which it is directed. George and Brief (1992) describe organisational spontaneity so as to include behaviours such as helping co-employees, defending the organisation, making valuable proposals, developing oneself, and spreading altruism. Contextual performance according to Motowidlo and Schmit (1999) includes behaviours that contribute to the culture and climate of the organisation such as opting for additional work, continuing with eagerness, helping and participating with others, following standards and systems, and supporting or protecting the organisation. Extra-role behaviour is defined by VanDyne and LePine (1998) as a behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation or is intended to benefit the organisation.

The subsequent research opposed the discretionary aspect of the definition of organisational citizenship behaviour. For instance, Morrison (1994) reports that organisational citizenship

behaviour was not consistently perceived as "extra-role", and in fact employees who considered it "in-role" exhibited more of it. Since this would mean that organisational citizenship behaviour could in some cases be expected by supervisors and co-workers, formal recognition and reward becomes possible, yet it is still considered distinct from task performance because it is not explicitly linked to any formal job requirement or reward (Pickford & Joy, 2016).

Nevertheless, employees can be aware of the opportunities from organisational citizenship behaviour, an idea that integrate into their definition from the perspective of the person's motivation, i.e. people are motivated to select behaviours that give them the best opportunity to achieve their future goals with respect to work, which often manifests as organisational citizenship behaviours. Examples of behaviours that are exhibited towards co-workers according to Pickford and Joy (2016), include giving lifts home, suggesting ways to improve a colleague's work, or even loading paper into the communal printer. Organisational citizenship behaviours that are directed towards the organisation as a whole include helping to recruit appropriate people to specific tasks, making suggestions to improve the workplace facilities, or doing unpaid overtime work.

2.3.1.3 Dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour

According to Behtooee (2016), there is no fixed agreement among scholars in the field of organisational citizenship behaviour concerning the dimensions of the construct. The variations that were observed in the meaning and dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour may be as a result of differences in culture. It might be interpreted otherwise in different social contexts, given that what it means to be a "good citizen" may vary from nation to nation, particularly for those from the East and the West (Abd-Allah, 2016). For instance, a certain

helping behaviour that is exhibited by an individual may be recognised and appreciated in some contexts, and it may be understood in different ways, or it may be interpreted as motive-based, such as ingratiation, and probably cause unexpected troubles in interpersonal relationships at the workplace in some other cultures (Wang, 2015).

Williams and Anderson (1991) categorized organisational citizenship behaviour into two classes based on the target beneficiary: organisational citizenship behaviours towards individuals such as the supervisor, subordinates and colleagues, and organisational citizenship behaviours toward organisation, such as those related behaviours that are performed for the betterment of the organisation. Organisational citizenship behaviours towards the organisation (OCBO) refer to the helping-behaviour which focuses on the organization as a whole. Examples include when an employee volunteers to perform additional tasks as needed at a given time, or helps to organize informative gatherings on topics that are relevant to all employees (Williams & Anderson, 1991). On the other hand, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCBI) implies helping-behaviour that is exhibited towards individual colleagues. An example of OCBI is employees who volunteer to help their co-employees who are absent from work or employees who are helping their subordinates to cope with work-related challenges (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Furthermore, Ahmed and Khan (2016) report that the OCBI category includes altruism, maintenance of peace, and cheerfulness behaviours with intentions to assist others, while the OCBO category is composed of conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship as identified by Organ (1988) as well as organisational allegiance (Graham, 1991), endorsement and commitment to the organisation's objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997), job dedication (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), and promoting the

company image (Farh, Zhong & Organ, 2004). Additional concrete examples of OCBI, according to Ahmed and Khan (2016), are voluntarily assisting a newly employed staff member to access the organization's finance framework and praising a kindred employee on a new promotion. Similarly, offering a new idea to management on how the payroll process might be improved, and attending optional company meetings, are examples of OCBO (Ahmed & Khan, 2016).

Likewise, Parveen (2012) reports in his review of literature on organisational citizenship behaviour, a four-dimension model that consists of individual initiative, interpersonal helping, personal industry, and loyal boosterism behaviours. Interpersonal helping behaviour, according to Parveen (2012), involves assisting co-employees in their jobs when they need help. Individual initiative behaviour implies communicating with other employees in the workplace in order to improve individual and group performances (Parveen, 2012). Personal industry relates to the performance of specific jobs far in excess of what was required, while loyal boosterism includes the promotion of the organisational image to outsiders (Parveen, 2012).

However, the most notable themes of organisational citizenship behaviour are the five (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) that were earlier identified by Organ (1988), and which are commonly referred to by scholars in the field (Behtooee, 2016). Though, in the meta-analysis of literature on organisational citizenship behaviour, which was conducted by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000), researchers identified about thirty different types of organisational citizenship behaviour. Nevertheless, prior to that study, a range of taxonomies were proposed to classify the behaviours that were identified as organisational citizenship (Van Dyne & Le Pine, 1998). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) advanced the taxonomy, and integrated the propositions of other scholars

such as Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie. It consists of seven types of organisational citizenship behaviour, which are helping, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development (Spik, 2016).

Helping behaviour, according to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000), is a type of organisational citizenship behaviour, which is similar to altruism. Such behaviour involves voluntarily helping co-employees in solving work-related problems. It includes acts that improve morale, encourage, cooperation, and build and preserve good relationships in the workplace. *Sportsmanship* on the other hand involves bearing burdens and work difficulties without grumbling, being willing to relinquish individual enthusiasm for the benefit of the work group, while *organisational loyalty* encompasses promoting the company's image, remaining committed even under adverse conditions, defending an organization against external threats.

Organisational compliance, fourth on the list, is a type of organisational citizenship behaviour that comprises all behaviours related to observing organisational rules and procedures, complying with organisational values, respect for authority, conscientiousness, meeting deadlines. *Individual initiative,* on the other hand, is the act of trying to discover approaches to enhance person, group or organisational functioning including: voluntarily suggesting organisational improvements, demonstrations of imagination and development intended to improve one's tasks, while *civic virtue* implies responsible and useful contribution in the political procedure of the organisation. It includes: attending non-obligatory meetings, sharing informed opinions with others, being willing to deliver bad news if it is necessary for the good of the organisation, and keeping abreast of different issues concerning the organisation.

The last on the list of seven dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour is *self-development*, which stands for self-training, and searching out and exploiting advanced instructional courses. It also involves keeping abreast of the latest development in one's field, and learning new kinds of skills so as to expand the range of one's contribution to an organization. However, DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) stress that there are not seven, not five or even two separate dimensions of the construct that matter, but rather that one dimension captures all aspects of organisational citizenship behaviour. In other words, both benefits to the organization (helping the organization) and benefits to the individual (helping individuals) are combined into a single, bipolar construct.

2.3.2 Occupational Stress

2.3.2.1 Origin of stress

The word 'stress' originates from the Latin word *stringere*, which means to pull tight, and it was used to describe suffering or infirmity (Mansou & Elmorsey, 2016). According to Prasad, Vaidya, Kumar and Rekha (2016), the concept of stress was first introduced in the year 1936, by Hans Seyle, an Austrian born endocrinologist. The term 'stress' was later adopted by life scientists, physicists and psychologists (Bamba, 2016).

In physics, stress is synonymous which pressure, and both can be used interchangeably. Though at times stress and pressure may attract different meanings, the application or usage depends on contextual situations. Psychologically, human beings are motivated to fight the stressors that are acting upon them like other physical objects (Bamba, 2016). Pressure, though, has a positive denotation. It helps in improving performance. Stress can, therefore, be positively and negatively termed. Stress occurs as a result of the interaction between a person

and the environment that produces emotional strain, which in turn affects a person's physical and mental condition (Ekienabor, 2016). Furthermore, stressors are antecedents of stress, and they are events or activities that create a state of disequilibrium within an individual. Stress could result in an outward situation that may cause physical, psychological and behavioural changes in human beings (Prasad, Vaidya, Kumar & Rekha, 2016). However, stress can be related to both enjoyable and unfriendly events, but it becomes challenging once it remains unsolved (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2006). In other words, not all forms of stress are dysfunctional.

Generally, stress according to Shazia and Munazza (2011), is a situation in which factors interact with an individual to change his/her psychological and physiological conditions, such that the individual is compelled to digress from normal functioning. It is the response of persons to demands (stressors) which are imposed upon them, where the well-being of the persons is adversely influenced by their inability to adapt to the demands.

The sources of occupational stress in particular, are numerous. Some of the stressors are inherent to the job. Some are identified with the employee's job position in the organisation, some to professional growth, some to associations at work, and some to the structure and climate of the organisation. Mahiri and Orwa (2016) report six broad sources of occupational stress, which include personal factors, external environment, work relationships, job characteristics, domestic factors and organisational factors, while Ekienabor (2016) specified the causes of occupational stress as follows: unclear job descriptions, lack of communication, complexity of tasks, feelings of inadequacy and insecurity, bad personal relationships, quality and poor time management, and inability to get things done.

In view of Mahiri and Orwa's (2016) proposition concerning the sources of occupational stress, the external environmental factors include the arrival of new technology, economic situations, political changes and competitiveness, while the context of job characteristics include intrinsic job demands. The organisational factors that could cause stress include career development, organisational structure, management styles, culture and role conflicts. Work relationships are among the causes of stress. They include relationships with supervisors and colleagues. Furthermore, Mahiri and Orwa (2016) identified domestic issues such as home life, and personal factors such as level of a person's tolerance for ambiguity as among the causes of occupational stress.

In the same vein, modernization, urbanization, globalization and liberalization, which resulted in stiff competition could also increase the level of stress that is experienced by employees (Prasad, Vaidya, Kumar & Rekha, 2016). According to Sumathi and Nandagopal (2015), the common sources of occupational stress are the official duties, responsibilities, assignments and the work environment of the employees, which may result in psychological reactions such as distress and illness. Precisely, occupational stress is caused due to jobs where the assignments and work environment of the employees result in psychological reactions, distress and illness (Sumathi & Nandagopal, 2015).

Similarly, Shazia and Munazza (2011) believe that stressful jobs could be classified either as exogenous (unfavourable work-related conditions, extreme workload and absence of cooperation) or endogenous burdens (individual identity characteristics). From the perspective of Priyanka (2015), it is believed that individuals' reactions to stressors vary. Yet, stressors remain a major source of psychological and medical problems, which people are experiencing

at the present time (Priyanka, 2015). Hence, an employee's reaction to occupational stress could either be mental, physical or both (Santos & Cox, 2000).

Though stress hurts individuals in a few ways, Prasad, Vaidya, Kumar and Rekha (2016) explained that it is not every one of the stressors that are unhelpful in nature. A reasonable amount of stress can really activate one's passion for work, taps the dormant abilities and even kindles motivations. In other words, stress is not intrinsically dreadful, while a constrained measure of stress joined with fitting responses truly can profit both the employee and the organisation (Shazia & Munazza, 2011).

2.3.2.2 Meaning of occupational stress

Occupational stress is a holistic transaction among a career holder, a stressor (the profession) and the work environment, resulting in a stress response (Mahiri & Orwa, 2016). Occupational stress is the stress that is experienced from a job, and it is inevitable for the employees, because the contemporary world of work is becoming a stress enterprise for most employees (Prasad, Vaidya, Kumar & Rekha, 2016). Furthermore, Lazarus (1991) opines that work stress is a process that involves a transaction between an employee and the workplace.

According to Kendall, Murphy, O'Neill and Bursnall (2000), the concepts 'occupational stress', 'job stress' and 'work stress' are interchangeably applied in the literature and across many fields or disciplines. Occupational stress is defined by Humphrey (1998) as a phenomenon that explains an incompatibility between an employee and the workplace. Specifically, the concept of occupational stress is described by NIOSH (1999) as the injurious physical and emotional responses, which happen when a job's prerequisites do not correspond with the abilities, resources, or needs of an employee.

Similarly, Bamba (2016) defines occupational stress as a mental or emotional state that is perceived by a career person when he or she is faced with certain levels of demands, constraints or opportunities that have important but uncertain outcomes. The definition of occupational stress clarifies further that it is very much an individual reaction, which differs from general stress because it is mainly a professional, organisational and job related issue. Though everybody expresses a reaction to strain, responses differ distinctly across individuals. Even at a biological level, when a person is challenged by a major stressor, some individuals experience a fast upsurge in heart rate while others sense tension in the stomach or strain headaches (Shazia & Munazza, 2011). Schuler (1980) earlier defined and conceptualized occupational stress as a dynamic condition at the place of work, where an employee is challenged with a prospect, demand or resource connected to what an employer desires, and for which the consequence is observed to be both indeterminate and significant.

Moreover, Topper (2007) defined occupational stress as the awareness of a job holder of an inconsistency between the situational demands and his or her capabilities to fill these demands. Still, it is an indicator of high level burnout, poor work performance and career dissatisfaction among the employees (Prasad, Vaidya & Anil Kumar, 2015). Occupational stress is also an environmental factor or stressor such as work overload, role conflict, role ambiguity, and poor working conditions that is associated with a particular official assignment or job (Prasad, Vaidya & Kumar, 2016). Occupational stress is a form of emotional, cognitive, behavioural and physiological responses to adverse and harmful aspects of work content, work organisation and work environment (European Commission, 1999).

According to Shukla and Srivastava (2016), another form of occupational stress is the term 'occupational role stress', which refers to the stress that is perceived by employees as a result of their roles (jobs) in the formal organisation. However, occupational stress, mainly, is the failure of an employee to cope with the burdens in his or her profession (Shazia & Munazza, 2011). It also refers to a psychological and bodily condition that has a negative consequence on employees' efficiency, productivity, individual wellness and value of work.

Mansour and Elmorsey (2016) believe that the level of perceived occupational stress varies across professions or jobs, as some are extremely perilous and stressful compared with. Some occupations threaten an employee's life in the areas of work safety and work-related accidents. For instance, IT profession (Bolhari, Rezaeian, Bolhari & Bairamzadeh, 2012), nurses (Rickard, Lenthall, Dollard, Opie, Knight, Dunn, Wakerman, MacLeod, Seiler & Brewster-Webb, 2012), building project experts (Bowen, Edwards, Lingard & Cattell, 2014), police officers (Ma, Andrew, Fekedulegn, Gu, Hartley, Charles, Violanti & Burchfiel, 2015), bank employees (Manea, Salceanu, Chiper & Chiper, 2013), military officers (Sharma, 2015), teachers (Keshavarz & Mohammadi, 2011; Alexandrache, 2015), and so on are in the strenuous occupations group.

2.3.2.3 Symptoms of occupational stress

There are several symptoms that could be manifested by employees who experience work related stress. The symptoms of occupational stress are better understood under the following categories: physical, psychological and behavioural symptoms (Nalini & Razia, 2016). The most common physical symptom is headache, for the reason that stress causes people instinctively tense their necks, foreheads and shoulder muscles (Mahiri & Orwa, 2016; Shazia & Munazza, 2011). Other common physical sicknesses are insomnia, increased blood pressure, fatigue, ulcers, and digestive and heart disorders (Shazia & Munazza, 2011). In addition, injuries,

cardiovascular diseases, high cholesterol, skin rashes, high blood sugar, suppressed immune system, marked decline in personal appearance, quick and fiery temper, nervousness, strokes, hair loss, excessive sweating, and general withdrawal from social activities are among the identified physical signs of occupational stress.

Psychologically, the signs of occupational stress that are mostly displayed by the affected individuals are conceptualized as anxiety, frustration, irritability, an absence of attentiveness for any duty, anger, over-response to everyday issues, depression, dementia (Nalini & Razia, 2016). Other psychological symptoms of occupational stress include withdrawal from society, lack of caution and dismissing of social standards and qualities, distress, phobias, compulsive behaviours, dissatisfaction with one's job and life, eating disorders, passiveness or aggressiveness, night terrors, boredom, a person becoming unnecessarily over emotional, loss of self-assurance and self-worth, aggressive in conflict situations, feelings of futility, inability to make decisions, lose of contact with realities, and emotional weariness.

Relatively, the commonly described behavioural symptoms of occupational stress, which may as well be regarded as its consequences, include job dissatisfaction, sleeplessness, alienation, lower motivation, high turnover rate, low employee morale, work related accidents, occupational burnout, less organisational commitment, changes in eating habits, diminished general quality of work-life, indulge in excesses like increased smoking and drug intake, absenteeism, turnover intention, lowered number and value of job completed, and lose of sense of judgement (Nalini & Razia, 2016; Mahiri & Orwa, 2016; Shazia & Munazza, 2011). According to the Canadian Union of Public Employees (2003), occupational stress upsurges metabolism, and reduces protein production cholesterol measure. Other physical symptoms of occupational stress include excessive stimulation of sweat on the body, high level of fats in the blood, synthesis of acids in

stomach, high blood pressure, recurring muscular tension, and impaired immune system. In addition, it was reported that stress likewise facilitates neck, chest, back, and shoulder pains, apathy, diabetes, headaches, weight complaints, depression, social crises, and menstrual and sexual difficulties.

Similarly, Bickford (2005) describes the physiological responses to stress as high rate of metabolism, stomach acidity, slow rate of protein formation, high cholesterol level, more fats in blood, body swelling, rapid coagulation of blood, low activity of the digestive and immune systems, quicker degree of blood sugar production and high blood pressure. WHO (2004) further asserts that occupational stress at an extreme level leads to psychological disorders, which in turn could result in frequent employee absenteeism. It poorly affects a job and the personal life of the job holder while the immune system of the affected individual is negatively influenced.

2.3.3 Psychological Capital

2.3.3.1 Origin of psychological capital

Psychological capital is a phenomenon that emanates from a relatively new sub-field of psychology called positive psychology. Research in the field of positive psychology commenced about 15 years ago while the notions of positive psychology reveals the leading philosophy of positivism, which emphasises the need to "think positive" to be happy and healthy (McGee, 2011). Luthans et al. (2007) built on the aforementioned notion and proposed positive organisational behaviour, which focuses on positive feelings and thought in general, and on the sub-concepts of optimism, hope confidence/self-efficacy and resilience.

Furthermore, as an alternative to traditional psychology that focused on the undesirable features of human condition, investigation in positive psychology places emphasis on what is worthy in individuals, and what is making individuals more productive (Rego, Lopes & Nascimento, 2016). Scientific investigations in the area later inspired the arrival of two different aspects of positive psychology (positive organisational scholarship, and positive organisational behaviour), and in turn, reinforced positivity and management based on the strengths of the organisation (Mills, Fleck & Kozikowski, 2013).

According to Lorenz (2016), positive organisational scholarship is a theoretical framework for incorporating positive psychology investigation into institutions. It is described as the investigation of that which is positive, prosperous, and life enhancing in establishments (Lorenz, 2016). Positive explains the procedure of inspiring results in establishments (Lorenz, 2016). Its scope covers a wide range of areas and phenomena that exist in institutional sceneries such as optimistic leadership and change, encouraging affairs, and positive human resource practices, and it is even increasing to sustainability (Hoffman & Haigh, 2012) and economic models (Godfrey, 2012). Luthans and Youssef (2007) state that positive organisational scholarship concentrates on the macro-level (the organisation itself).

On the other hand, positive organisational behaviour concentrates on the individuals from an organisational point of view (Lorenz, 2016). It sets its attention on the behaviour of individuals (Luthans, 2002), and it is described as the examination and use of emphatically arranged human assets and psychological abilities that can be measured, developed, and managed effectively to improve performance at work. Thus, for a variable to be included in positive organisational behaviour, it must be positive, valid in measurement and have a theoretical foundation. The classical variable that is related to positive organisational behaviour is

psychological capital (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2006). Hence, Luthans and Youssef (2007) understand the emphasis of positive organisational scholarship on the macro-level, and view positive organisation behaviour as concentrating on the micro-level (the individuals in organisations).

Moreover, Lopes (2013) believes that positive organisational scholarship has a more stable behaviour and psychological characteristics which are part of the positive virtues, while positive organisational behaviour is argued to be the behavioural characteristics that must be perceived primarily as a consequence of positive psychological states. In other words, positive organisational scholarship and positive organisational behaviour represent separate ethical expectations, since both point to diverse constituents of reality as an important component in clarifying the positive behaviours. Meanwhile, positive organisational behaviour places emphasis on the individual level and examines the various forces, and positive psychological capacities that can be measured and evaluated while positive organisational scholarship aims at the perspective of desirable outcomes in productivity, which results in improved organisational performance. Figure 2.1 below shows the relationship between positive organisational scholarship and positive organisational behaviour.
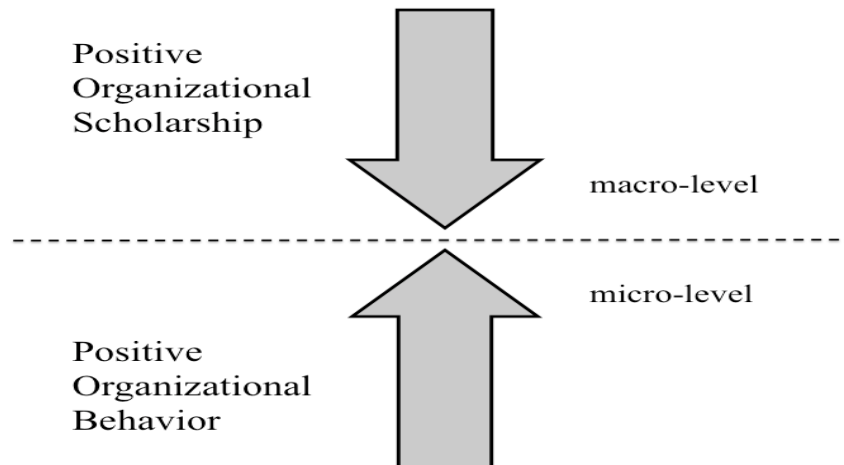
Figure 2.1 Model depicting the relationship between positive organisational scholarship and positive organisational behaviour by Luthans & Youssef (2007)

In addition, the drive of positive psychology is to remedy the worst aspects of an individual's life, and also to develop desirable virtues (Lopes, 2013). It does this by studying the capacities and qualities that enable persons and communities to flourish. Again, positive psychology as a science of positive individual characters, positive personal experience and positive organisations assures an improved value of life, and avoids the problems that occur when life is not palatable (Ziyae, Mobaraki & Saeediyoun, 2015).

However, psychological capital is not psychological states like emotion that transform in temporary situations, and nor are they traits that are permanent; rather, they are state-like abilities and are relatively flexible (Goertzen & Whitaker, 2015). As a consequence of the research in the fields of positive organisational behaviour investigations, the concept of psychological capital came into existence (Maymand & Moghadam, 2016).

Besides, psychological capital derives its foundation from theories that were built in areas of work inspiration (Stajkovic, 2006), positive psychology (Lopez & Snyder, 2009), Bandura's social cognition (1986, 1997) and the agentic perspective (2008). In view of the theories, psychological capital has been described as comprising of four positive psychological assets, (optimism, resilience, hope and self-efficacy). Jointly, the four aforementioned state-like traits form an upper-level essential concept (psychological capital), which has a impressive theory and research history that adds to the improvement of an integrative hypothetical establishment of psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2007).

The main facts about psychological capital are: it is grounded on the positive psychology model; it includes psychological states that are built on positive conduct; it goes past human capital (what you know) and social nextwork or capital (who you know) to 'who you are' (Luthans et al., 2007).

2.3.3.2 Meaning of psychological capital

The term 'psychological capital' (PsyCap) is a composite construct that is defined as "a person's positive mental state of improvement, which is described by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the needed effort so as to prosper at challenging responsibilities; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) determining toward goals and, when necessary, diverting ways to objectives (hope) with a specific end goal to succeed; and (4) when affected by issues and afflictions, managing, enduring and even going past (resilience) to reach success". According to Aliyev and Tunc (2015), psychological capital is a collection of abilities such as self-efficacy, optimism and

endurance that are open to improvement, and it implies more than the collection of the aforementioned skills.

Specifically, capital signifies the quality of individuals' assets (human capital) as well as in connection with other constructs such as social capital, cultural capital and intellectual capital (Amunkete, 2015). The term 'psychological capital' also denotes individual motivational inclinations that accumulate through desirable psychological concepts such as optimism, resilience, hope and efficacy (Luthans et al., 2007). Besides, psychological capital is recognized in the situation of a venture in psychic resources that results in getting realistic incentives from the current moment while also brightening the prospect of future benefits. It is about the condition of the segment of an individual's inner life. Similarly, Peterson, Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa and Zhang (2011) describe psychological capital as a common fundamental aptitude that is essential to motivation, performance in the workplace, striving for success, and cognitive processing.

Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa and Li (2005) define psychological capital as a central behavioural factor of positivity in general, and standards meeting conditions in particular that extend further than human capital and social network, to achieve a modest benefit by developing 'who you are now', and nurturing 'who you can become' in the immediate future. Furthermore, psychological capital can be differentiated from other kinds of human-related capital such as a person's stock of knowledge, aptitudes and capacities that can be expanded by understanding or venturing into training and learning (Lorenz et al., 2016) and social capital, which implies the collection of the definite or prospective capitals that are related to the ownership of a strong network of associations (Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu & Hirst, 2014).

2.3.3.3 Components of psychological capital

Psychological capital is a compound concept that consists of hope, resilience, self-efficacy and optimism. Thus, collectively, hope, resilience, self-efficacy and optimism formed the concept of psychological capital. In other words, the four integral components of psychological capital are hope, resilience, self-efficacy and optimism (Luthans et al., 2007). Self-efficacy describes individuals' appraisal of their ability, confidence, capability or personal resources to perform or complete given tasks (Huong, 2016). Moreover, Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) refer to self-efficacy as a person's belief about his/her mental ability, drive and forces that are essential to successfully implement a given assignment within a specific context.

Specifically, Luthans et al. (2007) described self-efficacy as having the self-assurance to assume, and exert the required efforts to succeed in difficult professions. It is developed based on the theory of social cognition, which was propounded by Bandura (1997). Self-efficiency is not similar to the other three sub-constructs (hope, optimism and resilience) of psychological capital. It is believed that self-efficacy could be improved through four specific approaches. First, it is believed that when a person is successful at overcoming a particular challenge, he or she will be more confident. Thus, the task mastery gives more self-assurance and aptitude to execute the next difficult tasks. Second, self-efficacy can be improved through a vicarious learning process, by observing significant others and imitating them. It implies that when an important person achieves a success in a specific task, the observing person can upsurge his or her confidence in following such a model. Third, the individuals who have earned another person's regard might be affected by his or her confidence in order to gain more buoyancy. For instance, if followers receive a positive comment from their leaders whom they hold in high esteem, they will have more assurance in accomplishing a given task. Fourth, personal confidence can be built by a caring attitude. For example, when a leader provides psychological

support and cares for or appreciates his or her subordinates, in order to strengthen their existing relationship and improve performance.

Hope, being one of the integral parts of psychological capital, is defined by Snyder, Sympson, Ybasco, Borders, Babyak and Higgins (1996) as a state of positive motivation that is generated by initiating a sense of success, which includes two components: agency (objective coordinated vitality or 'self-control') and pathways (intending to meet objectives or 'way control'). Luthans, Norman, Avolio, and Avey (2008) describe hope as the determination of employees in moving towards achieving organisational objectives, besides the ability of individuals to advance paths in achieving goals when required. Moreover, it signifies the investment of the efforts of the persons that are working toward the attainment of set goals (Malone, 2010).

However, Avey, Luthans, and Jenes's (2009) theory of hope incorporates three fundamental components: goals, paths and power. Pathways according to Huong (2016) represent a person's aptitude to plan strategies of achieving desirable goals while agency denotes a person's perceived capability in applying such strategies as pathways to reach the anticipated goals. Moreover, the aim of agency is to inspire individuals to generate a positive energy in archieving the given tasks while pathways is considered to be an avenue of reaching their objectives or to succeed at a given task. According to Snyder et al. (1996), agency and pathways cannot function separately; both operate interdependently to accomplish a specific task. It therefore implies that an individual who is highly hopeful can generate multiple pathways to attain a specific target.

Resilience, being the third component of psychological capital, is defined by Huong (2016), as a positively adaptable capability of an individual, which helps him or her to quickly recover from

the effects of adverseity, uncertainty or a failure situation. In other words, a resilient individual might be more compelling in an extensive variety of life exercises and negative occasions. Mills et al. (2013) defined resilience as the ability to bob over from disappointment and adversity, while Kappagoda, Othman and De Alwis (2014) describe resilience as a positive force that is applicable in countering undesirable events. In applying to the organisational scenario, Luthans and Youssef (2004) refer to resilience as the positive psychological power of an employee to come back to an ordinary or natural state after a period of difficulty.

Furthermore, it represents the development of good adaptation in the workplace, and plays an important role in healthy adaptations particularly to difficult life occasions (Durrah, Al-Tobasi, A'aqoulah, & Ahmad, 2016). As a positive state, resiliency can be developed by imitating responses in not only adverse, but also on extremely positive occasions (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2012). Besides, resilience can be enhanced by exhibiting and maintaining a positive emotion during the time of disappointment or negative events. Hence, highly resilient individuals who usually recover well and quickly after adverse occasions are completely dissimilar from those who perpetually stay bothered, and find it tough to push forward (Luthans et al., 2010). There are three main ideologies of resilience: coherence, connectedness and control (Enzi & Ibrahim, 2012). It is also characterized by improvisation, objectivity, adaptation, deep faith and realism (Meng, Qi & Li, 2011).

Lastly, optimism, the fourth component of psychological capital is described as the propensity of an individual to keep up an uplifting viewpoint towards the future regardless of the present situation (Schneider, 2001). Literally, an optimist is an individual who anticipates good things while a pessimist is an opposite individual who imagines evil things to occur (Durrah, Al-Tobasi, A'aqoulah & Ahmad, 2016). Similarly, Peterson (2000) defined optimism as a self-regulating

action that is exhibited by a goal getter in a bid to achieve his or her target. The psychological state of optimism describes an explanatory style of the cause of behaviour that mostly attributes positive events as originating from personality while the cause of negative events is usually attributed to external factors (Millard, 2011).

According to Avey, Luthans and Pigeon (2010), an optimist believes that positive events occur, because of their own attitude and behaviours. In other words, the optimists are the individuals who dependably expect great things will come to them. Moreover, optimists are believed to be individuals who are internally stable (Seligman, 1998). Schneider (2001) suggested that employees with a great level of optimism, particularly, realistic optimism, may increase their performance in work. Realistic optimism involves the process of improving and concentrating on the favourable aspects of individuals' experiences. It thus describes a scientific assessment of resource to complete a given task. Carver and Scheier (2002) also explained that highly rated optimists can advance efforts, even when facing an enduring difficult or challenging experience. Hence, to an optimist, he or she rarely nurture failures, and all undesirable results of an action seem to be a challenge and a prospect to improve and aim at better results.

Consequently, in spite of any situation, an individual's positive expectation could be enhanced and developed (Durrah, Al-Tobasi, A'aqoulah & Ahmad, 2016). Meanwhile, development of optimism cuts across three areas. It can be developed in tolerance toward the past. It can also be developed in valuation and estimating the present. Individuals can also develop optimism by focusing on the future (Durrah et al., 2016).

2.3.4 Emotional Intelligence

2.3.4.1 Origin of emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence has its root in the construct of social intelligence, which was first presented by Edward Thorndike in 1920. Actually, intelligence and emotion are two different phenomena, which had been investigated distinctly before the introduction of the concept of emotional intelligence in contexts in 1995 (Batool, 2009). According to Batool (2009), the antiquity of the broader construct of emotional intelligence can be traced back to the 19th century, "The Expression of Emotions in Man and Animals". Thereafter, Thorndike published his work on social intelligence in 1920 while Wechsler presented two sub-scales of social intelligence ("Comprehension" and "Picture Arrangement") in 1940, and Gardner upheld social intelligence in 1983 by classifying intrapersonal and interpersonal domains of intelligence.

Furthermore, in 1985, Bar-on conducted a scientific research on the concept of social intelligence (Khorramrooz1 & Ghasemi, 2016) before the trend began to decline because of certain issues of measurement and doubt on the part of scholars concerning the relevance of social intelligence to human life (Batool, 2009). Then researchers slowly moved their focus from investigating social intelligence to studying the purpose of interpersonal behaviour and its role in the adaptability process. Being captivated and fascinated by the findings of the previous investigations, Peter Salovey, a professor of psychology at Yale University, and John Mayer, also a professor of psychology from the University of Hampshire, advanced the study, and presented the construct of Emotional Intelligence (EI) in 1990. Hence, Salovey and Mayer are recognized as being among the earliest scholars who proposed the concept of emotional intelligence, and they are regularly cited as the propounders of the model of emotional intelligence.

In addition, emotional intelligence, being a construct that has its origin within the construct of social intelligence, is an output of two domains of psychological research. The first domain, which is the perception and emotion, explains how perception and emotional processes interrelate to enhance thought. Feelings such as happiness, fear, anger, preferences, the temperament states and bodily states impact how individuals think, perform and make decisions (Brackett et al., 2011). The second domain consists of the evolutionary models of intelligence. Rather than considering intelligence mainly as how well one engages in logical thinking related to reasoning, abstract thought, judgment and memory, experts began to consider intelligence as a wider collection of psychological abilities.

Furthermore, Goleman (1997) propagates the concept and believes that emotional intelligence comprises the knowledge of "what you feel, being able to manage those feelings without having them sock you, being able to inspire yourself to get jobs completed, to be imaginative and perform at your peak and detecting how others feel and manage relationships successfully". However, rather than the scholars who occasionally applied the term emotional intelligence, Daniel Goleman knotted his name firmly with the concept of 'emotional intelligence' (Khorramrooz1 & Ghasemi, 2016). Goleman published his prominent book titled "Emotional Intelligence" in the year 1995, and greatly changed the definition of emotional intelligence. Goleman studied social skills such as leadership, conflict management and communication, and related them to emotional intelligence. Several years after his first book was publicshed on emotional intelligence, Goleman (2001) streamlined his model, and provided a two-in-two matrix with the variables of self-management, relationship management, social awareness and self-awareness.

Moreover, Daniel Goleman (1998) in his second book titled "Working with Emotional Intelligence", concentrates on the individual's need for emotional intelligence in the world of work. Goleman believes that it is not only the managers and heads of companies that are in need of emotional intelligence, but also emotional intelligence is needed by every member of an organisation. In his publications, Goleman explained how researchers have revealed the connection between emotional intelligence and prosocial behaviour. Goleman also affirmed that emotional competency was a solution to the crisis afflicting our schools while he emphasised that emotional intelligence is a powerful variable in predicting success in life (Goleman, 1995). Goleman further explained the concept as a collection of positive qualities including self-confidence, achievement, conscientiousness, and political awareness motives rather than concentrating only on an intelligence that helps persons in solving problems effectively (Brackett et al., 2011).

However, upon a review of the earlier reports on emotional intelligence, Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) upgraded the definition of emotional intelligence. Salovey and Mayer proceeded by differentiating emotional intelligence from the other kinds of intelligences, and displayed a structure (an arrangement of aptitudes which they believe helps people in controlling emotions). They also believe that emotions can be logically examined and understood, which finally prompted the invention of what is presently known as 'the ability model'. The other models are the mixed ability models that were hypothesized later by Bar-On (Gayathri & Meenakshi, 2013).

Though the field of emotional intelligence is equally new, the concept of emotional intelligence has become greatly well known, as it clarifies and demostrates how individuals with a good intelligence quotient sometimes fizzle, while individuals who were school dropouts and considered unwise move further and turn into the best ones in their fields (Goleman, 1995).

Some of the precursors in the study on emotional intelligence such as John Mayer, Peter Salovey, David Caruso, David Goleman and Reuven Bar-On have listed different qualities which choose an individual's emotional intelligence. While Salovey and Mayer (1990) take emotional intelligence purely as a cognitive ability, Goleman and Reuven Bar-On view it as a personality trait.

In addition, Mayer and Salovey's four branch-model of emotional intelligence emphasised emotional assimilation, understanding, management and emotional observation (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004), whereas Reuven Bar-On (2002) agrees on the qualities of emotional self-actualization, interpersonal relationships, self-awareness, happiness, stress tolerance, optimism, and reality testing. Goleman (1998), on the other hand, highlighted emotional self-control, leadership, empathy, conflict management, problem solving and self-awareness as the features of emotionally intelligent individuals. Mayer and Salovey's four branch model (Emotional Perception, Emotional Assimilation, Emotional Understanding and Emotional Management) comprehends emotional intelligence as a mental ability, and presents the four levels by which an individual becomes emotionally intelligent (Gayathri & Meenakshi, 2013).

2.3.4.2 Meaning of emotional intelligence

Emotion is a term used by psychologists to explain human impulses, urges or feelings that usually emanate from within, perhaps in reacting to internal or external stimuli. According to Deshwal (2016), emotions are the intrinsic part of individuals' physiological makeup that manifest daily in human behaviours. Emotions are varied in nature. They could manifest as a positive, pleasant or negative, unpleasant variable. The way in which an emotion presents itself in an individual, at a point in time, partly determines the kind of attitude or behaviour a person

exhibits at that particular moment. It was believed that every morning emotions march into the office with us and influence our behaviours.

Having defined the term 'emotion', it is imperative to conceptually explain what emotional intelligence is. The concept of emotional intelligence (EI) is viewed by Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004) as a person's ability to think about feelings and emotions in order to enhance reasoning. It entails the capacities of individuals to precisely observe feelings, to access or elicit emotions so as to promote belief, to understand feelings and emotional information, and to thoughtfully control reactions in order to enhance enthusiastic and scholarly development (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Emotional intelligence is also described as a force that drives human behaviours and actions (Akinboye, 2002). However, Bar-On (1997) terms emotional intelligence as an accumulation of non-cognitive competences, skills and abilities that impact one's capacity to prosper in managing situations and pressures positively. Hence there is little assertion about whether emotional intelligence signifies a cognitive capacity for processing emotional stimuli, characteristics of personality such as integrity and charisma, or some aptitude for coping with challenging circumstances.

According to Deshwal (2016), emotional intelligence is a variety of abilities and skills that covers a wide collection of individuals' expertise and personalities that are normally alluded to as soft inter and intra-individual aptitudes, which are beyond the conventional parts of overall intelligence, specialized or proficient aptitudes and specific knowledge. In addition, emotional intelligence means the aptitude of a person to perceive, evaluate and control emotions. In other words, it is the awareness of emotion and enthusiastic management aptitudes which offer the capacity to adjust feeling and reason in order to expand long haul joy (Goleman, 1995).

Similarly, Venkteshwar and Warrier (2016) describe emotional intelligence as the capacity to recognize one's own moods and those of fellow human beings, for encouraging ourselves, and for controlling feelings well in ourselves and our relationships. Meanwhile, to Goleman (1997), emotional intelligence connotes what you feel, ability to control those emotions without having them overwhelm you, ability to encourage yourself to have jobs completed, to be imaginative and operate at your peak, perceiving what others feel and managing relationships effectively. It consists of five factors: recognizing emotions in others, managing emotions, handling relationships, motivating oneself, and knowing one's emotions.

Emotional intelligence is also defined by Osisioma, Nzewi and Nnabuife (2016) as the ability to identify and control the feelings in one's own self and others, and to make use of the information in order to direct one's thoughts and behaviour. Similarly, Shahhosseini, Silong, Ismaill and Uli (2012) defined emotional intelligence as a construct that targets human cognitive aptitudes beyond the conventional academic intelligence. Moreover, Uzma and Tajammal (2013) also view emotional intelligence as an array of aptitudes, which incorporates observing and thinking uniquely with information that rises feelings.

Besides, Mayer, Salovey, Caruso and Sitarenios (2001) give a broader definition and believe that emotional intelligence implies the capability to observe precisely, evaluate, and express feelings; the aptitude to stimulate and produce emotions in facilitating believe; the skill to comprehend feeling and passionate knowledge; and the capacity to control emotions in order to encourage emotional and intellectual development. Also, Simunek, Schutte, Hollander and McKenley (2000) termed emotional intelligence a construct that is related to pleasant, effective and efficient management of mood at the workplace. Karimi (2012) resolved that emotional

intelligence performs a greater impact in altering the states of mind and practices of individuals when they are engaging in a team assignment.

In making a reference to Edward Thorndike's view about the construct of emotional intelligence, Thorndike deviated from the conventional knowledge of social intelligence and stressed that it is not only an individual's cognition and rational ability, but also his or her capacity to recognize his own and others' aims and feelings, and response that is important (Gayathri & Meenakshi, 2013). Thorndike therefore, categorized intelligence into three facets based on individuals' aptitude to comprehend and manage concrete objects, people and ideas. On the other hand, Goleman points to leadership, problem solving, conflict management, self-awareness, empathy and emotional self-control as the features of emotionally intelligent persons.

2.3.4.3 Dimensions of emotional intelligence

John Mayer, Peter Salovey, David Caruso, David Goleman and Reuven Bar-On being the forerunners of the investigations into emotional intelligence, have enumerated numerous dimensions that decide an individual's emotional intelligence. For instance, Mayer and Salovey (1990) take emotional intelligence as a mainly mental ability while David Goleman and Reuven Bar-On agree it is an identity attribute. Mayer and Salovey's four division model of emotional intelligence places emphasise on emotional assimilation, management understanding and emotional perception (Mayer et al., 2004), while Bar-On (2002) believes in the characteristics of self-fulfilment, happiness, reality assessmesment, optimism, stress acceptance, emotional self-awareness, interpersonal relationships etc. as aspects that decide the emotional intelligence of an individual. Goleman (1998) argues that emotional self-discipline, leadership, critical thinking, peace making, empathy, self-awareness, etc. are the qualities of an emotionally clever individual. The mixed ability model, which was proposed by Bar-On, stresses the influence of

personality traits on a person's general well-being while Goleman's model pays attention to workplace success (Brackett et al., 2011). Below is a brief description of the four abilities in Mayer and Salovey's four branch model of emotional intelligence:

Perception of emotion, according to Mayer and Salovey (1990) explains the capacity to recognize and distinguish feelings of oneself from that of others. An elementary part of the capability is recognizing feelings precisely in physical states and thoughts. At the higher level, the aptitude allows one to recognize feelings in other persons using sound, language, behaviour and appearance. The capacity to differentiate between true and untrue emotional expressions in others is considered a sophisticated perceptual ability. On the other hand, the use of emotion to facilitate thinking, being the second division of emotional intelligence model, refers to yoking feelings to enhance cognitive processes such as critical thinking, social communication and reasoning. A rudimentary part of the aptitude is using feelings to order thoughts by guiding attention to significant information around the other persons or environments. However, higher abilities include creating intense emotions to manipulate decision and thinking processes, and producing dispositions to aid the contemplation of multiple viewpoints (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). Generating emotional states to promote diverse thinking styles constitutes a higher level of skill on this branch.

The third branch of the emotional intelligence model, includes understanding and analysing emotions, which implies the ability to comprehend languages, the meaning of emotions and understanding the precursors of feelings. Fundamental skills in this aspect include accurate classifications of emotion as well as identifying resemblances and variances among emotions labelled. Interpreting meanings of emotions and understanding difficult feelings such as concurrent emotions or mixtures of feelings signify higher levels of understanding emotion

(Mayer & Salovey, 1990). Identifying changes between emotions is an exclusively sophisticated constituent of the branch.

Reflective regulation of emotions, being the forth branch of emotional intelligence model, embraces the capacity to avert, decrease, augment or moderate an emotional reaction in oneself and others. It also includes the ability to understand a variety of feelings while deciding on the suitability or practicality of an emotion in a given circumstance. Elementary mood directive skill involves staying open to both pleasing and unpleasing feelings, while higher aptitude includes involving or removing from an emotion that depends on its supposed usefulness in a situation (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). Monitoring one's feelings and those of others also signifies more compound problem solving within this branch.

In contrast, Goleman (2004) describes self-awareness as one of the five components of emotional intelligence. It involves analysis of oneself and understanding one's own response in different situations. The second component of emotional intelligence according to Goleman (2004) is self-regulation, which monitoring one's own behaviour. It also involves on understanding of an individual should control his or her emotions in public. Motivation is the third component of Goleman's (2004) emotional intelligence model. Motivation in this context explains the driving power that makes an individual behave in a particular manner. Next is empathy, which describes the ability to comprehend the feelings and mood of others. The fifth is social skills. According to Goleman (2004), social skills are aptitudes that enable one to mix and interrelate freely with others in the society.

2.4 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER TWO

First, the chapter provided a theoretical explanation of the concepts under consideration, and presented the reviewed conceptual literature of organisational citizenship behaviour, occupational stress, emotional intelligence and psychological capital. The Theory of Conservation of Resources was presented in the chapter, and its assumptions and principles were applied to the explanations of the concepts under consideration in the study, while the conceptual views of scholars were presented at the second part of the chapter. On the basis of which the third chapter (Review of Empirical Literature) was built.

CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW OF EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The intention of this chapter is to provide an inclusive overview of the previous research on the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, and to propose an empirical model or framework, which includes psychological capital and emotional intelligence as moderators of the relationship.

3.2 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

In a recent descriptive-correlational study of the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and occupational stress that was conducted among 122 midwives at Mashhad, Iran, by Nourani, Kohansal, Esmaily and Hooshmand (2016), it was found that there is a significant negative association between organisational citizenship behaviour and occupational stress. Similarly, Zamir and Ambreen (2011) conducted a survey on the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and occupational stress among 240 male and female academic staff, working at higher educational levels, and report that significant negative relationships exist in the responses of the participants regarding occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Likewise, Arogundade and Lawal (2016) investigated the influence of perceived occupational stress on the organisational citizenship behaviour among 300 male and female bankers in Lagos, Nigeria, using a simple random sampling technique. Though results of the study

revealed that there is no significant difference in the levels of organisational citizenship behaviour that were exhibited by bankers with higher stress levels and those with lower stress levels, there is an inverse relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. Just as Tziner and Sharoni (2014) report in their empirical study towards propounding two plausible models of inter-relationships among the variables under consideration, there is a significant negative relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and occupational stress.

Moreover, Soo and Ali (2016) studied the linkage between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample of 472 bankers in Malaysia. The findings the study revealed that there is a significant negative impact of occupational stress on organisational citizenship behaviour. Similarly, Jain and Cooper (2012) examined the direct influence of occupational stress on organisational citizenship behaviours among a sample of 402 employees of some organisations that were located in northern India. The outcomes of the study indicated that occupational stress had a negative influence on organisational citizenship behaviour.

Nevertheless, Yahaya, Yahaya, Ma'alip, Ramli and Kamal (2012) report in their investigation of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour that no significant relationship exists, yet the study shows through the results of multiple regression analysis that occupational stress (Beta = 0.148, t = 2.104, sig = 0.037 and R^2 = 0.022) was one of the contributing factors to the joint prediction of organisational citizenship behaviour. Still, Inandi and Büyüközkan (2013) confirmed in their descriptive study of the effect of organisational citizenship behaviour on burnout (a closely related concept to stress), which was conducted among 1699 male and female primary school teachers in Mersin, Turkey, that there is a

negative relationship between the two variables under consideration in the study. The study reports further that a significant increase in the levels of organisational citizenship behaviour decreases the levels of burnout, which was experienced by the participants in the study.

However, in a related study, Ayatse and Ikyanyon (2012) surveyed the connection between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among 49 male and female IT employees in Nigerian universities. Occupational stress was not found to be related to organisational citizenship behaviour in the study. Furthermore, Ikonne and Madukoma (2016) conducted a survey on the relationship among organisational citizenship behaviour, job stress and satisafaction among 109 librarians in some selected universities around the south-west region of Nigeria. The results of the study show that there is a significant negative relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and job stress.

In the same vein, Gregory, Yitzhak and Steffen (2016) scientifically examined the proposed need to distinguish between self-initiated and organisationally imposed overload in studies of work stress, using three samples, which consisted of 116 male and female full-time employed students in three countries, some nursing staff of six private hospitals in Switzerland, and 161 middle manager-supervisor dyads in Switzerland. The study reveals in its findings that self-initiated imposed overload is significantly, positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour, but organisationally imposed overload is not a significant predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour.

Contrarily, in a related research that was conducted by Yilmaz, Ali and Anil (2016), using a sample of 410 employees of a five-star hotel in Turkey, structural equation modelling was performed in relation to the stated hypotheses in the study. The study found that other variables

in the study were interrelated, but work stress did not significantly relate with organisational citizenship behaviour. However, Lee and Low (2016) examined the effect of role ambiguity (a source of stress) on the causal association between leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour among 280 respondents from construction, manufacturing, services and mining industries. The results of the Pearson correlation analysis that was performed on the data collected from the participants demonstrates that there is significant inverse relationship between role ambiguity and organisational citizenship behaviour.

In another related study, Kasraie, Parsa, Hassani and Ghasem-Zadeh (2014) investigated the relationship between job stress, organisational citizenship behaviour and two other psychological variables which were considered in the present study. Among the findings that were reported in the study was that there is a significant negative relationship between job stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. The results further proved that the lower the level of job stress, the higher the level of organisational citizenship behaviour. In the same vein, Aslam, Ahmad and Anwar (2012) studied job burnout (a closely related concept to job stress) and organisational citizenship behaviours, and observed the mediating role of affective commitment using the systematic random sampling method to sample a number of employees in all 31 foreign, local private and local nationalized banks in the Lahore region of Pakistan. The results of the study showed that job burnout has a significant association with organisational citizenship behaviour.

In addition, Uzonwanne (2014) conducted a survey research on depression, anxiety and stress as correlates of organisational citizenship behaviour, using the accidental sampling technique to sample 151 female and 149 male employees of oil and gas companies in Ogun State, Nigeria. The outcomes of the research show that there is a significant positive relationship between

occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. The findings of the study also indicate that, though there is a statistical positive relationship between the two variables, the observed positive relationship is weak considering the r value of 0.118, which is close to 0. Similarly, Ahmad and Saud (2016) investigated the effect of role-overload (a closely related concept to work stress) on organisational citizenship behaviour, using a questionnaire for data collection from a sample size of 120 employees of a corporate oranisation. The results of the data analysis showed that there is a strong negative relationship between role-overload and organisational citizenship behaviour. Meanwhile, Fakhar (2014) reported as follows on his study of the impact of abusive supervision on organisational citizenship behaviour: the mediating role of job tension, emotional exhaustion, turnover intention and job tension (closely synonymous with job stress) did not significantly relate to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Besides, Zamir and Ambreen (2011) researched the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among 240 academic staff of the public sector institutions of higher education in Islamabad, Pakistan. The study reports in its findings that there is a significant negative relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour as exhibited by the participants and the levels of experienced occupational stress. Correspondingly, Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic and Johnson (2011) conducted a metal-analysis of 42 existing related studies and found that there exists a negative relationship between role-overload and organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Qadeer and Jaffery (2014) examined the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour. Their results affirmed that psychological capital is positively correlated to organisational citizenship behaviour. Similarly, Beal, Stavros and Cole (2013) researched the impact of psychological capital on organisational citizenship behaviour by engaging a sample of 100 employees at a government owned organisation. The result of the study shows that psychological capital is positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. In the same way, Shaheen, Bukhari and Adil (2016) surveyed the role of psychological capital on organisational citizenship behaviour in a sample of 325 male and female bank employees of private and public sector banks in Islamabad and Rawalpindi cities of Pakistan. Their findings showed that psychological capital is a significant determinant of organisational citizenship behaviour among the participants.

Furthermore, Shukla and Singh (2013) conducted a cross sectional survey to examine the mediating role of job satisfaction between psychological capital and OCB, and used a self-report questionnaire to sample the opinions of 172 male and female mid-level managers in an Indian-based telecommunication firm. The results of the statistical analysis that was performed on the data collected in the study revealed that psychological capital has a significant influence on organisational citizenship behaviour, which was expressed by the participants. Similarly, Pradhan, Jena and Bhattacharya (2016) investigated the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour among 212 professionals in the Indian manufacturing and service industries, and observed if emotional intelligence assumes a part in moderating the relationships between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour, using structural equation modelling. The outcomes of the structural equation

modelling indicate that psychological capital is positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Moreover, Ali-Shah and Ali-Shah (2016) adopted a longitudinal research design approach to investigate the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour among 411 male and female employees of telecommunication firms in Pakistan, using a structured questionnaire as an instrument of data collection. The results of the investigation revealed that psychological capital and the in-role performance type of organisational citizenship behaviour are significantly positively interrelated.

Harris (2012) found in his doctoral degree research, which was conducted on the relationships between psychological capital, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour in South African automotive dealerships, that there is a low positive correlation (r = 0.27) between organisational citizenship behaviour and psychological capital. The study further reported that both functional participation (r = 0.26) and sportsmanship (r = 0.22) dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour have a small positive relationship with psychological capital. In addition, the results of the study further showed that self-efficacy (r = 0.24) and hope (r = 0.26) have low correlations with the total score of organisational citizenship behaviour. As reported in the study, the hypothesized relationship between the dimensions of psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour was also confirmed as the results showed that there is a low correlation between functional participation and self-efficacy (r = 0.24) and hope (r = 0.25), while sportsmanship has a low correlation with optimism (r = 0.30).

Additionally, Rostiana and Lihardja (2013) conducted a survey to investigate the influence of psychological capital on organisational citizenship behaviour among 205 participants in an office

of a coal mining firm, using a validated questionnaire to measure the constructs that were involved in the study, and the data collected was processed statistically with ANOVA and regression techniques to test the hypothesis. The results of the study showed that psychological capital significantly influenced organisational citizenship behaviour. Thus, it implies that psychological capital plays a crucial role in exhibiting in-role and extra-role performance. In the same vein, Sharma and Sharma (2015) empirically studied psychological capital as a predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour among 107 employees of 11 Information Technology firms that were located in Chandigarh Tricity Region. The study's findings showed that psychological capital has significant positive relationships with organisational citizenship behaviour as a whole, organisational citizenship behaviour directed towards individuals and organisational citizenship behaviour directed towards organizations.

Similarly, Suifan (2016) examined the impact of psychological capital on organisational citizenship behaviour among 277 male and female staff of Jordanian banks, using a survey design and a questionnaire to elicit information from the participants. The results of the statistical analysis that was performed on the data based on the stated hypothesis showed that there is a significant positive relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour. Likewise, Zamahani and Rezaei (2014) explored the impact of psychological capital on organisational citizenship behaviour among 50 senior and middle level managers, using a validated questionnaire as the instrument of data collection. The results of the study showed that there is a significant positive relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour. The study reports further that higher level of psychological capital increases the level of organisational citizenship behaviour.

Correspondingly, another related survey, that aimed at examining psychological capital as predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour, was conducted by Lather and Kaur (2015), among a sample of 150 male and female employees of both the public (75 participants) and private (75 participants) schools that were located in Delhi NCR region, using a validated questionnaire. Findings of the study showed that there is a significant positive relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour. The study reported more that psychological capital is a significant predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, Qadeer and Jaffery (2014) studied the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour through a survey of 108 employees of a multinational consulting organization whose offices are based in Dubai, Islamabad, Lahore and Karachi. A validated questionnaire was used in the study to gather data from the participants. The results of statistical analysis of the data collected revealed that psychological capital is significantly and positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour towards individuals and towards the organisation.

Moreover, Paul, Bamel and Garg (2016) in their exploratory study of the relationship between resilience and organisational citizenship behaviour within the context of Indian organisations, sampled 345 employees who were working in the manufacturing industries of Uttarakhand and Himachal Pradesh in India. Data were collected in the study with a self-administered questionnaire through the systematic sampling method. The findings of the study proved that there is a positive relationship between resilience and organisational citizenship behaviour. Besides, Nandan and Azim (2015) conducted an investigation on the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour among 350 employees from six multinational companies in Malaysia, using a cluster sampling technique and a self-administered questionnaire as a means of data collection from the participants. The results of

the statistical analysis showed that psychological capital is partially and indirectly related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

In addition, Shaheen, Bukhari and Adil (2016) examined the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour among 325 male and female bank employees in the private and public sectors in Rawalpindi and Islamabad cities of Pakistan, using a convenience sampling technique and a questionnaire to sample the opinions of the participants. The results of the study indicated that psychological capital is positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Also, Nafei (2015) conducted a meta-analysis of the impact of psychological capital on organisational citizenship behaviour among 315 male and female employees of Sadat City University in Egypt, using a validated questionnaire to collect data from the participants. The results of the study indicated that there is a positive significant relationship between psychological capital and organizational citizenship behaviour.

In the same way, Fayyazi and Pouramini (2015) studied the relationship between positive organisational behaviour (a form of psychology of positivism) and organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample of 108 male and female employees of a public organisation in Iran, using a validated questionnaire to sample the opinions of the participants. The results showed that positive organisational behaviour has a strong and significant relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour. The study reports further that the observed relationship between positive organisational behaviour and organisational citizenship behaviour will be stronger when positive organisational behaviour is high. Also, Murthy (2014) examined the influence of psychological capital on organisational citizenship behaviour among 270 executive staff that were drawn from six organisations, using a cross-sectional research design and a

validated questionnaire. The findings of the study revealed that psychological capital has a significant impact on organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

In an investigation of the association between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour in a sample of 250 male middle level managers from four scooter manufacturing plants in the private sector of Northern India, which was conducted by Jain (2012), it was confirmed that emotional intelligence had a strong positive impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. Yaghoubi, Mashinchi and Hadi (2011) likewise reported that emotional intelligence had a significant positive effect on the organisational citizenship behaviour of employees.

Similarly, in a related study conducted by Seyal, Afzaal and Chin (2012) in a sample of 101 business executives at Brunesia, it was reported that emotional intelligence had a positive correlation with the organisational citizenship behaviour of the participants. Furthermore, Salarzehi, Yaghoubi, Naroei and Sin (2011) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour in a sample of 122 male and female staff of a medical university in Iran. Their findings confirmed that there was a strong statistical relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour.

However, Chin, Anantheraman and Tong's (2011) results of an investigation conducted on the levels of emotional intelligence among managers in the small and medium sized enterprises in Malaysia show that there is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. In the same vein, Tofighi, Tirgari, Fooladvandi, Rasouli and

Jalali (2015) conducted a descriptive cross sectional study which investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship among a sample of 150 nurses that were working in the university teaching hospitals within the south-east of Iran. The study used a validated questionnaire to gather data from the participants. The results of the Pearson correlation analysis showed that even though there are significant positive relationships between the conscientiousness category of organisational citizenship behaviour and self-management ($p < 0.001$), social awareness ($p < 0.05$), and management of relationships ($p < 0.001$) categories of emotional intelligence respectively; OCB and self-awareness ($p < 0.05$) and self-management ($p < 0.001$) categories of emotional intelligence, the Pearson correlation analysis showed that there is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour when considered holistically.

Furthermore, the study also found that there is significant positive correlation between the mean scores of the civic virtue category and organisational citizenship behaviour and self-management ($p < 0.05$), but the relationships between the courtesy category of organisational citizenship behaviour and self-management ($p < 0.001$), social awareness ($p < 0.05$) and management of relationships ($p < 0.05$) are significantly negative. However, there is a significant positive relationship between the altruism category of organisational citizenship behaviour and self-awareness categories of emotional intelligence ($p < 0.05$) (Tofighi et al., 2015).

On the contrary, another related study was conducted by Hemmati, Rezapur, Hashemi and Mohammadi (2013), prior to that of Tofighi et al. (2015), among 60 male and female employees at Urmia Payam Noor University, using a stratified random sampling method and a validated questionnaire to sample opinions of the participants. The results of the correlation analysis

revealed that there is a significant relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and emotional intelligence. In the same study, the results of the regression analysis showed that 28% of the variance that was observed in organisational citizenship behaviour was accounted for by emotional intelligence.

Likewise, Irshad and Hashmi (2014) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour among 300 male and female employees of private sector organisations in Pakistan, using the convenience sampling technique and a validated questionnaire to reach and sample views of the participants over the issues of consideration in the research. The findings of the study indicated that there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. Equally, Shirsavar and Souri (2015) adopted the descriptive research design to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour among 333 male and female high school teachers of District 5 in Tehran, using a simple random sampling technique, the Morgan sample size table, to determine the appropriate sample size for the study. The study used a validated questionnaire to elicit data from the participants, and analysed the data collected with the Pearson correlation. It was found in the study that emotional intelligence is significantly and positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Similarly, Ying and Ting (2013) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour among 285 male and female front-line employees of hotels in the Klang Valley area, using the convenience sampling method to sample the population and a validated questionnaire to draw information from the research respondents. The results of the correlation analysis showed that there is a positive significant relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. In the same way, Kiyani, Saher, Saleem

and Iqbal (2013) studied the relationship between emotional intelligence and employee outcomes (organisational citizenship behaviour inclusive) among 283 male and female employees. The study adopted the survey research design, sampled the population of the study by using the convenience sampling method, and used a validated questionnaire to collect data from the participants. The findings of the study revealed that there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Remarkably, Titrek, Polatcan, Gunes, and Sezen (2014) examined how organisational citizenship behaviour is affected by emotional intelligence. The study focused specifically on leaders' emotional intelligence, and particularly found that, if a leader has high emotional intelligence, the followers will in turn exhibit more organisational citizenship behaviour. Correspondingly, in the doctorate degree research of Kiek (2015), which adopted a quantitative research design, to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour among 341 male and female public primary school teachers, using a two-stage cluster sampling technique and a validated questionnaire respectively, the results of the Pearson correlation analysis disclosed that there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour.

In addition, Ölçer, Florescu and Năstase (2014) reported in their study of the effect of emotional intelligence on organisational citizenship behaviour, which was conducted among 60 dyads of employees (120 participants) of a food and beverage manufacturing company that was located in Turkey, using a validated questionnaire to collect data from the respondents that, emotional intelligence of managers had significant positive effects on organisational citizenship behaviour dimensions of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Also, Doshmanziari and Doshmanziari (2016) surveyed the opinions of a sample of 108 staff in a technical and

vocational training centre in Tehran, concerning the hypothesized relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. The study used a validated questionnaire to collect data, and the data collected was analysed using Pearson correlation. Consequently, the findings of the study showed that emotional intelligence has a positive and significant relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour. It was further established in the study that each of the components of emotional intelligence, which include self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management, is significantly and positively related to organizational citizenship behaviour.

Besides, Sabahi and Dashti (2016) empirically examined the role of emotional intelligence on organisational citizenship behaviour among 140 randomly selected male and female employees of an Iranian bank, by using a validated questionnaire. The study revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. The findings of the study further indicated that there are some positive and significant relationships between all components of emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. Salajeghe's (2014) investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample size of 335 from a population of 2610 employees, adopted a descriptive survey research design, and used a validated questionnaire to collect data from the respondents. The results of the investigation revealed that there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. The findings of the investigation showed further that self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management components of emotional intelligence have significant positive relationships with organisational citizenship behaviour.

Moreover, Rezaei, Lorzangeneh and Khedervisi (2014) examined the opinions of a sample size of 159 from the population of the Sepah Bank of Kermanshah City about the postulated relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. The study used a validated questionnaire to collect data, and the data collected were analysed using Pearson correlation. The findings of the study showed that emotional intelligence has a positive and significant relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour. The results of the study showed clearly that each of the components of emotional intelligence, which includes self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management, is significantly and positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Fazlollah, Iman and Elnaz (2014) explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample of 160 employees of a vehicle axle manufacturing company, by using a descriptive survey research design and a validated questionnaire to sample the opinions of the participants about the variables of concern in the study. The results of the Peason correlation analysis revealed that there is a significant and strong correlation between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. The results also showed that, there exists a significant positive correlation between all dimensions of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-control, motivation, empathy and social skills) with organisational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, the results revealed that among the dimensions of emotional intelligence, motivation is most closely related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Yet, the results of regression analysis showed that four out of the five dimensions of emotional intelligence have a significant positive impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. However, only empathy did not significantly impact on organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.5 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AS A MODERATOR OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Lu, Liu, Sui and Wang (2015) studied the mediating role of psychological capital on the relationship between job stress and organisational identification among 2226 Chinese police officers in a cross-sectional survey. Organisational identification is like organisational citizenship behaviour in that study. The findings of the investigation showed that psychological capital significantly mediated the connection between job stress and organisational identification.

In another study of the moderating effect of teachers' resources on the teachers' stress and performance by Khan, Shah, Khan and Gul (2012), it was concluded that teachers' stress negatively affects performance by lowering the productivity of the individual teachers and the educational institutions. The study reports further that the teachers' resources act as moderators by minimizing the negative effects of stress on performance. Teachers' resources are viewed as psychological capital while performance is related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Bateman (2014) conducted research titled "Does psychological capital moderate the degree of stress and turnover intention associated with experienced workplace incivility? An exploration in the South African context". He adopted a cross-sectional survey with a descriptive research design, to investigate the moderating role of psychological capital on stress that is associated with workplace incivility (a closely synonymous phenomenon to organisational citizenship behaviour). The study used a convenience sampling technique to extract a sample size of 271 from the population of local organisations in Cape Town and Gauteng regions, and adapted a validated questionnaire to collect data from the research participants. The findings of the study revealed that there is a significant level of workplace incivility that was experienced by the

participants, and that workplace incivility is significantly related to higher levels of stress. However, the results of the study further showed that participants with higher levels of psychological capital reported higher levels of stress and intention to quit, as a result of regular experience of workplace incivility, which means that psychological capital alone does not significantly moderate work stress to yield higher levels of workplace incivility.

Meanwhile, Hansen, Buitendach and Kanengoni (2015) examined psychological capital as a moderator of the relationship between subjective well-being and burnout among 103 male and female educators in the Umlazi region in South Africa. The study was conducted with the application of the cross-sectional survey research principles, and used a validated questionnaire to collect data from the respondents. From the findings of the research, it was reported that psychological capital is a significant mediator of the relationship between subjective well-being of employees and burnout.

Similarly, Nandan and Azim (2015) explored the mediating role of psychological capital on organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample size of 350 employees that were drawn from six multimedia organizations in Malaysia through the cluster sampling method. The study also used a validated questionnaire to sample the opinions of the respondents. The result of statistical analysis of the data collected indicated that psychological capital is a significant mediator of the relationship between organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour.

In addition, Shaheen, Bukhari and Adil (2016) surveyed the moderating role of psychological capital on the relationship between organisational support and organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample size of 325 employees of public and private sector banks of

Islamabad and Rawalpindi cities in Pakistan by using a convenience sampling technique, a validated questionnaire to gather information from the participants. The study discovered and established from its findings that psychological capital significantly enhanced the observed positive relationship between organisational support and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Furthermore, Haq (2014) studied the mediating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between workplace ostracism, job stress and job performance (a synonym of organisational citizenship behaviour) among a sample size of 229 that was drawn from the population of employees from different organisations and sectors, which included four privates school, four banks (two public and two private), two universities (one public and one private) and one call centre, located within, Pakistan. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design, and used a validated questionnaire to elicit data from the participants. The results of the study showed that the relationships among workplace ostracism, job stress and job performance were mediated by psychological capital.

Likewise, Wang, Liu, Zou, Hao and Wu (2017) conducted a cross-sectional survey research that investigated the mediating role of psychological capital on occupational stress, organisational support and work engagement among a sample size of 1016 female nurses that was drawn from the population of nurses in the general hospitals in Shenyang, Liaoning Province, China. A validated questionnaire was used to collect data from all participants in the study. The research findings showed that psychological capital and its components of hope and optimism are significant mediators of the relationships among work stress, work engagement and rewards.

Similarly, another cross-sectional survey was conducted by Ding, Yang, Yang, Zhang, Qiu, He, Wang, Wang and Sui (2015) which examined the mediating role of coping style in the

relationship between psychological capital and burnout among a sample size of 1496 female nurses who were drawn from two large general hospitals in Daqing City of China. The study used a validated questionnaire to assess opinions of the respondents on the variables under investigation. The results of the statistical analyses of the data collected revealed that positive coping partially mediated the relationship between hope/optimism and burnout. The results also showed that positive coping partially mediated the relationship between self-efficacy/optimism and reduced personal accomplishment. It further indicated that negative coping fully mediated the relationship between self-efficacy and burnout while negative coping also partially mediated the relationship between hope/optimism and burnout.

Correspondingly, Li, Kan, Liu, Shi, Wang, Yang, Wang, Wang and Wu (2015) studied the mediating role of psychological capital on the association between occupational stress and burnout among a sample size of 1239 male and female bankers who were drawn from the population of bankers in the state-owned banks within Liaoning in China by using a random sampling technique. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design, and used a validated questionnaire to collect data from the participants. The findings of the study showed that there is a gender difference in the mediating capacity of psychological capital on occupational stress-job burnout. The results revealed that, in male bank employees, psychological capital mediates the relationships of extrinsic effort and reward with occupational stress-job burnout. Meanwhile, in female bank employees, psychological capital partially mediates the connections of outward exertion, reward and over-commitment with word related anxiety, as well as the relationship between reward and personal accomplishment. The findings from the study further indicated that psychological capital is generally a mediator between occupational stress and job burnout among Chinese bank employees, and concluded that psychological capital may be a potential positive resource in reducing the negative effects of

occupational stress on job burnout and relieving job burnout among bank employees, especially the female bank employees.

However, in a related research that was conducted by van der Schoor (2015), the study focused on investigating the mediating role of psychological capital in the relationship between job resources and work engagement among 86 male and female teachers of two secondary schools in Mijdrecht and Vinkeveen. The researcher adopted the online-survey research method, and collected data for the study with a valid questionnaire that was distributed electronically among the participants through email. As opposed to the numerous other findings, the results of the study indicated that psychological capital did not mediate the relation between job resources and work engagement.

Nevertheless, Aybas and Acar (2017) surveyed the mediating and moderating roles of psychological capital in the effects of opportunity enhancing HR practices and working conditions on work engagement among 555 white-collar employees of private companies from different sectors in Turkey, by using a convenience sampling method and a validated questionnaire to sample the views of respondents about the variables under consideration in the study. The results of the statistical analysis of data showed that psychological capital partially moderated and mediated the effects of opportunity enhancing HR practices and working conditions on work engagement.

3.6 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS A MODERATOR OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Soran, Balkan and Serin (2014) examined the moderating impact of emotional intelligence on the relationship between job stress and employee performance among 265 bankers in Turkey. In their study, performance was equated with employee citizenship behaviour. The outcomes of the study revealed that emotional intelligence had a moderatoring effect on the relationship between job stress and employee performance. But emotional intelligence had no interceding impact on the association between stress factors and contextual performance.

Cohen and Abedallah (2015) conducted a related study by investigating the mediating role of burnout between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour in a sample of 221 teachers in Israel (burnout is synonymous to stress in the study). The mediation analysis that was performed in the study showed that burnout mediates the association between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Similarly, Golparvar, Kamkar and Javadian (2012) reported in their study of the moderating impacts of occupation anxiety on the relationship between emotional exhaustion and employee behaviours, which was conducted among 275 employees of two industrial organisations in Esfahan, Iran, that job stress moderates the relationship between emotional exhaustion and organisational citizenship behaviour. The study reports further that in a low level of occupation anxiety, emotional exhaustion is positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Furthermore, Gökçe, Emhan, Topuz and Şimşek (2015) conducted an empirical study on the mediating role of emotional regulation in the relationship between job stress and performance (a synonym or organisational citizenship behaviour) among a sample size of 392, which was

drawn from a population of employees who were working in the automotive sector in Diyarbakır, Turkey. The study used a validated questionnaire to collect data from the participants. The findings of the study showed that emotional regulation plays a significant mediating role in the relationship between job stress and performance.

Zysberg, Orenshtein, Gimmon and Robinson (2016) studied the mediating effect of job stress on the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout among educators in two samples for two studies. The first sample consisted of 230 daycare-centre employees while the second consisted of 209 school teachers. In study 1, the random sample of 230 daycare workers was recruited from a network of daycare centres that are caring for children ages six months to six years. Study 2, on the other hand, sampled 209 school teachers through online questionnaires. The two groups of participants were presented with a validated questionnaire. The hard copy version of the questionnaire was distributed among the daycare-centre participants while school teachers were administered an online-soft copy version of the same questionnaire. The results of the Structural Equation Modelling analysis showed that stress significantly mediated the association between emotional intelligence and burnout.

Likewise, Irshad and Hashmi (2014) explored the mediating role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and transformational leadership among a sample size of 300 male and female employees, which were drawn from the population of employees in the banking sector of Pakistan's economy, by using the convenience sampling technique. The study also used a validated questionnaire for data collection from the participants, and analysed the data based on the hypotheses stated. The results provided evidence that emotional intelligence is a significant mediator of the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and transformational leadership.

Equally, JungHoon & Chihyung (2012) examined the moderating role of emotional dissonance in the relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion among a sample size of 309 customer-contact hotel employees and managers that were drawn from the population of the hospitality sector in the United States by using the convenience sampling method, and a validated questionnaire to elicit information for the purpose of the research. The results of the statistical analyses established that emotional dissonance significantly mediated the indirect effect of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion.

Greenidge and Coyne (2014) investigated the mediating role of emotions in the relationship between job stressors and organisational citizenship behaviours among a sample of 202 Caribbean employees across eight public and private sector organisations, and used a validated questionnaire to collect data from the respondents. The findings of the study showed that both positive and negative emotion mediated the relation between job stressors and citizenship behaviours. Also, in another survey research, Soran, Balkan and Serin (2014) reconnoitered the mediating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between job stress and performance among 265 banking employees from small-medium enterprises in Turkey by selecting participants arbitrarily. The study also used a validated questionnaire to gather data from the participants. The findings of the study revealed that emotional intelligence has a mediating effect in the relationship between job stress and performance.

Moreover, closely related to the above is a survey research that was conducted by Cohen and Abedallah (2015) which examined the mediating role of burnout on the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample size of 221

teachers drawn from the population of Arab teachers in the elementary schools within the northern part of Israel. The study used a validated questionnaire to collect data from respondents, and reported as one of its findings that, burnout significantly mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. In the same vein, Mustafa, Santos and Chern (2016) explored the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between emotional labour and work-related burnout among a sample of 136 HR professionals from a large Malaysian financial institution. The study used a validated questionnaire to gather information from the respondents. The results of the statistical analysis of the data that was collected showed that emotional intelligence buffered the relationship between emotional labour and work-related burnout.

Additionally, Santo's (2012) research was focused on investigating the moderating roles of personal and organisational variables on the effect of emotional dissonance on organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample of 222 nurses who were drawn from the population of nurses in hospitals within the north region of Italy. The study used a validated questionnaire to elicit responses from the respondents. The findings of the study revealed that empathy (a measure of emotional intelligence) is a significant moderator of the relationship between emotional dissonance and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Likewise, Hameed (2016) studied the moderating role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between surface acting-emotional exhaustion and deep acting-emotional exhaustion among two samples (471 female frontline service employees and 76 supervisors and heads of different hotels) in Pakistan. The study used a validated questionnaire to gather data from all the participants. The results of the investigation indicated that emotional intelligence moderates the surface acting-emotional exhaustion relationship as well as the deep

acting-emotional exhaustion connection. The findings further showed that emotional exhaustion mediated the relationship between surface acting-adaptive performance and deep acting-adaptive performance.

Inversely, the findings of Hwa and Amin's (2016) survey that focused on the moderating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between emotional labour, deviant behaviour and organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample size of 205 male and female employees that were drawn from the population of employees in the Malaysian Employer Directory, by using a purposive sampling technique, showed that emotional intelligence is not a significant moderator of the relationship between emotional labour and organisational citizenship behaviour.

However, in a related study, Sin (2012) examined the mediating influence of stress on the relationship between leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample of 474 employees who were extracted from a total 60 bank branches in Penang by using a survey research design and a validated questionnaire to generate data from the participants. The study found that stress mediates the relationship between leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour. Corroborating the above, Shameem and Ganesh's (2013) study explored the mediating role of emotional labour on the effect of nature of interaction on organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample of 702 service employees in the hotels and call centres. The study used a validated questionnaire to collect data from the participants. Some of the participants were administered the questionnaire online while others were met in person and administered the hard copy. The results of statistical analysis of data revealed that emotional labour significantly mediates the effect of nature of interaction on organisational citizenship behaviour.

In another related study, Khawaja (2017) examined the moderating role of collectivism in the relationship between spiritual intelligence and performance and organsational citizenship behaviour among 313 employed doctors in the public and private sector hospitals in Pakistan, by using a survey method to collect data from the participants of the study. The findings of the study indicated that collectivism positively moderates the relationship beteewn spiritual intelligence and performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. Also, Raghavendra (2012) investigated the mediating role of emotional labour in the relationship between strategic emotional intelligence and job performance among a sample of 303 customer service personnel that work in the Indian postal services, by adopting a non-experimental cross sectional research design. The study used both the primary and secondary sources of data to gather information for the research. The results of the statistical analysis of the data collected revealed that emotional labour mediates the relationship between strategic emotional intelligence and job performance.

3.7 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS JOINT MODERATORS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCCUPATIONAL STRESS AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Recently, Boerrigter (2017) conducted a cross-sectional survey research titled "What makes employees highly engaged and performing: Leaders' emotional intelligence, service climate and psychological capital", among a sample size of 197 drawn from a total of 1576 employees of a global professional service organization in the Netherlands. The study used a validated questionnaire to collect data from the participants, and analysed the data collected statistically. The results of the statistical analysis of data revealed that there was a partial mediating effect of

service climate and psychological capital on the relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and job performance.

Similarly, in an investigation of the moderating role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour in a sample of 212 employees in Indian manufacturing and service industries, which was conducted by Pradhan, Jena and Bhattacharya (2016), it was discovered that psychological capital is positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. The study reported further that emotional intelligence mediated the association between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour.

However, Rodriquez-Sanchez, Hakanen, Perhoniemi and Salanova (2013) reported in their study that unexpectedly, dental specialists' high confidence and emotional dissonance did not have a combined moderating effect on in-role nor extra-role performance. Emotional dissonance is understood as an antonym of emotional intelligence.

3.8 CRITIQUE OF THE LITERATURE AND JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

The study has reviewed a list of significant related research that has been previously conducted on the phenomena of organisational citizenship behaviour, occupational stress, psychological capital and emotional intelligence, with a great emphasis on the assessment of their relationships, and some evaluation of the individual moderating roles of psychological capital and emotional intelligence. Many of the past studies that were reviewed were conducted between 2014 and 2016 while there are a few that were published between 2012 and 2013, and a few published 2017. In other words, a significant part of the literature reviewed in the study were extracts of the recent scientific articles from the reputable journal publications.

Furthermore, the outcome of the review of literature in the present study has clearly revealed that most of the related empirical past studies that were conducted in the aforementioned areas of interest, most especially in the areas of psychological capital and emotional intelligence, were conducted in the context of the Asian Continent, with a few from the other continents. This implies that positive psychology is still a new field of study in most parts of the world, especially in Africa. In Africa, for instance, the only few studies that have been conducted in the aforementioned areas are mostly domiciled in South Africa and Nigeria. However, based on the literature reviewed in the present study, it is clearly observed that the sample of most of the previously conducted studies is small in size and narrow in scope which, by implication, reduces the level of variance in the data collected, and consequently hinders the heterogeneity of the information gathered, and limits the generalisation of the previous findings. Moreover, most of the previous studies' population samples are one-sided such that some are gender based, sector based, and others are organisation or industry based. Hence, it is difficult to have a general picture of the prevalence of the phenomena of investigation across all sectors, and to compare between both genders.

Additionally, it is important to note that the review of the literature shows that efforts toward psychological interventions on the issues of occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour (employee/organisational performance) is ongoing, yet not many of the proposed models of the moderating effects of the moderators are confirmed, as against the expectations. Likewise, it is worthwhile to note that from the literature reviewed in this study there is paucity of studies of the joint or interactive effect of two or more moderators on the existing organisational issues. By implication, it has limited the discovery of the possible psychological interventions that explore all potential remedies, in the form of human endowments, to solve or cope with career related problems. Bearing in mind all the aforementioned shortcomings that were

observed in the reviewed literature, the present study proposes the following eclectic psychological interventional model:
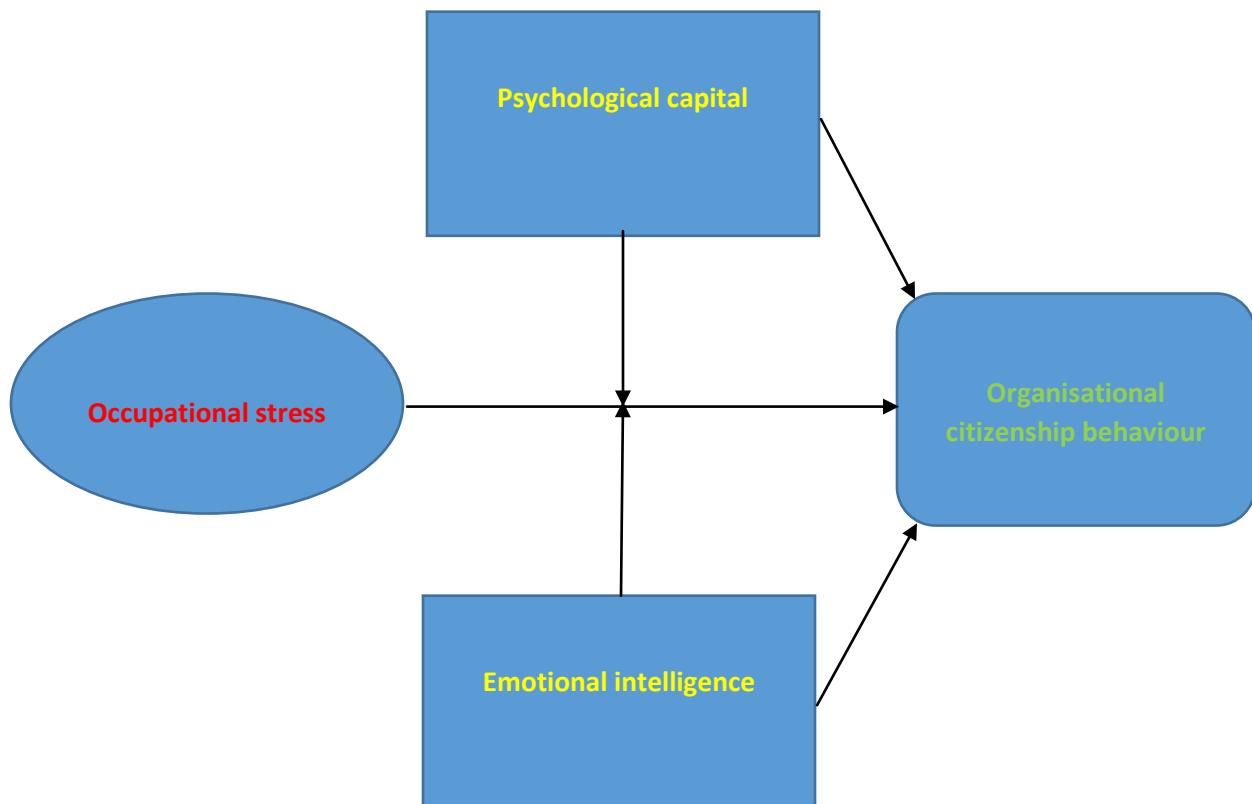
Figure 3.1 Proposed model of psychological intervention for effective management of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour

From the above presented proposed conceptual model of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, the present study identifies occupational stress as an integral part of the contemporary world of business organisations, which came into existence as a result of recent developments such as technology, diversification of business, change, globalization, innovation, commercialization and profit maximisation that drive the

operations of corporate organisations. The motivation for profit, for instance, has pushed and it will continue to propel every employee who wishes to secure his or her job and successfully progress through the career ladder to engage in a form of citizenship behaviour that is aimed at helping colleagues and employers to achieve the goals and objectives set, even after meeting or surpassing one's own officially allocated targets on his or her duties and responsibilities.

However, bearing in mind the individuals' official requirements for performance at work and the willingness to achieve job security to attain career fulfillment, employees are left with the option of looking inward to discover and develop their naturally endowed potentials that are beyond what educational orientation or certification can offer in order to cope with the contemporary demands of the world of work. The naturally endowed potentials are conceptualized in the above presented proposed model as "psychological capital" and "emotional intelligence". Going by the nature of the two concepts (psychological capital and emotional intelligence), each is potent enough to dampen the effect of the presence of occupational stress in the lives of employees, and help them to perform at their best at all times, even when the stressors remain in the jobs or careers. For this reason, psychological capital and emotional intelligence are both conceptualized as moderators in the proposed model.

By implication, if an individual employee is able to realize his or her possession of psychological capital and thoroughly develop it along with the ability to systematically evaluate issues by active control of emotion related to extraneous variables, the individual will be mature enough psychologically, and able to calmly surmount every challenge in the form of work stressors. Consequently, he or she will perform beyond in-role duties and reponsibilities, and become a dedicated citizen of an organisation through his or her constant exhibition of prosocial behaviour

towards the colleagues and employer. In other words, the conceptual model that is proposed in the present study explains that there is a need for every employee in this contemporary period to possess at a high level both psychological capital and emotional intelligence in order for them to cope with present work challenges, so as to perform beyond expectations, secure their jobs and become fulfilled in their careers.

3.9 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER THREE

First, the chapter has provided an inclusive overview of the previous related studies concerning the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour; the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour; the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour; the moderating impact of psychological capital in the relationship between occupational stress and organsiational citizenship behaviour; the moderating impact of emotional intelligence in the relationship between occupational stress and organsiational citizenship behaviour; and the joint moderating impact of psychological capital and emotional intelligence in the relationship between occupational stress and organsiational citizenship behaviour. The chapter also a systematic critique of the empirical literature reviewed, and identified the existing gap in the literature. The chapter finally presented a proposed conceptual model of the study, which was meant for be confirmed through the methodological and statistical processes in the next two chapters (Chater four and five).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter presents systematic processes and approaches, which were adopted and applied in the study in designing a suitable research design, identifying the targeted population sample, determining the appropriate population sample size, the effective and efficient sampling techniques, standardization of research instruments, ethical procedures for data collection and statistical instruments or tools.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The study adopted a positivist explanatory cross-sectional (survey) research design. The explanatory cross-sectional (survey) research was considered appropriate for the study because the research used the positivist approach by means of quantitative data generation, and hypotheses testing (Bhattacherjee, 2012). The chosen design made it possible for the researcher to easily conduct the study across diverse sectors of the national economy, within the set timeframe, and without any variable being manipulated. Participants were expected to have experienced the variables before the commencement of the study. Consequently, there was no interference with respondents' views on the issues of concern.

Also, the study was conducted at places where the respondents usually have their typical weekend academic activities. The design was also considered suitable for the study because of its capacity to accommodate a large group of respondents. The independent variable of this study was occupational stress. On the other hand, organisational citizenship behaviour was the

dependent variable while psychological capital and emotional intelligence were the moderator variables.

4.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLE FRAME

The target population of this study were the Nigerian employees. The sample frame, where the eventual sample was drawn, was the category of graduate employees (both the university and polytechnic working class graduates) that were under the employment of the Nigerian government and private establishments, as at the time of the study. Again, the sample cut across the various sectors of the Nigerian economy. Thus, both male and female public and private sectors' employees with a minimum academic qualification of Bachelor of Science/Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Art or Higher National Diploma (H.N.D) were sampled in this study. The statistical descriptions of participants' biographic and occupational characteristics are as follows:

Nine hundred and sixteen (60%) of the participants were males while the remaining six hundred and sixteen (40%) were females. The participants' ages ranged from 20 years to 65 years. Eleven (0.7%) among the participants were 20 years old, 7.8% were between the ages of 21 years and 25 years, 19.8% were between the ages of 26 years and 30 years, 23.8% were between the ages of 31 years and 35 years, 19.6% were between the ages of 36 years and 40 years, 11% were between the ages of 41years and 45 years, 9.9% were between the ages of 46 years and 50 years, 4.8% were between the ages of 51 years and 55 years, 2.2% were between the ages of 56 years and 60 years, and 0.3% were between the ages of 61 years and 65 years.

Furthermore, the descriptive statistics show that 32.1% of the participants were single, 66.8% were married, 0.5% were divorced while the remaining 0.6% were widows/widowers. In terms of educational qualifications, 68% of the participants were holders of Bachelor degrees, 23.4% were holders of Higher National Diploma Certificates while the remaining 8.7% were in possession of a Postgraduate Degree Certificate. In addition, statistics indicate that 29.2% among the participants in the study had less than 5 years of work experience. Twenty-nine percent had between 5 years and 9 years of work experience, 16% had between 10 years and 14 years, 9.5% had between 15 years and 19 years, 6.3% had between 20 years and 24 years while the remaining 9.3% had between 25 years and 29 years of work experience.

Moreover, in terms of the type of appointment, descriptive statistics show that 83.7% of the participants in the study were in full-time/permanent employment while the remaining 16.3% were temporary/contract employees. Relatively, 63.6% of the participants were senior staff while the remaining 36.4% were junior staff. In addition, among the participants, 47.7% were employed by the government while the remaining 52.3% were working under the employment of private organisations.

Conclusively, the descriptive statistics reveal that participants in the study were representatives of different occupations from 19 sectors of the Nigerian economy. Among the participants, 13.2% were graduate employees from the educational sector, 2.5% from the research institutes, 3.3% from the transportation sector, 19% from the finance and insurance sector, 5.4% from the fast moving and consumable goods (FMCG) Industry, 1.4% from the commercial sector, 4.6% from the healthcare sector, 0.5% from the aviation sector, 5.0% from the agricultural sector, 53.7% from the information and communication technology sector, 1.4% from the power and energy sector, 10.1% from the security and defense, 1.8% from the oil and gas sector, 1.8%

from the construction industry, 1.4% from the legal sector, 0.4% from the entertainment industry, 0.1% from the real estate industry, 21.2% from the public service sector, and 3.3% from the media sector.

4.4 SAMPLING TECHNIQUE AND SAMPLE CALCULATION

The researcher adopted the probability and non-probability sampling techniques to sample respondents for the study. The North Carolina Center for Public Health Preparedness' (2013) two-stage sampling scheme, and The Research Advisor (2006) Calculated Sample Size Table, formed the probability methods, which were applied to derive an appropriate sample size. On the other hand, the purposive and convenience types of non-probability sampling techniques were applied in sampling respondents for the study.

4.4.1 Sample Size Calculation

The North Carolina Center for Public Health Preparedness' (2013) two-stage sampling scheme was used along with the suggestions of The Research Advisor (2006) to calculate the appropriate sample size for the study. According to the Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development (2008), there were a total number of 40,567,978 male and female employees across industries in Nigeria as at the year 2007. See Appendix 1 for details.

In applying the two-stage sampling scheme of the North Carolina Center for Public Health Preparedness (2013), 10% of 40,567,978 was calculated at the first stage, which reduced the number to 4,056,797. Again, at the second stage, 10% of 4,056,797 was calculated. Consequently, the result further reduced the number to 405,679.

Nevertheless, at this point, the researcher subjected the derived figure of 405,679 to the recommendations of The Research Advisor (2006), which approves a sample size of 1,532 (at 95% level of confidence and 2.5% margin of error) out of an approximate of population 500,000 for a national survey. Hence, the researcher was 95% confident of the sampled population being a true representation of the study's targeted population. Thus, a total of 1,532 male and female graduate employees formed the sample of this study. See Appendix 2 for The Research Advisor's (2006) table showing recommended sample sizes.

4.4.2 Respondents' Sampling

The convenience sampling technique was applied in selecting three most suitable states (Oyo, Osun and Lagos States) out of the thirty-six states in Nigeria, as the sites of the field work. The rationale for selecting the three states is that each of them houses one or the other of the renowned public and private universities (University of Ibadan, Obafemi Awolowo University and the Pan-Atlantic University) where the study sample were offered part-time postgraduate admission as working-class postgraduate students with a minimum of three-year employment experience, undergoing the study of professional or executive master degree programmes during the weekends.

Another reason for adopting the convenience sampling technique was the fieldwork became easier when the participants were met in groups at conducive places such as in the lecture-rooms and relaxation centres within the university premises. Furthermore, it was easier to address the participants in tens and hundreds and involve them collectively in the study rather than meeting them individually in their various offices during the official working hours, when they might be too busy to give an audience. The adopted process of sampling saved time, reduced errors in the administration of instruments and collection of data, made it easier for both

the researcher and participants to achieve the aims of the study, and it reduced the financial cost and physical hazards involved. Lastly, by choosing the university setting, it helped in actualizing the planned work and enabled the researcher to successfully complete the field work within the time-frame compared to the participants' offices, where official approval and permission from the management of the various organizations might have been very difficult to obtain considering the nature of the variables involved in the study.

Meanwhile, since the study was designed only for the university and polytechnic graduate employees, the purposive sampling technique was also introduced and applied, to ensure that participants in the study were employed during the period of the field work, and that they were graduates of universities and polytechnics. By using the purposive sampling technique, the researcher included the salient factors of academic qualification and employment type in the demographic section of the research instrument.

4.5 INSTRUMENTATION

The participants were administered a self-report questionnaire, which consisted of a biographical and occupational data questionnaire plus four validated scales measuring psychological capital, emotional intelligence, occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. The use of standardized and validated questionnaires in this study ensured confidence regarding the validity and reliability of the data collected. It was also more cost-effective than many of the other methods for the large sample size involved in this study. The questionnaire was divided into five distinct sections, labeled section A, B, C, D and E.

4.5.1 Section A

The section tapped the biographical and occupational data of participants concerning the following variables: age, gender, marital status, highest educational qualification, years of work experience, appointment type (full-time or temporary/contract), employment rank, type of sector (public or private), occupation and industry. There were no particular scales used in this section. The participants were only presented the biographical and occupational variables mentioned above, and were asked to indicate their corresponding statuses.

4.5.2 Section B

The section consisted of a 24-item scale of psychological capital that was developed and validated by Luthans et al. (2007). The construct consisted of self-efficacy, hope-state, optimism-state and resilience-state sub-scales, with a 5-point Likert-type response format ranging from 1/(Strongly disagree) to 5/(Strongly agree). The authors reported a Cronbach Alpha coefficient score of 0.91 for the scale.

However, in the course of the pilot study, it was observed that among the pool of items from the aforementioned four sub-scales of psychological capital, items B13 (one out of the six items of the resilience sub-scale), B20 and B23 (two out of the six items of optimism sub-scale) were statistically identified to be inconsistent in their relationships with the others (r=<0.30). Hence, the three statistically weak items in the pilot study were interpreted as not valid in the context of Nigeria. Consequently, items B13, B20 and B23 of the scale of psychological capital were deleted while the remaining 21 items were retained in the main study's questionnaire. The researcher therefore reported from the pilot study Cronbach Alpha coefficient scores of 0.88 (self-efficacy), 0.91 (hope), 0.85 (resilience), 0.67 (optimism) and 0.94 for the 21-item scale of psychological capital.

During the course of the main study's factor analysis, it was further discovered that items B5, B10, B14, B18 and B20 on the main study's questionnaire were also not consistent in the item-total correlation (r=<0.30). Consequently, the responses of research participants on the five identified items were ignored in the main study's data analyses, whose results informed the final outputs of the study. The researcher reported from the main study's analysis a Cronbach Alpha coefficient score of 0.85 for the eventual 16-item scale of psychological capital.

4.5.3 Section C

The section consisted of a 10-item modified version of Palmer and Stough's (2001) emotional intelligence questionnaire by Seyal, Afzaal and Chin (2012). The construct consisted of emotional self-control, emotional self-awareness, emotional expression and emotional awareness of others sub-scales, with a 5-point Likert-type response format ranging from 1/(Strongly disagree) to 5/(Strongly agree). Seyal, Afzaal and Chin (2012) reported a Cronbach Alpha coefficient score of 0.92 for the whole scale of emotional intelligence. However, in the course of the conducted pilot study, it was observed that among the pool of items from the aforementioned four sub-scales of emotional intelligence, only items C33 and C34 (from emotional awareness sub-scale) were statistically identified to be consistent in the item-total correlation analysis (r=>0.30), and they were both interpreted as valid enough to measure emotional intelligence in the main study. Therefore, the remaining 8 weak items were deleted from the pilot factor analysis while only items C33 and C34 were retained in the main study's data analysis. The researcher therefore reported a Cronbach Alpha coefficience score of 0.57 from the pilot factor analysis while the main study's analysis recorded a Cronbach Alpha coefficient score of 0.81, for the scale of emotional intelligence.

4.5.4 Section D

The section consisted of a 9-item scale of job stress that was developed and validated by Jamal and Baba (1992), with a 5-point Likert-type response format ranging from 1/(Strongly disagree) to 5/(Strongly agree). The authors reported a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.83 for the scale. However, in the course of the pilot study, the outcome of the factor analysis showed that among the nine items in the aforementioned scale of job stress, item D36 was statistically identified inconsistent in its relationship with the others (r=<0.30). Hence, item D36 was interpreted in the pilot study as not a valid measure of occupational stress, particularly, in the contextual situation of Nigeria. It was consequently deleted from the pilot data analysis while the remaining eight items were retained in the main study's questionnaire. The researcher therefore reported from the pilot study a Cronbach Alpha coefficience score of 0.81 for the scale of job stress.

Furthermore, during the course of the main study's analysis, it was further discovered that item D31 on the main study's questionnaire was also not consistent with others in the item-total correlation analysis (r=<0.30). The item was consequently ignored from the pool of responses that determined the outcomes of the main study's data analysis. The researcher therefore, reported a Cronbach Alpha coefficient score of 0.80 for the measure of occupational stress.

4.5.5 Section E

The section consisted of a 15-item modified version of Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, and Fetter's (1990) organisational citizenship behaviour questionnaire by Argentero, Cortese and Ferretti (2008). The construct consisted of altruism, conscientiousness and civic virtue sub-scales, with a 5-point Likert-type response format ranging from 1/(Strongly disagree) to 5/(Strongly agree). Argentero, Cortese and Ferretti (2008) reported the following Cronbach

Alpha coefficients for the scale: altruism =0.81, conscientiousness =0.73, civic virtue =0.73 and 0.84 for the whole scale of organisational citizenship behaviour.

However, during the course of the pilot study, it was observed that among the pool of items from the aforementioned three sub-scales of organisational citizenship behaviour, only item E49 was statistically identified to be inconsistent in its relationship with the others (r=<0.30). Hence, item E49 was interpreted in the pilot study as not valid to be included in the measure of organisational citizenship behaviour considering the contextual situation of Nigeria. Consequently, the item was deleted from the pilot data analysis. The researcher therefore reported from the pilot Cronbach Alpha coefficience scores of 0.88 (altruism), 0.81 (conscientiousness), 0.86 (civic virtue) and 0.93 for the whole scale of organisational citizenship behaviour.

In addition, during the course of the main study's factor analysis, it was further discovered that item E37 on the main study's questionnaire was also not consistent with others in the item-total correlation (r=<0.30), and it was therefore, ignored from the pool of responses that determined the outcomes of the main study's data analyses. The researcher reported a Cronbach Alpha coefficient score of 0.82 for the whole scale of organisational citizenship behaviour.

4.6 REVALIDATION OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

A pilot study was conducted preceding the main study using a total number of 49 male and female graduate employees in Nigeria (which was not included in the main study's sample) as participants to revalidate the aforementioned scales. During the period of the pilot study, four full-time male and female research assistants were recruited, trained and engaged by the researcher, to assist in conducting the administration and retrieval of questionnaires, for the main study.

In recruiting the research assistants, the researcher ensured that the individuals who were employed in the role of research assistant were able to speak the English language fluently - this being the official and generally spoken language in Nigeria. The researcher also ensured that each of the four research assistants employed in the study was a university graduate who had an interest in joining the research as a team member.

The training programme, which was designed for the research assistants, commenced on Tuesday 6th of December, 2016 and ended on Friday 9th of December, 2016 in the Department of Psychology, University of Ibadan, by the approval of the Dean, School of Postgraduate Studies, University of Ibadan, and the professional advice of the immediate past Sub-Dean, School of Postgraduate Studies, University of Ibadan, Associate Professor A.I. Alarape. Specifically, the research assistants' training programme included a training course on the techniques of conducting a survey research. Two out of the four days (Tuesday 6th of December, 2016 and Wednesday 7th of December, 2016) were spent in the classroom, where the research assistants were theoretically exposed to the techniques of administration of research instruments (questionnaires and informed consent forms) to the targeted respondents. The remaining two days (Thursday 8th of December, 2016 and Friday 9th of December, 2016)

were simultaneously earmarked for the practical training on the data collection process and the pilot research.

The process of administration of the pilot questionnaires and informed consent forms for the pilot research was conducted among the graduate staff of the University of Ibadan, using the purposive and convenience sampling methods. During the process, the researcher and the four research assistants approached the pilot respondents in their various offices that were located within the Administrative Building of the University of Ibadan with 65 printed copies each of the pilot questionnaires and inform consent forms, and sought the voluntary participation of the respondents in the pilot research. At the end of the first day of the pilot research, 61 pilot questionnaires and informed consent forms were administered to the pilot research participants, among which 45 were filled in and returned on the same day.

Moreover, on the second day, an additional 12 filled questionnaires and informed consent forms were also retrieved form the pilot research respondents. Hence, a total of 57 filled questionnaires and informed consent forms were retrieved. However, a thorough screening of the retrieved questionnaires revealed that 8 out of the 57 filled questionnaires were improperly filled, and were consequently removed and discarded. Meanwhile, the remaining 49 questionnaires were certified good and therefore retained. This formed the pilot research data, which was eventually subjected to a factor analysis through the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS Version 20).

4.7 PROCEDURE OF DATA COLLECTION

4.7.1 Request for the Approval of Venue for Data Collection

The data collection procedure for this study commenced with an official process of seeking the consent and approval of the Coordinators of the various existing part-time professional postgraduate courses in the chosen universities. Among the identified existing professional or executive postgraduate programmes was Executive Master Degree in Business Administration (for persons in different fields of occupation including finance, insurance, informational and communication technology industries). Other programmes are Professional Master Degree in Managerial Psychology (for the managers, assistant managers and supervisors across the industries), Professional Master Degree in Geographical Information Science (for the experts in the infrastructure sector and oil and gas), Professional Master Degree in Strategic Studies (for the senior military officers), and a Master Degree in Legal, Criminology and Security Psychology (for the senior para-military officers) that were offered by some of the three chosen universities (University of Ibadan, Obafemi Awolowo University and the Pan-Atlantic University).

The official consent and approval of the coordinators of the aforementioned programmes were sought through two categories of official letters. One was the researcher's supervisor, which introduced the researcher to the Coordinators of the various postgraduate programmes. The other letter was the one drafted and signed by the researcher and directed to Coordinators of the postgraduate programmes, which requested permission to conduct the research in the chosen universities, using the students of the aforementioned professional courses as participants in the research. In addition to the two aforementioned categories of official letter, one other request for permission to conduct this study was submitted, in the form of an Ethical Clearance Certificate, to the Research Ethics Committee of the University of Fort Hare, South

Africa. The other sets of documents that were submitted to the three universities to seek official consent and approval for the conduct of the fieldwork were a photocopy of the researcher's identity card, a copy each of the questionnaires and the informed consent forms.

4.7.2 Procedure of Data Collection in the University of Ibadan

Upon the universities' management approval, the main fieldwork commenced fully and first in the University of Ibadan, on Saturday 10th of December, 2016. The researcher embarked on the data collection along with the four trained research assistants, a total number of 2000 printed questionnaires and some pens and pencils. In the University of Ibadan, the targeted participants were found in three faculties, namely, Faculty of Education, Faculty of the Social Sciences and Faculty of Science. Having met with the lecturers-in-charge of the various classes, and sought their assistance towards using 10-15 minutes out of the two hour period designated for the lectures, the researcher booked appointments, and made a solid plan with the lecturers ahead of the lecture time.

Moreover, based on the variations in the lecture periods among the three lecturers, and for the purpose of effective time management, the researcher with the agreement of the lecturers-in-charge labelled the approved lecture venues research venue 1, 2 and 3. In order to ensure a successful data collection process, and as a part of the physical planning process, the researcher and his assistants had earlier visited each of the three research venues ahead of the students' arrival for lectures. The visibility study enabled the research team to concretize the plan towards a successful administration and retrieval of questionnaires within the given time.

Specifically, at 9:11am on Saturday 10th of December, 2016, the first batch of the main study's data collection process began with the research venue 1 participants in the University of Ibadan. At that time, the lecture hall was already filled with the targeted research participants, as they were ready for their usual lectures for the study. However, shortly before the administration of the questionnaires to the participants in the lecture hall, the researcher having being introduced to the participants by the lecturer, remained standing in front of the lecture hall, and addressed the participants at large. In other words, the research participants were addressed collectively as a group. Their voluntary participation in the study was carefully sought by ways of telling them the importance of the study and seeking their willingness to participate. They were also informed of the benefits of participating in terms of knowledge and human resource management orientations. Moreover, assurance was given to the participants by the researcher in respect of the confidentiality of all information supplied as the importance of truthfulness and sincerity of responses were also emphasised.

Furthermore, having gained the cooperation of the participants, a questionnaire attached with an informed consent form was administered to each of them to complete with the assistance of the four research team members. Before the participants started to fill in the questionnaire, efforts were made by the researcher to ensure that participants read the instructions on the questionnaire, signed the informed consent form, and ask any questions. They were told not to write any identity information, but could use either a pen or a pencil to mark a corresponding opinion against each of the statements or items on the questionnaire.

However, the emphasis was on diligence in filling the questionnaires so as to ensure that respondents attempted questions not only on the front page but also the second, third and

fourth pages. So the process of administration and retrieval of questionnaires with the informed consent forms in the research venue 1 lasted for 15 minutes. The same pattern was adopted and applied in the other two research venues within the University of Ibadan, where the study was repeated the same day. Therefore, at the end of the first day of the main study's data collection process, 783 questionnaires were administered with a copy each of the informed consent forms. However, out of the 783 administered research instruments, 761 were retrieved while the remaining 21 could not be traced.

Meanwhile, in order to ensure the accuracy and reliability of the data collected, additional efforts were exerted immediately to thoroughly screen the 761 retrieved questionnaires, and identify any one that was not completely filled by the participants. The results of the screening revealed that 14 questionnaires out of the total number of 761 questionnaires that were retrieved were not completely filled. Consequently, the 14 incomplete filled questionnaires were discarded while the remaining 747 questionnaires that were certified okay were retained and handed over to the research analyst for the data entry process. Hence, the data entry process for the first batch of data commenced on Monday 12th of December, 2016 and ended on Thursday 22nd of December, 2016.

4.7.3 Procedure of Data Collection in Obafemi Awolowo University

The second phase of the data collection process took place in Moro Campus of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife. Having officially sought the permission of the University's management, through the aforementioned letters and documentations, the researcher enjoyed the follow-up assistance of Dr. Matthew Oladosu, a lecturer in the Department of Psychology, Obafemi Awolowo University. The request to conduct the fieldwork among the Executive Master

of Business Administration (MBA) students of the university was officially granted by the Programme Cordinator, Prof. Elumilade, and the personal efforts of Dr. Oladosu who met with Prof. Elumilade on behalf of the researcher and represented his request. Consequently, the approval to engage the aforementioned students as participants in the on-going research was officially granted. Hence, 14th of January, 2017 was scheduled for the data collection at Moro Campus, the lecture venue for the Executive MBA programme.

The researcher and his four research assistants left Ibadan City (the camp base of the research team) for another phase of the filed work, which took place at the Moro Campus of Obafemi Awolowo University. The team went along with 1,218 printed questionnaires and informed consent forms.

The targeted participants arrived at the venue in batches, between 8:45am and 9:30am. The university has about ten big coaster buses, which are used to convey the Executive MBA students (the study participants) every Saturday from Lagos and Ibadan to the Moro Campus. Others came in their personal cars from different locations around South-West Nigeria. The first set of students arrived on the campus at 8:45 am. However, the first period of lectures for the day was scheduled to commence at 9:00 am and end at 11am. Moreover, there were two categories (1st year and 2nd year) of the Executive MBA students. Hence, they were meant to attend their lectures separately in each of the two large lecture halls.

Meanwhile, each participant was required to register his or her presence first, at the registration spot that was provided by the university. This is the usual practice of the university, and it is meant to ensure that the participants attend their lectures regularly. Upon registration, the participants were each given a copy of the research questionnaire, attached with the informed

consent form, and they were asked to take their seats in the lecture halls. The participants were furthermore instructed not to attempt the questions on the questionnaires yet until the lecturer came into the class to address them over the on-going research.

Having met the lecturers-in-charge of the two classes earlier, and sought their permissions in using 10-15 minutes out of the 2-hour period designated for the lectures, the researcher was introduced to the participants by the lecturers. Thereafter, the researcher was given an opportunity to address the participants in the lecture halls. In other words, the research participants were addressed collectively as a group in the two lecture halls. Their voluntary participations in the study was carefully sought by ways of telling them the importance of the study and seeking their willingness to participate. They were also informed of the benefits of participating in terms of knowledge and human resource management orientations. Moreover, assurance was given to the participants by the researcher, in respect of the confidentiality of all information supplied as the importance of truthfulness and sincerity of responses were also emphasised.

Before the participants started to fill the questionnaires, efforts were made by the researcher, to ensure that participants read the instructions on the questionnaires and signed the informed consent form, and asked any questions. They were told not to write any identity information, but could use either a pen or a pencil to mark a corresponding opinion against each of the statements or items on the questionnaire. However, the emphasis was on diligence in filling the questionnaires so as to ensure that respondents attempted questions not only on the front page, but also the second, third and fourth pages. Hence, participants were asked to properly fill and submit the questionnaires at the registration spot before the end of lectures for the day. The

process of administration and retrieval of questionnaires along with the informed consent forms lasted four hours. Therefore, at the end of the day, 752 questionnaires were administered with a copy each of the informed consent forms. However, out of the 752 administered research instruments, 739 were retrieved while the remaining 13 could not be traced.

Meanwhile, in order to ensure the accuracy and reliability of the data collected, additional efforts were exerted immediately to thoroughly screen the 739 retrieved questionnaires, and identify any one that was not completely filled by the participants. The results of the screening revealed that 12 questionnaires out of the total number of 739 questionnaires that were retrieved were not completely filled. Consequently, the 12 incompletely filled questionnaires were discarded while the remaining 727 questionnaires that were certified okay were retained and handed over to the research analyst for data entry process. Hence, the data entry process for the second batch of data commenced on Monday 16th of December, 2016 and ended on Wednesday 18th of December, 2016.

4.7.4 Procedure of Data Collection in Lagos Business School (Pan-Atlantic University)

Prior to the date of the second batch of fieldwork, which was conducted in the Moro Campus of Obafemi Awolowo Univeristy, the researcher secured the permission of the management of Lagos Business School to engage the Executive Master of Business Administration Students in the on-going research. The permission was officially sought with copies of the aforementioned letters and documentations. The letters and documentations were directed to the Dean, Pan-Atlantic University. Having submitted the electronic copies of the letters and documentations via the official email address of the Dean, Dr. Enase Okonedu, the researcher did a follow up visit to the university. He met with the Personal Assistant to the Dean, Mrs. Joy Lawal, and

discussed further the approval to engage the Executive Master of Business Administration (MBA) students in the proposed research.

Consequently, the permission was granted, and the researcher was linked with the class representative, who volunteered to assist in administering the research instruments among his colleagues, on behalf of the researcher via emails. Hence, the electronic copies of the research instruments were sent by the researcher to the class representative's email, and he agreed to administer it electronically among the targeted participants. Subsequently, as a way of follow up, the researcher communicated with the class representative on a daily basis and to ensure that the research questionnaire and informed consent forms were being forwarded accordingly to the participants, as agreed.

Afterward, between Friday 13th of January, 2017 and Wednesday 18th of January, 2017, 162 electronically filled questionnaires were received in the email box of the researcher. Among the 162 electronically filled questionnaires, 17 were found not completely filled. However, among the remaining 145 questionnaires that were found appropriately filled, 58 were picked randomly and the data were entered into the spread sheet, which contained the data from the first two batches of the data collection processes. Therefore, at the end of the entire fieldwork, which lasted for seven weeks from 6th of December, 2016 to 20th of January, 2017, the grand total number of screened questionnaires subjected to statistical analysis was 1,532.

4.8 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA

The data collected was analysed based on the hypotheses stated, using version 20 of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), and version 23 of the Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS). Moreover, both the descriptive and inferential statistical methods were applied in analysing the data. Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 were analysed, using Pearson Correlation Analysis. Hypotheses 4, 5 and 6 were analysed using Multiple Regression Analysis while the percentage, mean, standard deviation and the frequency of the biographical and occupational data were also determined by the descriptive statistics. Furthermore, the proposed conceptual model of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour was tested, using the Structural Equation Model.

4.9 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER FOUR

First, the chapter has presented the systematic processes and approaches adopted and implemented in the study in conducting the fieldwork. The chapter carefully stated and justified the appropriate research design adopted; identified the target population, sample frame; determined the appropriate sample size; and presented the sampling techniques and procedure used in the data collection process. The chapter also explained the processes adopted to revalidate the research instruments, clearly presented the scales that formed the instrument with their acompaning and newly generated psychometric properties. All ethical procedures observed in the course of the study were clearly explained, and the statistical tools used in analyzing data, testing hypotheses and confirming the results were stated in the chapter. The tabular presensation of results and the corresponding interpretations of results formed the next chapter (Chapter five).

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analysis of the data collected in tabular and diagrammatic forms based on the stated hypotheses. It further shows an inclusive interpretation of the results. Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 are as stated below:

Hypothesis 1

H_0: There is no statistical significant relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

H_1: Occupational stress is significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 2

H_0: There is no statistical significant relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour.

H_1: Psychological capital is significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 3

H_0: There is no statistical significant relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour.

H_1: Emotional intelligence is significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour.

5.2.1 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

The above stated hypotheses were tested using Pearson Correlations Analysis. The results are

presented in the Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1: A Summary of Pearson Correlational Analysis Showing the Relationships among Occupational Stress, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence

Variable	OCB	Psycap	EI	OS
Organisational citizenship beh. (OCB)	1	.588**	.473**	.070**
sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.006
n	1532	1532	1532	1532
Psychological capital (Psycap)	.588**	1	.493**	.128**
sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
n	1532	1532	1532	1532
Emotional intelligence (EI)	.473**	.493**	1	.086**
sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.001
n	1532	1532	1532	1532
Occupational stress (OS)	.070**	.128**	.086**	1
sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.000	.001	
n	1532	1532	1532	1532

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

The results in Table 5.1 above represent the outcomes of the inferential statistical analysis of

hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. In the first instance, the results show that there is a weak positive

relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, r = 0.070,

p<0.01. This implies that even though there is a positive relationship observed between

occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, the level of the observed

relationship between the two aforementioned variables is very weak, considering the given

significance value, 0.006 = 0.01 (approximated to 2 decimal points), which is exactly the

maximum limit of acceptable value of significance at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). The results further

explain that though there is an indication of a positive relationship between occupational stress

and organisational citizenship behaviour, the observed level of relationship between the two

variables is still within the acceptable level of significance. Thus, perhaps, it requires the

introduction of one or more positive variables to serve as moderators or mediators in order to

yield a highly significant and reliable relationship. Therefore, based on the results and

interpretations above, hypothesis 1 H_0, which stated that occupational stress is not significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour is rejected while H_1, which stated that occupational stress is significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour is confirmed, hence it is accepted. In other words, hypothesis 1 H_0 is rejected while H_1 is accepted.

Figure 5.1 below depicts the picture of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Occupational stress

Organisational citizenship behaviour

*r = 0.070** ; p<0.01*

Figure 5.1 Relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour

In the second instance, the results in Table 5.1 above show that there is a significant positive relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour, r = 0.588, p<0.01. This implies that there is a strong relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour. It further explains that the nature of the association between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour is positive such that an observed increase in the level of one concurrently is associated with an increase in the level of

the other. In other words, psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour move together in a similar direction.

Therefore, based on the results and interpretations above, hypothesis 2 H_0, which stated that psychological capital is not significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour, is rejected while H_1, which stated that psychological capital is significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour, is accepted. In other words, hypothesis 2 H_0 is rejected while the H_1 is accepted.

Figure 5.2 below depicts the picture of the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour.
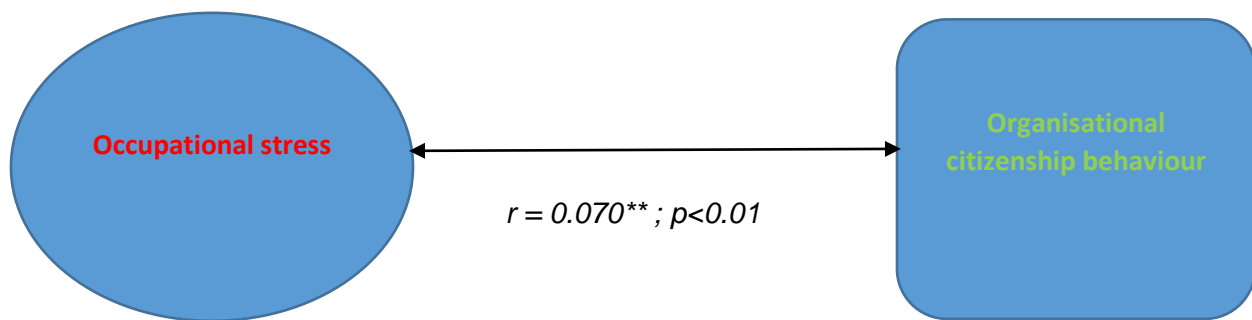

Psychological capital

r = 0.588** ; p<0.01

Organisational citizenship behaviour
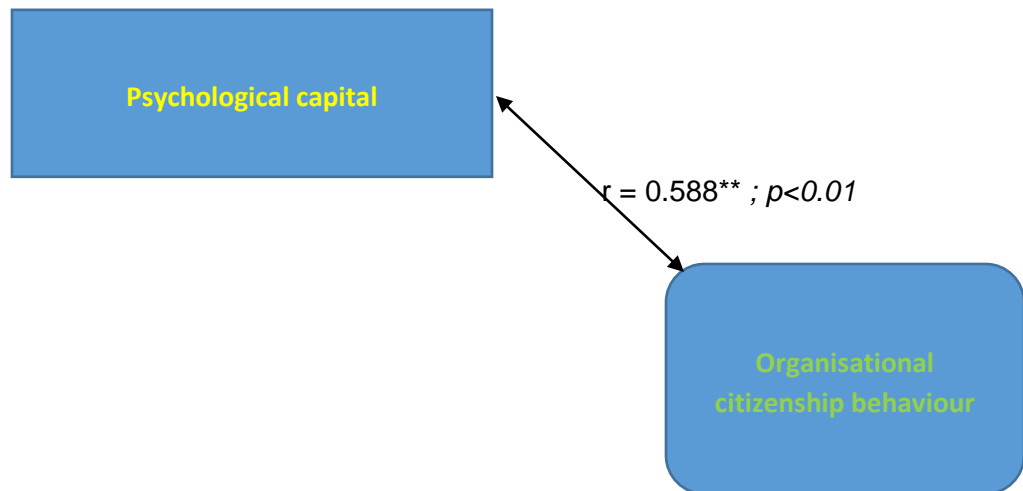
Figure 5.2 Relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour

In the third instance, the results in Table 5.1 above show that there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour, r = 0.473, p<0.01. This implies that there is a moderate positive relationship between emotional

intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. It further explains that the nature of the association between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour is positive such that an observed increase in the level of one concurrently is associated with an increase in the level of the other. In other words, emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour also move together in a similar direction.

Therefore, based on the results and interpretations above, hypothesis 3 H_0, which stated that emotional intelligence is not significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour, is rejected while H_1, which stated that emotional intelligence is significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour, is accepted. In other words, hypothesis 3 H_0 is rejected while the H_1 is accepted.

Figure 5.3 below depicts the picture of the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Organisational citizenship behaviour

Emotional intelligence

$r = 0.473^{**} ; p<0.01$
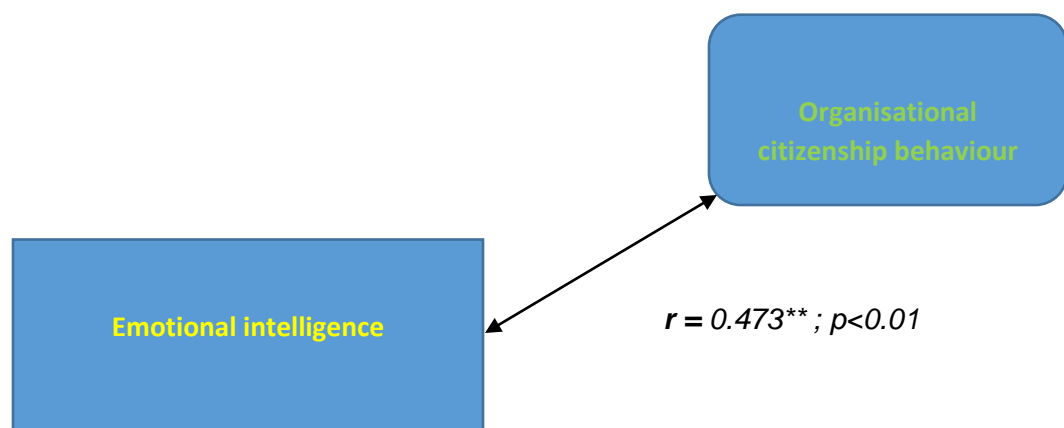
Figure 5.3 Relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour

The other deductions that could be derived from the results in Table 5.1 apart from the inferences that were made on hypotheses 1, 2 and 3, are the following additional existing relationships: there is also a significant positive relationship between psychological capital and occupational stress, r = 0.128, p<0.01. The result implies that psychological capital is

significantly positively related to occupational stress. There is also a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational stress, r = 0.086, p<0.01. The result implies that emotional intelligence is significantly positively related to occupational stress.

Nevertheless, to show in depth the foundation of the above identified relationships that exist among the four major variables (psychological capital, emotional intelligence, occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour) of interest in the study, it is also essential to investigate the nature of relationships that exist among the components of some of the aforementioned major variables of interest. Hence, Tables 5.2 below presents the relationships among organisational citizenship behaviour, altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue (dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour), self-efficacy, hope, resilience, optimism (dimensions of psychological capital) and emotional awareness of others (a component of emotional intelligence). Figure 5.4 below depicts the picture of the relationships among psychological capital, emotional intelligence and occupational stress.
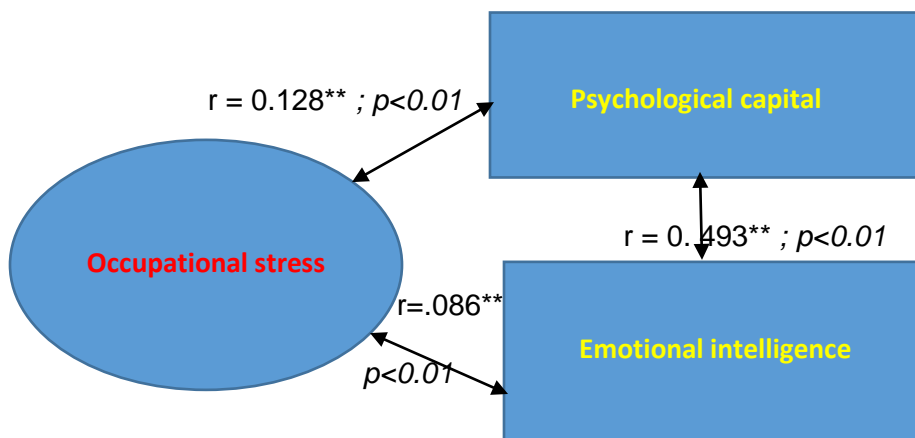

Figure 5.4 Relationship among psychological capital, emotional intelligence and occupational stress

5.2.2 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

Table 5.2: A Summary of Pearson Correlation Analysis Showing the Relationships among OCB, the Four Dimensions of OCB, the Four Dimensions of PsyCap and Emotional Awareness of others (Emotional Intelligence)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1) OCB	1	.885**	.755**	.843**	.516**	.495**	.444**	.373**	.473**
2) AltruismOCB	.885**	1	.522**	.523**	.440**	.432**	.402**	.296**	.440**
3) Conscien.OCB	.755**	.522**	1	.495**	.428**	.395**	.342**	.306**	.362**
4) Civic virt.OCB	.843**	.523**	.495**	1	.413**	.396**	.347**	.323**	.359**
5) Self-Eff. Psycap	.516**	.440**	.428**	.413**	1	.622**	.501**	.403**	.438**
6) Hope Psycap	.495**	.432**	.395**	.396**	.622**	1	.497**	.448**	.404**
7) ResiliencePsycap	.444**	.402**	.342**	.347**	.501**	.497**	1	.381**	.369**
8) OptimismPsycap	.373**	.296**	.306**	.323**	.403**	.448**	.381**	1	.345**
9)EmotionalAwareness of Others (EI)	.473**	.440**	.362**	.359**	.438**	.404**	.369**	.345**	1

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

The results of correlation analysis in table 5.2 above show that there is a significant positive relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and altruism, r = 0.885, p<0.01. It confirms that altruism is, indeed, strongly related to organisational citizenship behaviour. The results further show that there is a significant positive relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and civic virtue, r = 0.843, p<0.01. It also confirms that civic virtue is strongly related to organisation citizenship behaviour. Likewise, the results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and conscientiousness, r = 0.755, p<0.01. It also confirms that conscientiousness is strongly related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Moreover, from the results in Table 5.2, there is a significant positive relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and the self-efficacy component of psychological capital, r = 0.516, p<0.01. The result implies that as self-efficacy increases so also does organisational citizenship behaviour. Similarly, the results in the table above show that there is a significant

positive relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and the hope component of psychological capital, r = 0.495, p<0.01. It also means that as the level of hope increases so the level of organisational citizenship behaviour increases.

Furthermore, the results in Table 5.2 show that there is a significant positive relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and the resilience component of psychological capital, r = 0.444, p<0.01. It implies that organisational citizenship behaviour and resilience move together in the same direction. Additionally, from the same table, results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and the optimism component of psychological capital, r = 0.373, p<0.01. The result suggests that organisational citizenship behaviour positively and directly correlated with resilience.

Besides, the results in Table 5.2 show that there is a significant positive relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and the emotional awareness of other components of emotional intelligence, r = 0.473, p<0.01. Thus, organisational citizenship behaviour and emotional intelligence are positively correlated.

In addition, from Table 5.2, the results reveal that there is a significant positive relationship between altruism and conscientiousness, r = 0.522, p<0.01. The results also indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between altruism and civic virtue, r = 0.523, p<0.01. Similarly, the results show that there is a significant positive relationship between altruism and self-efficacy, r = 0.440, p<0.01. Equally, the results suggest that there is a significant positive relationship between altruism and hope, r = 0.432, p<0.01. Likewise, the results depict that there is a significant positive relationship between altruism and resilience, r = 0.402, p<0.01.

Furthermore, the results illustrate that there is a significant positive relationship between altruism and optimism, r = 0.296, p<0.01. Still, the results exemplify that there is a significant positive relationship between altruism and emotional awareness of others (emotional intelligence), r = 0.440, p<0.01.

Similarly, the results in Table 5.2 reveal that there is a significant positive relationship between conscientiousness and civic virtue, r = 0.495, p<0.01. In the same way, the results reveal that there is a significant positive relationship between conscientiousness and self-efficacy, r = 0.428, p<0.01. Correspondingly, the results show that there is a significant positive relationship between conscientiousness and hope, r = 0.395, p<0.01. Also, it shows that there is a significant positive relationship between conscientiousness and resilience, r = 0.342, p<0.01. Moreover, the results show that there is a significant positive relationship between conscientiousness and optimism, r = 0.306, p<0.01. Besides, it shows that there is a significant positive relationship between conscientiousness and emotional awareness of others (emotional intelligence), r = 0.362, p<0.01.

Furthermore, from Table 5.2, the results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between civic virtue and self-efficacy, r = 0.413, p<0.01. Likewise, the results demonstrate that there is a significant positive relationship between civic virtue and hope, r = 0.396, p<0.01. In the same vein, the results prove that that there is a significant positive relationship between civic virtue and resilience, r = 0.347, p<0.01. Equally, the results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between civic virtue and optimism, r = 0.323, p<0.01. Also, it reveals that there is a significant positive relationship between civic virtue and emotional awareness of others (emotional intelligence), r = 0.359, p<0.01.

In the same way, the results in the Table 5.2 show that there is a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and hope, r = 0.622, p<0.01. Likewise, the results establish that there is a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and resilience, r = 0.501, p<0.01. At the same time, the results prove that there is a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and optimism, r = 0.403, p<0.01. Nevertheless, the results ascertain that that there is a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and emotional awareness of others (emotional intelligence), r = 0.438, p<0.01.

Moreover, from the results in the Table 5.2, it is found that there is a significant positive relationship between hope and resilience, r = 0.497, p<0.01. Similarly, there is also a significant positive relationship between hope and optimism, r = 0.448, p<0.01, and between hope and emotional awareness of others (emotional intelligence), r = 0.404, p<0.01.

Additionally, from the same table, results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between resilience and optimism, r = 0.381, p<0.01, and between resilience and emotional awareness of others (emotional intelligence), r = 0.369. Lastly, the results in the Table 5.2 reveal that there is a significant positive relationship between optimism and emotional awareness of others (emotional intelligence), r = 0.345, p<0.01.

The summary of the above interpretations is that the intercorrelation matrix of all variables in the Table 5.2 demostrates that all the variables that were considered are positively interrelated with one another. Conclusively, the descriptive analyses showing mean and standard deviation of participants' responses of variables and their dimensions are presented in the Table 5.3 below.

5.2.3 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

Table 5.3: A Summary Table of Descriptive Analysis Showing the Mean Difference and Standard Deviation among OCB, the three Dimensions of OCB, the four Dimensions of PsyCap, Emotional Awareness of others (Emotional Intelligence) and Occupational Stress

Variable	N	$\overline{X}$	SD
Psychological capital	1532	60.4817	8.49292
Emotional intelligence	1532	8.0242	1.45656
Occupational stress	1532	24.3544	5.40185
Organisational citizenship behaviour	1532	52.3890	6.94911
Self-efficacy (psycap)	1532	20.3845	3.54578
Hope (psycap)	1532	20.5281	3.40532
Resilience (psycap)	1532	15.3544	2.59459
Optimism (psycap)	1532	8.0424	1.65358
Emotional awareness of others (EI)	1532	8.0242	1.45656
Altruism (OCB)	1532	20.0020	3.25440
Conscientiousness (OCB)	1532	11.8035	1.97103
Civic virtue (OCB)	1532	20.5836	3.17756
Valid N (listwise)	1532		

The results in the Tables 5.3 above show the levels at which the participants possessed each of the variables of consideration in the study. For instance, the results of descriptive statistics show that the participants demonstrated a higher level of psychological capital, $\overline{X}$ = 60.482, SD = 8.493. The results imply that the participants in the study are positively oriented about themselves. Similarly, the results in the Table 5.3 above show that participants expressed a high level of organisational citizenship behaviour, $\overline{X}$ = 52.389, SD = 6.949, which also indicates that the participants are highly interested in helping their colleagues at work, at the same time ensuring that their personal and organisational goals are achieved. Likewise, the results in Table 5.3 further show that the participants expressed a significant amount of occupational stress, $\overline{X}$ = 24.354, SD = 5.402. The results mean that the participants have experienced some amount of occupational stress. In terms of emotional intelligence, results in the Table 5.3 reveal that the participants demonstrated a certain level of emotional intelligence, $\overline{X}$ = 8.024, SD = 1.457.

The results further reveal that participants expressed significantly higher levels of civic virtue, $\overline{X}$ = 20.584, SD = 3.178; hope, $\overline{X}$ = 20.528, SD = 3.405; self-efficacy, $\overline{X}$ = 20.385, SD = 3.546; altruism, $\overline{X}$ = 20.002, SD = 3.254; resilience, $\overline{X}$ = 15.354, SD = 2.595; conscientiousness, $\overline{X}$ = 11.804, SD = 1.971; optimism, $\overline{X}$ = 8.042, SD = 1.653; and emotional awareness of others $\overline{X}$ = 8.024, SD = 1.457.

5.2.4 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

On the other hand, hypotheses 4, which stated that H_0: Psychological capital is not a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour; H_1: Psychological capital is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, was tested using Multiple Regression Analysis, and confirmed through Structural Equation Analysis. The results are presented in the Table 5.4 below.

Table 5.4: A Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Showing the Moderating Role of Psychological Capital in the Relationship between Occupational Stress and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Variable	R	R^2	B	T	F	P
Occupational stress			0.070	2.738		0.006
Occupational stress, Psychological capital with Occupational stress	0.105	0.010	0.064	2.490	8.514	0.000

  a. Dependent variable: Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)
  b. Predictor: Occupational stress (OS)
  c. Predictor, Moderator with Predictor: OS, PsyCap with OS

The results in the Table 5.4 above show that psychological capital is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, F

(2,1529) = 8.514; R^2= 0.011; p <.01. The results also indicate that occupational stress independently predicts organisational citizenship behaviour, (β = 0.070; t=2.738; p < .05). It further shows that the moderating role of psychological capital accounts for only 1% of the total variance in the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. It thus, implies that many other factors that were not considered in the study could be responsible for the remaining 99% variance in the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour could.

In view of the above results and its interpretations, hypothesis 4 H_0, which states that psychological capital is not a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour is rejected while the H_1, which states that psychological capital is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour is accepted. In other words, hypothesis 4 H_0 is rejected while the H_1 is accepted.

Figure 5.5 below depicts the picture of psychological capital moderating the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

$$f = 8.514; R^2 = 0.011$$

Figure 5.5 Psychological capital as a moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour

5.2.5 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

Similarly, hypothesis 5, which stated that H_0: Emotional intelligence is not a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour; H_1: Emotional intelligence is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, was tested using Multiple Regression Analysis, and confirmed through Structural Equation Analysis. The results are presented in the Table 5.5 below.

Table 5.5: A Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Showing the Moderating Role of Emotional Intelligence in the Relationship between Occupational Stress and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Variable	R	R^2	B	t	F	P
Occupational stress			0.063	2.473		0.013
Occupational stress, Emotional Intelligence with Occupational stress	0.088	0.008	0.054	2.092	5.945	0.003

a. Dependent variable: Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

b. Predictor: Occupational stress (OS)

c. Predictor, Moderator with Predictor: OS, EI with OS

The results in the table 5.5 above show that emotional intelligence is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, $F_{(2,1529)}$ = 5.945; R^2= 0.008; p <.05. The results also indicate that occupational stress independently predicts organisational citizenship behaviour, (β = 0.063; t = 2.473; p < .05). It further shows that the moderating role of emotional intelligence accounts for 8% of the total variance in the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. It thus implies that some other factors that were not considered in the study could be responsible for the remaining 92% variance in the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour could.

In view of the above results and its interpretations, hypothesis 5 H_0, which states that emotional intelligence is not a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, is rejected while the H_1, which states that emotional intelligence is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and

organisational citizenship behaviour is accepted. In other words, hypothesis 5 H_0 is rejected while the H_1 is accepted.

Figure 5.6 depicts the picture of emotional intelligence moderating the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.
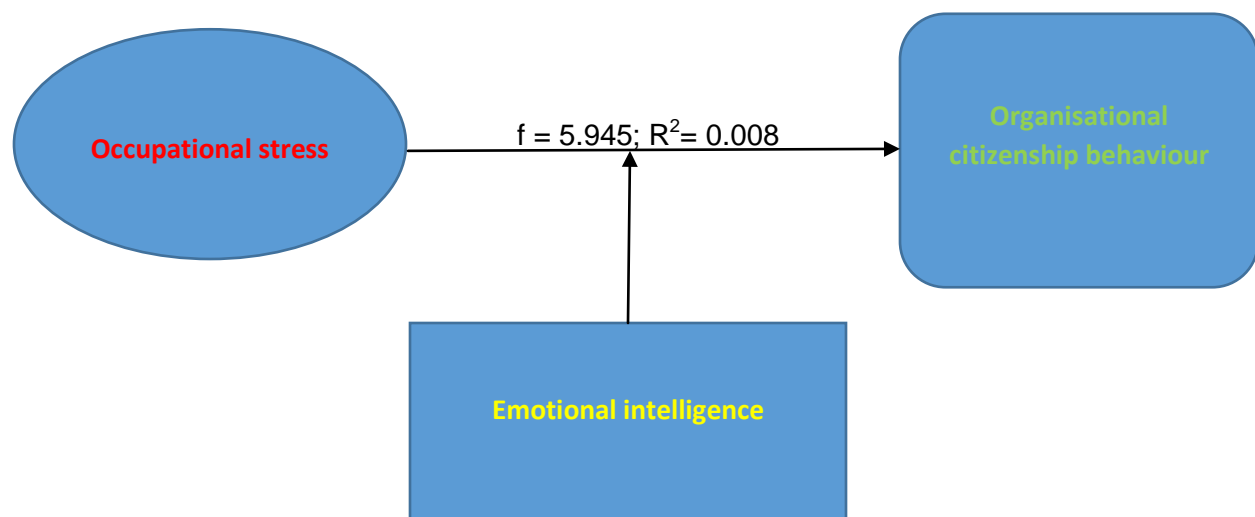
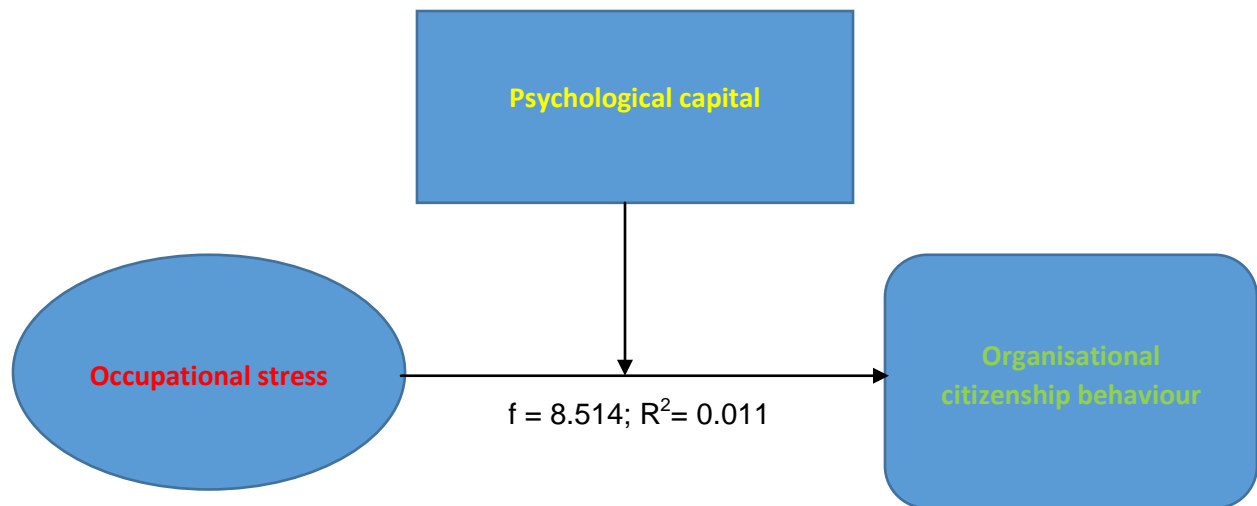
Figure 5.6 Emotional intelligence as a moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour

Likewise, hypothesis 6, which stated that H_0: Psychological capital and emotional intelligence are not significant joint moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour; H_1: Psychological capital and emotional intelligence are significant joint moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, was tested using Multiple Regression Analysis, and confirmed through Structural Equation Analysis. The results are presented in the Table 5.6 below.

5.2.6 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

Table 5.6: A Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Showing Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence as Joint Moderators of the Relationship between Occupational Stress and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Variable	R	R^2	B	T	F	P
Emotional intelligence, Psychological capital with occupational stress	0.432	0.186	0.432	18.753	221.240	0.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

b. Moderators with Predictor: Emotional intelligence, Psychological Capital with Occupational stress

The results in the Table 5.6 above reveal that psychological capital and emotional intelligence are significant joint moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, $F (1,1530) = 221.240$; $R^2= 0.186$; $p <.01$. The results further show that the joint moderators (emotional intelligence with psychological capital) accounts for 19% of the total variance in the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. It therefore means that some other factors that were not considered in the study could be responsible for the remaining 81% variance in the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Figure 5.7 depicts the picture of psychological capital and emotional intelligence jointly moderating the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.
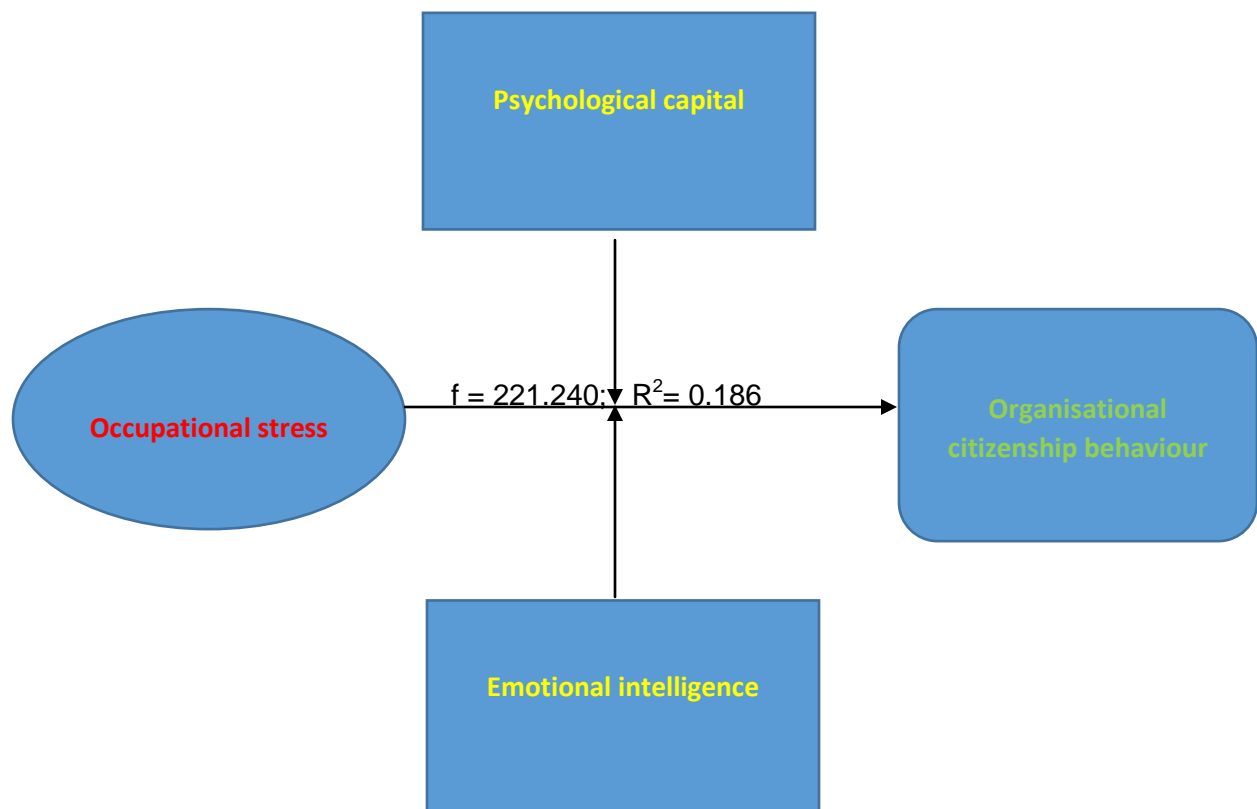
**Figure 5.7 Empirically tested model of psychological intervention for effective management of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour**

Having tested the six stated hypotheses in the study, and presented the results in the Tables 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5 and 5.6 above, along with the comprehensive interpretations, nevertheless, it is also important that the study further test the proposed conceptual model of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, for confirmation. Hence, Tables 5.7 and Figure 5.8 below present the results of a statistical validation of the proposed model, using Structural Equation Analysis.

5.2.7 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

Table 5.7: A Summary of Structural Equation Analysis Showing the Standardized Direct Effects of Variables in the Model of Occupational Stress and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Variables		Estimate	P
Psychological capital	<----- Emotional intelligence	0.547	***
Psychological capital	<----- Occupational stress	0.100	***
Organisational citizenship behaviour	<----- Occupational stress	-0.038	0.105
Organisational citizenship behaviour	<----- Emotional intelligence	0.183	***
Organisational citizenship behaviour	<----- Psychological capital	0.657	***
Civic virtue_OCB	<----- Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	0.695	***
Altruism_OCB	<----- Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	0.756	***
Conscientiousness_OCB	<----- Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	0.696	***
Self-efficacy_PsyCap	<----- Psychological capital	0.782	***
Hope_PsyCap	<----- Psychological capital	0.774	***
Resilience_PsyCap	<----- Psychological capital	0.647	***
Optimism_PsyCap	<----- Psychological capital	0.558	***

Sample size = 1532

Chi-square = 76.703

Degrees of freedom = 24

Probability level = 0.000

RMSEA = 0.273

Figure 5.8 on the next page depicts Structural Equation Showing the Path Coefficients for the Model Testing.
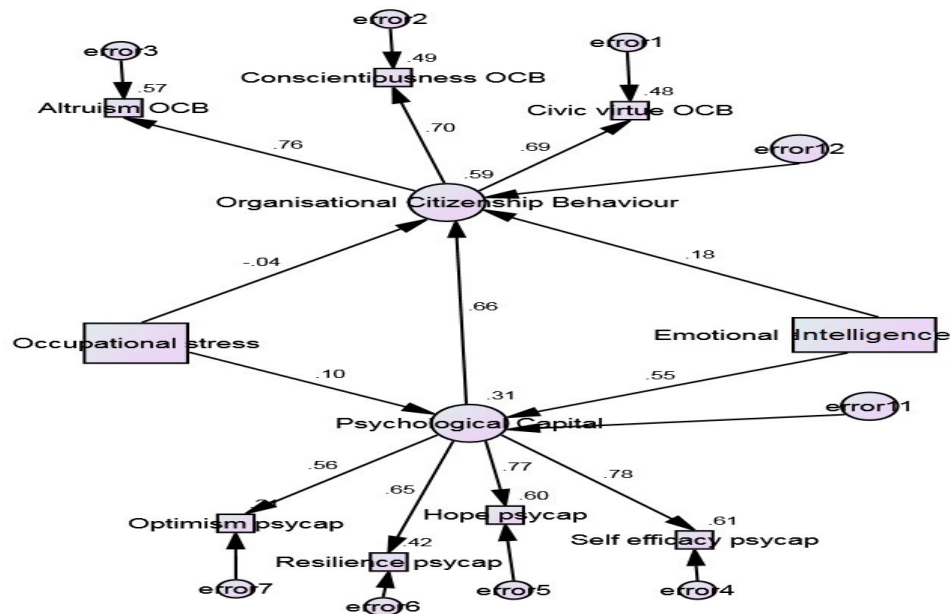
Figure 5.8 Structural equation model of psychological intervention for effective management of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour

The results in the Table 5.7 and in Figure 5.8 above reveal that psychological capital has a direct and significant positive effect on organisational citizenship behaviour, R= 0.657, p<.001. Similarly, the results show that emotional intelligence has a direct and significant positive effect on organisational citizenship behaviour, R= 0.183, p<.001. However, the results indicate that occupational stress neither directly nor positively affects organisational citizenship behaviour, R= -0.038, p>.05. On the other hand, the results in the Table 5.7 and in Figure 5.8 above further demonstrate that psychological capital has a direct and significant positive effect on occupational stress, R= 0.100, p<.001. Moreover, the results prove that emotional intelligence has a direct and significant positive effect on psychological capital, R= 0.547, p<.001. Still, from

Table 5.7 and Figure 5.8 above, the results show that civic virtue (R= 0.695, p<.001), altruism (R= 0.756, p<.001) and conscientiousness (R= 0.696, p<.001) have a significant individual positive effect on organisational citizenship behaviour. Similarly, the results reveal that self-efficacy (R= 0.782, p<.001), hope (R= 0.774, p<.001), resilience (R= 0.647, p<.001) and optimism (R= 0.558, p<.001) had a significant individual positive effect on psychological capital. In view of the above results and the interpretations of structural equation analysis, the study therefore confirmed and accepted the presented model of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. The confirmed model is presented in Figure 5.9 below.
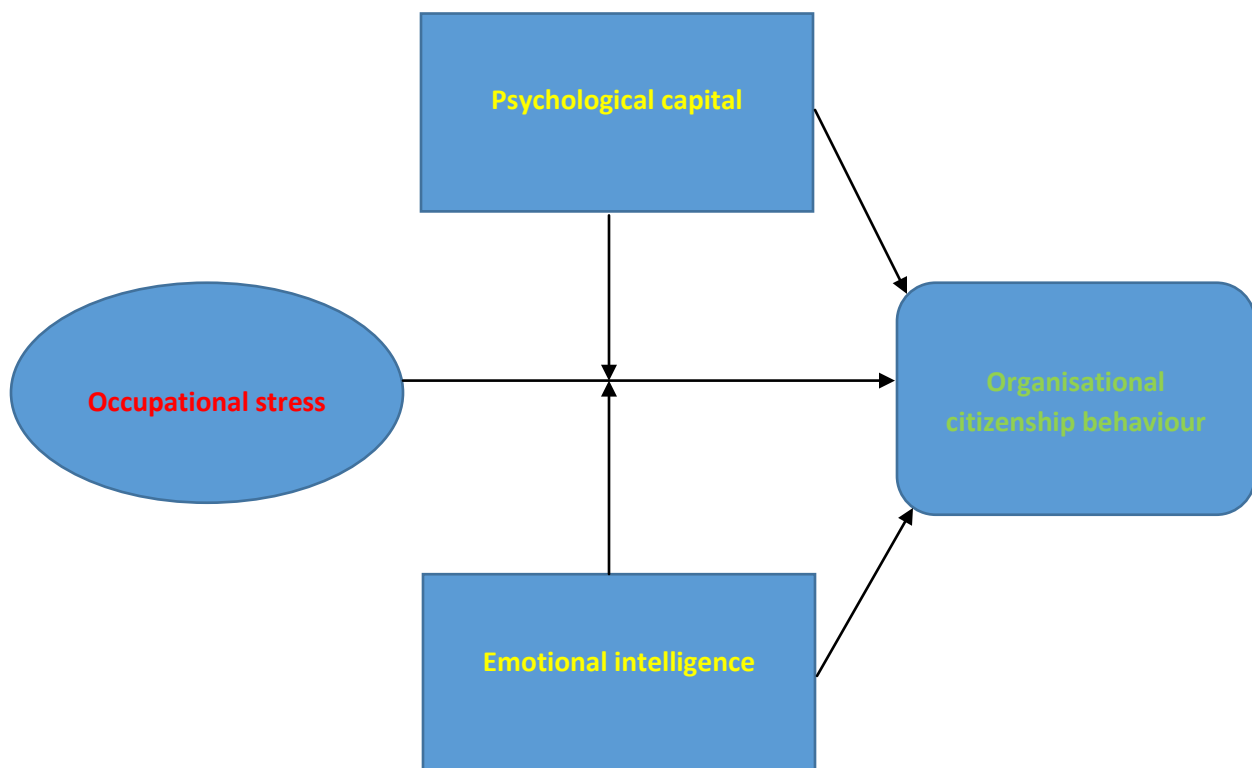
Figure 5.9 Empirical model of psychological intervention for effective management of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour

5.3 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER FIVE

First, the chapter has comprehensively presented the results of statistical analysis of the data collected in tabular and diagrammatic forms based on hypotheses stated. The chapter has also carefully presented the interpretation of results, and confirmed the conceptual model which was earlier presented in the chapter three of this study, through Structural Equation Modeling. These therefore, set a plateform for discussing the results more practically in the final chapter (Chapter six), and forming scholarly conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter comprehensively discuss the findings of the present study in the light of findings of the previous related studies, and elucidates more with the support of some of the similar findings that were presented in chapter three of the study. The chapter further clarifies the meaning of each of the results that were presented and interpreted in chapter five of the study. It also presents the various submissions, in the form of conclusions that could be drawn from the present findings. In addition, the study suggests and recommends some effective and practical approaches that could be adopted and applied by managers, employers and other stakeholders in ensuring an effective management of the identified issues of interest in the present study, and finally indicates its limitations.

6.2 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The study was conducted to investigate psychological capital and emotional intelligence as predictors of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among graduate employees. Six hypotheses were stated and tested in the course of the study, and results are discussed in this section. It was found in the course of the study that H_1 of hypothesis 1, which states that occupational stress is significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour was partially confirmed while H_0 was rejected based on the results of the statistical analysis that was presented in the preceding chapter.

In other words, the results confirmed that there is a slight positive relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, which implies that for an employee to perform highly on a given task, he or she must perceive the task as challenging and moderately stressful, to stimulate a discharge of psychological resources that are required by the occupation. This is to buttress the fact that naturally, human beings tend to be indulgent and limit their efforts at work that underutilizes their mental and physical potential, but they are which most times results in an expression of dissatisfaction with the occupation, but are more productive at work that is challenging and requires more mental and physical concentration.

Furthermore, graduate employee jobs are mostly demanding in techniques and operations, and require thorough thought processes with physical readiness, such that graduate employees who are not well prepared to face the realities of the corporate work environment, beyond the familiar and traditional academic demands, which they have experienced during the course of their higher education, will definitely find it difficult to cope. In other words, even though the attainment of academic excellence requires some amount of mental and physical stress at least, to perform at an average level, much more is required by job performance.

In the context of the Nigerian work environment for instance, where the economy is very turbulent, maximum usefulness of technology is being dampened by the erratic electricity supply, labour law is not well implemented, governments and employers are owing the public servants and employees six months salaries and above, and where retrenchments and redundancy of employees are rampant, graduate employees are expected to constantly perform beyond the in-role performance. Consequently, stress is obviously embedded or incorporated into the Nigerian work environment while it is demanded from the graduate employees to sacrifice everything possible within their capacity to deliver beyond normality in order to

compete for the few available job positions, and possibly secure their employment. It therefore implies that in Nigeria particularly there is a positive relationship between occupational stress and the exhibition of organisational citizenship behaviour by the graduate employees.

In support of the above finding, Uzonwanne (2014) conducted a survey research on depression, anxiety and stress as correlates of organisational citizenship behaviour among employees in the oil and gas sector of Nigeria, and reported that there is a significant positive relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. Uzonwanne (2014) further stresses that although, there is a statistical positive relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, the observed positive relationship is weak. Similarly, Gregory, Yitzhak and Steffen's (2016) findings further corroborates the finding of the present study. Gregory, Yitzhak and Steffen (2016) report in their study of 116 male and female full-time graduate employees in three countries that self-initiated imposed overload is significantly, positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. On the other hand, many other investigators have recently reported in their various related studies that there is a significant inverse (negative) relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

The simple explanation that could be adduced for the different outcomes (i.e. positive and negative) concerning the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour that the differences, perhaps, is a consequence of different cultural or environmental settings where the various studies were conducted. More specifically, situtational factors for instance recapitalization and organisational structuring, in an environment where the national economy is highly affected by the global economic meltdown could call for a positive

relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, since employees are expected to do everything within their capacity to ensure that the organisation survives during the global economic challenges, and secure their employments. Meanwhile, in the countries where the effect of the global economic meltdown is not significant, employees are not pushed to the extreme of performance expectations, and therefore experience a minimal level of occupational stress while they naturally engage organisational citizenship behaviours.

For instance, in a recent descriptive-correlational study of the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and occupational stress that was conducted among 122 midwives at Mashhad, Iran, by Nourani, Kohansal, Esmaily and Hooshmand (2016), it was found that there is a significant negative association between organisational citizenship behaviour and occupational stress. Likewise, Arogundade and Lawal (2016) investigated the influence of perceived occupational stress on the organisational citizenship behaviour among 300 male and female bankers in Lagos, and report that there is an inverse relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. Similarly, Soo and Ali (2016) studied the linkage between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample of 472 bankers in Malaysia. The findings of Soo and Ali's (2016) study revealed that there is a significant negative relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. In the same vein, Ikonne and Madukoma (2016) conducted a survey on the relationship among organisational citizenship behaviour, job stress and satisafaction among 109 Librarians in some selected universities around the South-West Region of Nigeria. The results of the study shows that there is a significant negative relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and job stress.

Concerning the second hypothesis, the results of the present study show that the H_1 of hypothesis 2, which states that psychological capital is significantly positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour was confirmed while the H_0 was rejected. The result implies that psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour are both positive human behavioural dispositions that move concurrently along each other in the same direction. In other words, in relation to the Nigerian graduate employees' experience, the graduate employees who perpetually exhibit citizenship behaviour at work even in the face of the peculiar tough work environment of Nigeria, are those who have discovered, developed and are constantly demonstrating reasonable levels of hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy when saddled with difficulties on official responsibilities. This is to say that extra-role performance is rooted in the human psychological states of hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy.

For instance, a highly hopeful graduate employee is constantly motivated by his or her positive perception of the job or career, and willing to give his or her best on the official assignments with the belief that he or she is building a brighter career future, even while helping the colleagues and the organisation at large to meet the set goals and objectives. Such a graduate employee will drive the work team with his vision, to perform beyond the criterion. Likewise, the states of self-efficacy, optmisim and resilience drive a graduate employee who is found to possess the aforementioned psychological states at higher levels, and propel him or her to engage in citizenship behaviour in the workplace.

In support of the above, Suifan (2016) reports that, there is a significant relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizen behaviour. Equally, Biuki, Shekari, Karimi and Nodushan (2016), in their conceptual model of the mediating variable in the relationship

psychological capital and organisational variables, show that there is a significant positive relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour. Also, Shaheen, Bukhari and Adil (2016) surveyed the role of psychological capital on organisational citizenship behaviour in a sample of 325 male and female bank employees of private and public sector banks in Islamabad and Rawalpindi cities of Pakistan. Their findings showed that psychological capital is a significant determinant of organisational citizenship behaviour among the participants. Similarly, Pradhan, Jena and Bhattacharya (2016) examined the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour among 212 professionals in the Indian manufacturing and service industries, and observed that psychological capital is positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

In addition, in a survey that was conducted among 325 employees of public and private sector banks in Islamabad and Rawalpindi cities of Pakistan, Shaheen (2016) investigated the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour and its dimensions, including organisational citizenship behaviour, towards individuals and organisational citizenship behaviour towards organisations. The findings of the study show that there was a significant positive relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour. Besides, Ali-Shah and Ali-Shah (2016) adopted a longitudinal research design approach to investigate the relationship between psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour among 411 male and female employees of telecommunication companies, and found that psychological capital and the in-role performance type of organisational citizenship behaviour are significantly positively interrelated.

In the case of the third hypothesis, the results of the present study show that the H_1 of hypothesis 3, which states that emotional intelligence is significantly positively correlated with

organisational citizenship behaviour, was confirmed while the H_0 was rejected. The result denotes that emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour are both positive human behavioural qualities that move concurrently along with each other in the same direction, just as is the case of the relationship between psychological capital and emotional intelligence. In other words, the result suggests that emotions count in helping behaviour. The results further implies that for a graduate employee to have voluntarily determined to engage in a form of citizenship behaviour at work, such an individual must have systematically analysed the pros and cons of engaging in such, resolved in a conclusion that it is actually profitable to help colleagues who are deficient in one way or the other to execute their assigned duties, perhaps as he or she knows that helping the colleagues voluntarily will enable the organisation to meet its goals and objectives, which also guarantees his job security and the continual existence of the organisation.

Consequently, such citizenship behaviour of a graduate employee is said to have emanated from his or her ability to constructively reflect on organisational issues, and intelligently resolve within his or her thoughts and feelings that failure to assist colleagues at work is indirectly an attitude towards the collapse of the entire organisation, in which he or she will also share the negative outcomes such as the extinction of the organisation. Moreover, the phenomenon of emotional intelligence as it relates to graduate employees' exhibition of organisational citizenship behaviour could likewise be explained from the perspectives of team unity, team spirit and love, which enhance individuals' reasoning and feelings such that make employees to be more logical and empathetic in behaviour, attitude and perception.

Furthermore, emotional intelligence as it was significantly expressed in the different dimensions by the graduate employees, reveals that emotional self-control, emotional self-awareness, emotional expression and emotional awareness of others are among the positive aspects of the graduate employees' personality that enhances their engagement in organisational citizenship behaviour. For instance, the world of work is a social organisation that involves interpersonal relationship among employees, and gives opportunities for emotional expressions. Hence the measurement of performance of individuals in a team or an organisation should not be based on the in-role performance alone, but also include the ability of employees to positively affect one another in the process of attaining organisational objectives. Emotional awareness of others among the four dimensions of emotional intelligence is very important for effective group performance. Besides, it better explains the positive link between emotional intelligence and organistional citizenship behaviour, just as the other three components also play their roles in the helping graduate employees to voluntarily render helping hands to colleagues at work during difficult times.

In support of the above, Doshmanziari and Doshmanziari (2016) surveyed the opinions of a sample of 108 staff in a technical and vocational training centre at Tehran concerning the hypothesized relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. Consequently, the findings of the study showed that emotional intelligence has a positive and significant relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour. It was further established in the study that each of the components of emotional intelligence, which include self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management, is significantly and positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Similarly, Sabahi and Dashti (2016) empirically examined the role of emotional intelligence on organisational

citizenship behaviour among 140 randomly selected male and female employees of an Iranian bank. The study revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. The findings of the study further indicated that there are some positive and significant relationship among all components of emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour. Equally, Shirsavar and Souri (2015) explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour among 333 male and female high school teachers of District 5 in Tehran. It was found in the study that emotional intelligence is significantly and positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

In addition, Tofighi et al. (2015) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship among a sample of 150 nurses who were working in the university teaching hospitals within the south-east of Iran. The results of Pearson correlation analysis showed that there are significant positive relationships between the conscientiousness category of organisational citizenship behaviour and self-management, social awareness, and management of relationships categories of emotional intelligence; organisational citizenship behaviour and self-awareness and self-management categories of emotional intelligence.

However, Tofighi et al. (2015) further show that the Pearson correlation analysis revealed that there is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour when considered holistically. Moreover, the study also found that there is significant positive correlation between the mean scores of the civic virtue category and organisational citizenship behaviour and self-management, but the relationships between the courtesy category of organisational citizenship behaviour and self-management, social awareness and management of relationships are significantly negative. Nevertheless, there is a significant

positive relationship between the altruism category of organisational citizenship behaviour and the self-awareness categories of emotional intelligence (Tofighi et al., 2015).

In another related study that was conducted by Hemmati et al. (2013) among 60 male and female employees at Urmia Payam Noor University prior to that of Tofighi et al. (2015), the results of the correlation analysis revealed that there is a significant relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and emotional intelligence. In the same study, the results of regression analysis showed that 28% of the variance that was observed in organisational citizenship behaviour was accounted for by emotional intelligence.

In the case of the fourth hypothesis, the results of the present study show that the H_1 of hypothesis 4, which states that psychological capital is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, was confirmed while the H_0 was rejected. It simply means that psychological capital being a positive psychological variable has the capacity to buffer the impact of stress on employee citizenship behaviour such that it changes the traditional direction of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour. Usually, the direction of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour is naturally inverse, in the sense that an increase in the level of stress that is experienced by an employee automatically depresses his or her level of engagement in citizenship behaviour at work, thereby reducsing the employee's in-role and extra performances.

However, the introduction of psychological capital which is a moderator in the context of the study, and also naturally a positive psychological variable, automatically counteracts the effect of work stress on employee psyche and work related performance. In other words, it requires a

hopeful, efficacious, resilient and optimistic employee to highly perform in a stressful work environment, and at same time engage in an extra-role behaviour.

Although, the finding of the present study shows it is not only psychological capital that has the capacity to reduce the effect of occupational stress on employee performance or citizenship behaviour, psychological capital has been confirmed as significant among other psychosocial and organisational variables that could also reduce the negative impact of stress on performance. In Nigeria, for instance, the work environmental setting is highly absorbed by stressors of several kinds, which are enduring and diverse in nature. Hence, it requires diversification of methodology to actively combat the effect of stress on employee behaviour. However, psychological capital has proved to be effective to an extent, and it is working for the graduate employees as a coping mechanism to manage their career challenges and perform beyond their in-role duties in order to secure their careers. It keeps the graduate employees hopeful of a better career future, efficacious of their ability to perform even when it is not convenient, optimistic about positive job outcomes and resilient to overcome certain barriers to their performance.

In support of the above, more recently Wang et al. (2017) conducted a cross-sectional survey research that investigated the mediating role of psychological capital on occupational stress, organisational support and work engagement among a sample size of 1016 female nurses that was drawn from the population nurses in the general hospitals at Shenyang, Liaoning Province, China. The findings of the study show that psychological capital and its components of hope and optimism are significant mediators of the relationships among work stress, work engagement and rewards. Likewise, Aybas and Acar (2017) surveyed the mediating and moderating roles of psychological capital in the effects of opportunity enhancing HR practices

and working conditions on work engagement among 555 white-collor employees of private companies from different sectors in Turkey. The results of the statistical analysis of data that were gathered in that study showed that psychological capital partially moderated and mediated the effects of opportunity enhancing HR practices and working conditions on work engagement.

However, Shaheen, Bukhari and Adil (2016) surveyed the moderating role of psychological capital on the relationship between organisational support and organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample size of 325 employees of public and private sector banks of Islamabad and Rawalpindi cities in Pakistan. The study reports from its findings that psychological capital significantly dampened the observed positive relationship between organisational support and organisational citizenship behaviour. On the other hand, Li et al. (2015) investigated the moderating role of psychological capital in the relationship between occupational stress and job burnout among 1739 bank employees in China. In the study, psychological capital was found to be a moderator between occupational stress and job burnout. Hence, it was concluded that psychological capital is a promising useful resource in decreasing the undesirable impacts of occupational stress on work burnout and releasing work burnout among the bank employees.

In addition, van der Schoor (2015) investigated the mediating role of psychological capital in the relationship between job resources and work engagement among 86 male and female teachers of two secondary schools in Mijdrecht and Vinkeveen. As opposed to the results of the present study and that of the numerous others, the findings of this study indicated that psychological capital did not mediate the relation between job resources and work engagement. Nevertheless, Ding et al. (2015) examined the mediating role of coping style in the relationship between psychological capital and burnout among a sample size of 1,496 female nurses who were drawn

from two large general hospitals in Daqing City of China. The results of statistical analyses of the data collected revealed that positive coping partially mediated the relationship between hope/optimism and burnout. The results also showed that positive coping partially mediated the relationship between self-efficacy/optimism and reduced personal accomplishment. It further indicated that negative coping fully mediated the relationship between self-efficacy and burnout while negative coping also partially mediated the relationship between hope/optimism and burnout.

Yet, Bateman (2014) in his research titled "Does psychological capital moderate the degree of stress and turnover intention associated with experienced workplace incivility? An exploration in the South African context" found that participants with higher levels of psychological capital reported higher levels of stress and intention to quit as a result of regular experience of workplace incivility, which means that psychological capital alone does not significantly moderate work stress to yield higher levels of workplace incivility.

In the case of the fifth hypothesis, the results of the present study show that the H_1 of hypothesis 5, which states that emotional intelligence is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, was confirmed while the H_0 was rejected. It thus implies that there is significant link between emotion and behaviour through stress. Emotion plays a significant role in almost every aspect of human experience. The experience of occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviours as exhibited by graduate employees are inclusive. The results of the present study revealed that emotional intelligence is a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship among the graduate employees in Nigeria. This indicates that Nigerian graduate employees are actively in control of their emotions, and that they respond

constructively to the stressful work situations according to the realities of the contemporary economy of the nation, and that of the global world by also involving sacrificial voluntary extra-role performance at work.

Although it is a stressful experience to simultaneously perform the regular official duties and voluntarily engage in helping behaviour towards colleagues at work, and towards the survival of the organisation at large, they know full well that only by so doing, they could help to increase the Gross Domestic Products of Nation and revive the national economy. The results of this study indicate further that Nigerian graduate employees are not only technically and academically sound, but they are also intelligent emotionally and are thus able to adopt the practices of team spirit, team work, labour unionism and oneness that manifest in the constant engagement in organisational citizenship behaviour without minding the stressful consequences of the practices. It therefore means that emotional intelligence is one of the significant moderators that work effectively in reducing the effect of occupational stress on organisational behaviour.

In support of the above, Hameed (2016) studied the moderating role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between surface acting-emotional exhaustion and deep acting-emotional exhaustion among two samples: 471 female frontline service employees and 76 supervisors and heads of different hotels in Pakistan. The results of the investigation indicate that emotional intelligence moderates surface-acting emotional exhaustion relationships as well as deep-acting emotional exhaustion connections. The findings further showed that emotional exhaustion mediated the relationship between surface acting-adaptive performance and deep acting-adaptive performance. However, Hwa and Amin (2016) in their survey of the moderating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between emotional labour, deviant behaviour and

organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample size of 205 male and female employees that were drawn from the population of employees in the Malaysian Employer Directory, report that emotional intelligence is not a significant moderator of the relationship between emotional labour and organisational citizenship behaviour.

On the other hand, Gökçe et al. (2015) conducted an empirical study on the mediating role of emotional regulation in the relationship between job stress and performance among a sample size of 392, which was drawn from a population of employees that are working in the automotive sector in Diyarbakır, Turkey. The findings of the study show that emotional regulation plays a significant mediating role in the relationship between job stress and performance. Likewise, Soran, Balkan and Serin (2014) examined the moderating impact of emotional intelligence on the relationship between job stress and employee performance among 265 bankers in Turkey. In their study, performance was equated to employee citizenship behaviour. The outcomes of the study revealed that emotional intelligence had a moderator effect on the relationship between job stress and employee performance.

Similarly, Irshad and Hashmi (2014) explored the mediating role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and transformational leadership among a sample size of 300 male and female employees, which were drawn from the population of employees in the banking sector of Pakistan's economy. The results of the study provided evidence that emotional intelligence is a significant mediator of the relationship between organisational citizenship behaviour and transformational leadership.

Also, Greenidge and Coyne (2014) investigated the mediating role of emotions in the relationship between job stressors and organisational citizenship behaviours among a sample of

202 Caribbean employees across eight public and private sector organisations. The findings of the study show that both positive and negative emotions mediated the relation between job stressors and citizenship behaviours. Furthermore, Santo's (2012) research focused on investigating the moderating roles of personal and organisational variables in the effect of emotional dissonance on organisational citizenship behaviour among a sample of 222 nurses who were drawn from the population of nurses in hospitals within the north region of Italy. The findings of the study revealed that empathy (a measure of emotional intelligence) is a significant moderator of the relationship between emotional dissonance and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Lastly, in the case of the sixth hypothesis, the results of the present study show that the H_1 of hypothesis 6, which states that psychological capital and emotional intelligence are significant joint moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, was confirmed while the H_0 was rejected. This by interpretation implies that there is a significant joint moderating influence of psychological capital and emotional intelligence on the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among the graduate employees in Nigeria. In other words, the results means that the observed existing positive relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among the Nigerian graduate employees, which is usually dangerous for both the employees and the organisation if it continues, is checkmated and suppressed by the combined superlative weight of psychological capital and emotional intelligence. This jointly inhibits the natural negative effect of a high level of occupational stress on organisational performance.

Hence, in the case of the Nigerian graduate employees' general work situation, the possession of the united forces of psychological capital and emotional intelligence by many of the graduate employees has significantly helped in militating against some inherent counterproductive stressor found in their occupations; therefore, they are able to perform highly on their jobs and at same time engage when necessary on extra-role permance. Consequently, the results of hypothesis six practically and holistically confirm the arguments and assumptions of the model of the present study being a tested psychological intervention package to effectively manage work related stressors in a bid to increase the level of employee positive behaviour generally, and specifically improve their performance or productivity levels within the realities of the global economic demands.

Figure 6.1 depicts the picture of the joint moderating role of psychological capital and emotional intelligence in the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Figure 6.1 Emiprical model of psychological intervention for effective management of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour

In support of the findings of the present study, in a most recent cross-sectional survey research that was conducted on "What makes employees highly engaged and performing? Leaders' emotional intelligence, service climate and psychological capital", by Boerrigter (2017), a sample size of 197 was drawn from a total of 1576 employees of a global professional services organization in the Netherlands. The results of statistical analysis of data revealed that there is a partial mediating effect of service climate and psychological capital on the relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and job performance.

6.3 CONCLUSION

The above findings and discussions show that there is a positive significant relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among the graduate employees in Nigeria. Moreover, from the findings of the present study, it has also been established that psychological capital and organisational citizenship behaviour are positively related. Similarly, the present findings prove that emotional intelligence and organisational citizenship behaviour are positively related.

Furthermore, it is evident from the present findings and that of the previous related studies that psychological capital significantly moderates the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among Nigerian graduate employees. In the same manner, evidence from the present and previous studies confirmed that emotional intelligence is also a significant moderator of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among the graduate employees in Nigeria.

Ultimately, based on the findings of the present study, it has been empirically shown that psychological capital and emotional intelligence are significant joint moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among the graduate employees in Nigeria. In other words, the study has scientifically discovered that there is a significant combined moderating effect of psychological capital and emotional intelligence on occupational stress, which consequently improves the graduate employees' participation in organisational citizenship behaviour. In conclusion, the study presents the model below as a tested empirical model of psychological intervention for occupational stress management and organisational citizenship behaviour.
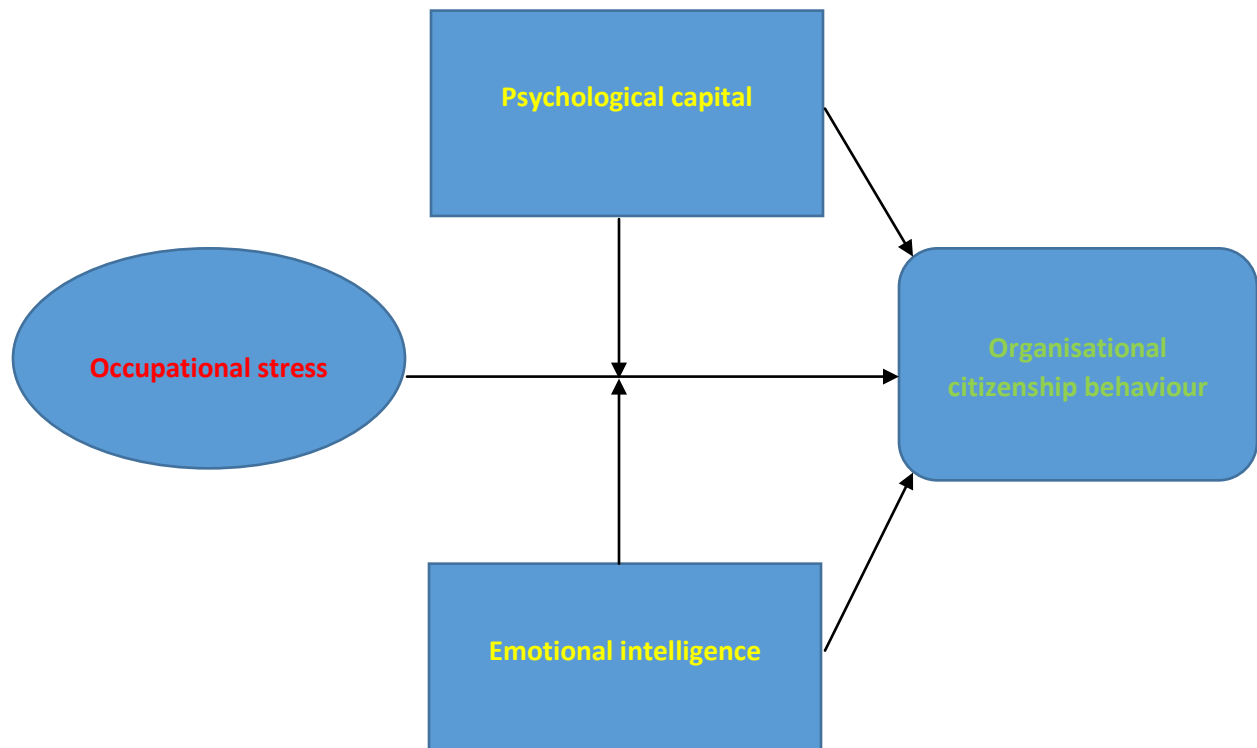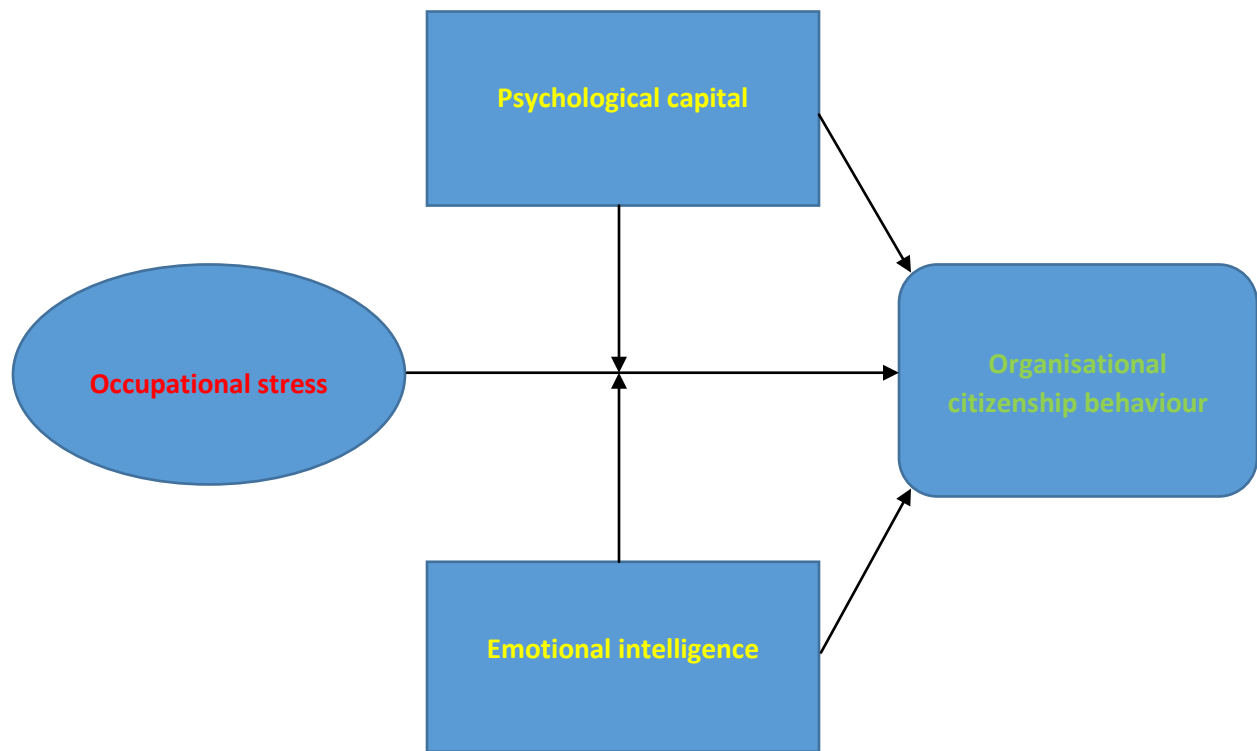
Figure 6.2 Empirical model of psychological intervention for effective management of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour

6.4 IMPLICATION OF THE FINDINDS

The findings of the present study have some important implications for the human resource practitioners and researchers in the fields of social and management sciences. First and foremost, the present study's findings contribute specifically to the existing literature on occupational stress, organisational citizenship behaviour and also to the literature on employee performance management by concentrating on the joint moderating role of psychological capital and emotional intelligence, something which has been very rarely studied.

Moreover, by understanding the joint moderating role of psychological capital and emotional intelligence in effective management of occupational stress, and adopting the psychological intervention of the moderators in their professional practices, the human resource managers and practitioners can be sure of higher levels of employee performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. Another essential implication of the present study's findings is that by understanding the positive influence of hope, optimism, recilience, self-efficacy and emotional intelligenec on employee behaviour and its resultant effect on organisational behaviour, human resource managers can uphold and develop the concept in the psyche of employees in the organisations to increase employee commitment and organisational performance.

Furthermore, the outcomes of the present study have demostrated that, though occupational stress is inevitable in the contemporary world of work, in as much as employee performance is sacrosanct work stress can be effectively managed through psychological strategies. It is, therefore, a challenge to the employers of labour, the management of organisations and, most especially, the experts who are saddled with task of ensuring that the right persons are employed into the right work positions, to do the right thing at the right time to apply the assumptions of the empirical model of effective management of occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour during recruitment, training and development activities so that the employee can develop more appropriate psychological coping mechanisms on their professions.

Lastly, it is very important to know that the implications of the results of the present study are not limited to the private or the public sector. Hence, researchers, experts, managers, government and scholars can draw some inferences from the present findings.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the above stated implications of the findings, the researcher makes the following practical recommendations:

- that the tertiary institutions' management, most especially of the universities, should incorporate in their academic curricula some practical simulated work exercise that will pre-expose the graduating students to the challenges at the world of work. This will build their psyche, and make them mentally and emotional ready to overcome any stressful situation that may come their way, even in the cause of discharging of career duties or responsibilities through the positivism approach. This can be achieved by a deliberate inclusion of moderately difficult practical group assignments in the syllabus that will task each student in a group, to proactively think 'outside the box' and proffer visible solutions in the form of suggestions to the problems at hand. By so doing, the students will develop reasonable levels of hope, resilience, optimism, self-efficacy and empathy along with the acquired theoretical knowledge of their disciplines while the universities can as well boast of producing capable graduate who will fit perfectly into the realities of the world of work and promptly deliver.

- that the empirical model of effective management of occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour, which has been propounded in this study, should be adopted and applied by teachers, lecturers, seminar facilitators, workshop trainers, supervisors and managers during their coaching or training sessions. Specifically, the focus should be on training the individual employees or graduates to discover their covert behavioural endowments such as psychological capital and emotions, and make them refined through a systematic training process that converts the covert behavioural gifts into overt psychological assets in the form of demonstrable managerial

competencies, which can enhance their performance on the job, and also enable them to be prosocial among colleagues in the work settings.

- that the employers and managers of labour (especially the graduate employees), should disseminate among the workforce the new discovery about the joint ability of psychological capital and emotional intelligence to counteract the negative influence of work stressors on employees.

- that the human resource management practitioners should encourage participation in extra-role performance among employees by exposing all graduate employees to various other departmental functions and responsibilities that are beyond their core areas of specialisations. By so doing, the graduate employees' psychological capital and emotional cleverness are developed in preparation for the higher career responsibilities, as part of the organisational succession plans.

- that during the induction programmes for the newly engaged graduate employees, the supervisors, managers, and the heads of the various departments in the organisations should be given the opportunity to also address the newly employed graduates about the socioenvironmental nature of the work organisation, whose survival greatly relies on the socio-benevolent behaviour, attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of the staff members. Hence, the new entrants must be indoctrinated with the ideas of team spirit, one goal, one family, and one love, despite some inherent diversity in the individual members of the organisation.

- that the government and policy makers should ensure that it is mandatory for every graduate citizen of a nation to be initially engaged by the public and private organisations in a year voluntary service. During the first three or four weeks of the one year mandatory voluntary service to the nation, every graduate must be trained to

acquire some positive aggressive attitudinal behaviour that will awaken their sense of positivism and citizenship towards readiness to assume the role of agents of the national developments in their various areas of professional endeavours, where they will be deployed to serve for the remaining months of the one year period of the voluntary service to the nation.

- in order to achieve the ultimate goal of building the psyche of the fresh graduates towards organisational citizenship behaviour, and upholding the positivism in every situation, the government and policy makers must incorporate in the national financial budget a reasonable amount of funds to cater for the graduates' welfare during the one year period of national assignments. Then, after the completion of the one year national voluntary service, an employee who successfully endures the rigours through his or her sacrificial personality attributes would have developed some level of hope, resilience, optimism, efficacy, empathy and citizenship behaviour which will help during his future career life.

6.6 LIMITATIONS AND ADDITIONAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Even though the study has made significant contributions to research in the field of industrial/organisational psychology, it is not free of limitations that create opportunities for future investigations.

Primarily, the hypotheses were tested based on cross-sectional survey data, which is limited in terms of its ability to detect the dynamic changes that occur on the constructs of investigation during the various phases of a developing organisation, compared to a

longitudinal study that can take records of dynamism of phenomena of study across different stages and times (Bhattacherjee, 2012; Institutute for Work & Health, 2015). Hence, the future studies on psychological capital, emotional intelligence, occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among employees should embrace the longitudinal survey method in order to observe the possible changes on the variables under consideration.

Also, the study was conducted within the South-West Geopolitical Region of Nigeria, which implies that the practical implications of the findings are limited to the graduate employees who are working in the organisations that are located within the aforementioned region of the country. Hence, the researcher recommends that the future research in the areas of occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among graduate employees in Nigeria should be conducted beyond one geopolitical region of Nigeria.

The study has propounded an empirical model of effective management of occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour within the African context, yet it is recommended that a similar study should be conducted in Europe, Asia, America and other continents to further ascertain the reliability of the model across different cultures.

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Appendix 1

The Number of Employees Classified by Industry in Nigeria

Industry	Female	%	Male	%	Total
Agriculture and forestry	7,029,273	36.5	12,207,075	63.5	19,236,348
Fishing	188,831	1.0	293,901	1.5	482,732
Mining	40,301	0.2	152,860	0.8	193,161
Manufacturing industry	1,197,538	6.2	1,084,390	5.6	2,281,928
Electricity, gas, and water	68,582	0.4	233,072	1.2	301,654
Construction industry	37,445	0.2	620,749	3.2	658,194
Retail trade	5,796,543	30.1	3,037,550	15.8	8,834,093
Hotel restaurant business	163,561	0.9	53,557	0.3	217,118
Transportation and communication business	96,300	0.5	1,308,250	6.8	1,404,550
Finance business	52,088	0.3	74,337	0.4	126,425
Real estate business	187,984	1.0	226,263	1.2	414,247
Administration and defense	477,061	2.5	1,352,562	7.0	1,829,623
Education	915,040	4.8	994,109	5.2	1,909,149
Health and social welfare	292,143	1.5	183,185	1.0	475,328
Social services	727,588	3.8	1,112,014	5.8	1,839,602
House helper	98,320	0.5	99,616	0.5	197,936
Others	16,113	0.1	50,325	0.3	66,438
Total	17,484,163	43.1	23,083,815	56.9	40,567,978

Source: Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development (2008) *Nigeria Gender Statistics Book.*

Appendix 2

Required Sample Size[†]

Population Size	Confidence = 95%				Confidence = 99%			
	Margin of Error				Margin of Error			
	5.0%	3.5%	2.5%	1.0%	5.0%	3.5%	2.5%	1.0%
10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
20	19	20	20	20	19	20	20	20
30	28	29	29	30	29	29	30	30
50	44	47	48	50	47	48	49	50
75	63	69	72	74	67	71	73	75
100	80	89	94	99	87	93	96	99
150	108	126	137	148	122	135	142	149
200	132	160	177	196	154	174	186	198
250	152	190	215	244	182	211	229	246
300	169	217	251	291	207	246	270	295
400	196	265	318	384	250	309	348	391
500	217	306	377	475	285	365	421	485
600	234	340	432	565	315	416	490	579
700	248	370	481	653	341	462	554	672
800	260	396	526	739	363	503	615	763
1,000	278	440	606	906	399	575	727	943
1,200	291	474	674	1067	427	636	827	1119
1,500	306	515	759	1297	460	712	959	1376
2,000	322	563	869	1655	498	808	1141	1785
2,500	333	597	952	1984	524	879	1288	2173
3,500	346	641	1068	2565	558	977	1510	2890
5,000	357	678	1176	3288	586	1066	1734	3842
7,500	365	710	1275	4211	610	1147	1960	5165
10,000	370	727	1332	4899	622	1193	2098	6239
25,000	378	760	1448	6939	646	1285	2399	9972
50,000	381	772	1491	8056	655	1318	2520	12455
75,000	382	776	1506	8514	658	1330	2563	13583
100,000	383	778	1513	8762	659	1336	2585	14227
250,000	384	782	1527	9248	662	1347	2626	15555
500,000	384	783	1532	9423	663	1350	2640	16055
1,000,000	384	783	1534	9512	663	1352	2647	16317
2,500,000	384	784	1536	9567	663	1353	2651	16478
10,000,000	384	784	1536	9594	663	1354	2653	16560
100,000,000	384	784	1537	9603	663	1354	2654	16584
300,000,000	384	784	1537	9603	663	1354	2654	16586

Appendix 3

PILOT STUDY'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Faculty of Management and Commerce

Department of Industrial Psychology

Dear Respondent,

My name is John Kolawole, ADERIBIGBE. I am a doctoral degree student in the aforementioned department at University of Fort Hare, South Africa. I am conducting a research on **the relationship between occupational stress and organizational citizenship behaviour among graduate employees in Nigeria**. It is solely for academic purposes, and all information obtained will be kept confidential. You are kindly requested to respond to **ALL** the statements in the following questionnaire. Please your name is not required. Your sincere responses would therefore be highly appreciated.

Thank you Sir/Ma.

Section: A (Biographical and occupational information)

1. Please mark [√]/indicate in the appropriate box
2. Sex: Male [   ] Female [   ]
3. Age: _____
4. Marital status: Single [   ] Married [   ] Divorced [   ] Widow/Widower [   ]
5. Educational Qualification: B.Sc [   ] HND [   ]
6. Years of work experience: _____
7. Type of appointment type: Full-time [   ] Temporary/Contract [   ]

8. Rank of employment: Senior [   ] Junior [   ]
9. Type of sector: Public [   ] Private [   ]
10. Occupation: _____
11. Industry: _____

Section: B

Instructions: Below are a number of statements that may or may not apply to you. Please, mark
[√] in the box to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

SN	STATEMENTS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Rarely Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution.					
2	I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.					
3	I feel confident contributing to discussions about the organization's strategy.					
4	I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area.					
5	I feel confident contacting people outside the organization (e.g., suppliers, customers) to discuss problems.					
6	I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.					
7.	If I should find myself in a jam, I could think of many ways to get out of it.					
8.	At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals.					
9.	There are lots of ways around any problem.					
10.	Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful at work.					
11.	I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.					
12.	At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.					
13	When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on.					
14	I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.					
15	I can be "on my own," so to speak, at work if I have to.					
16	I usually take stressful things at work in stride.					
17	I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.					
18	I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.					

19.	When things are uncertain for me at work, I usually expect the best.					
20.	If something can go wrong for me work-wise, it will.					
21.	I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.					
22.	I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.					
23.	In this job, things never work out the way I want them to.					
24.	I approach this job as if "every cloud has a silver lining".					

Section: C

SN	STATEMENTS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Rarely Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
25	I fail to recognize how my feelings drive my behaviour at work.					
26	I am aware of my mood state at work.					
27.	I respond to events that frustrate me appropriately.					
28.	I find it difficult to identify my feelings on issues at work.					
29	I express how I feel to the wrong people at work.					
30	I fail to handle stressful situations at work effectively.					
31	When I am under stress, I become impulsive.					
32.	I fail to identify the way people respond to me when building rapport.					
33.	I am effective in helping others to feel positive at work.					
34.	I gain stakeholders commitment to decisions I make at workplace.					

Section: D

SN	STATEMENTS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Rarely Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
35	I have a lot of work and fear that very little time to do it.					
36	I feel so burdened that even a day without work seems bad.					
37	I feel that I never take a leave.					
38	Many people at my office are tired of the company demand.					
39	My job makes me nervous.					
40	The effect of my job on me is too high.					

41	Many a times, my job becomes a big burden.					
42	Sometimes when I think about my job I get a tight feeling in my chest.					
43	I feel bad when I take a leave.					

Section: E

SN	STATEMENTS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Rarely Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
44	I willingly help others who have work related problems.					
45	I am always ready to give a helping hand to those around me.					
46	I help others who have heavy work load.					
47	I help others who have been absent.					
48	I guide new people even though it is not required.					
49	I take steps to try to avoid problems with other workers.					
50.	I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image.					
51.	I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but important.					
52.	I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.					
53.	I keep abreast of changes in the organization.					
54	I respect company rules and policies even when no one is watching me.					
55	I do not take extra breaks.					
56	I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.					
57	I do my job without constant requests from my boss.					
58	I am one of the most conscientious employees.					

Appendix 4

MAIN STUDY'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Faculty of Management and Commerce

Department of Industrial Psychology

Dear Respondent,
My name is John Kolawole, ADERIBIGBE. I am a doctoral degree student in the aforementioned department at University of Fort Hare, South Africa. I am conducting a research on **the relationship between occupational stress and organizational citizenship behaviour among graduate employees in Nigeria**. It is solely for academic purposes, and all information obtained will be kept confidential. You are kindly requested to respond to **ALL** the statements in the following questionnaire. Please your name is not required. Your sincere responses would therefore be highly appreciated.
Thank you Sir/Ma.

Section: A (Biographical and occupational information)

Please mark [√]/indicate in the appropriate box

1. Sex: Male [   ] Female [   ]
2. Age: _____
3. Marital status: Single [   ] Married [   ] Divorced [   ] Widow/Widower [   ]
4. Educational Qualification: B.Sc [   ] HND [   ]
5. Years of work experience: _____
6. Type of appointment type: Full-time [   ] Temporary/Contract [   ]
7. Rank of employment: Senior [   ] Junior [   ]
8. Type of sector: Public [   ] Private [   ]
9. Occupation: _____
10. Industry: _____

Section: B

Instructions: Below are a number of statements that may or may not apply to you. Please, mark [√] in the box to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

SN	STATEMENTS	Strongly Disagre	Disagre	Rarely Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution.					
2	I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.					
3	I feel confident contributing to discussions about the organization's strategy.					
4	I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area.					
5	I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.					
6.	If I should find myself in a jam, I could think of many ways to get out of it.					
7.	At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals.					
8.	There are lots of ways around any problem.					
9.	I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.					
10.	At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.					
11	I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.					
12	I usually take stressful things at work in stride.					
13	I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.					
14	I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.					
15.	I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.					
16.	I approach this job as if "every cloud has a silver lining".					

Section: C

SN	STATEMENTS	Strongly Disagre	Disagre	Rarely Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
17.	I am effective in helping others to feel positive at work.					
18.	I gain stakeholders commitment to decisions I make at workplace.					

Section: D

SN	STATEMENTS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Rarely Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
19	I have a lot of work and fear that very little time to do it.					
20	I feel that I never take a leave.					
21	Many people at my office are tired of the company demand.					
22	My job makes me nervous.					
23	The effect of my job on me is too high.					
24	Many a times, my job becomes a big burden.					
25	Sometimes when I think about my job I get a tight feeling in my chest.					

Section: E

SN	STATEMENTS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Rarely Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
26	I willingly help others who have work related problems.					
27	I am always ready to give a helping hand to those around me.					
28	I help others who have heavy work load.					
29	I help others who have been absent.					
30	I guide new people even though it is not required.					
31.	I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but important.					
32.	I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.					
33.	I keep abreast of changes in the organization.					
34	I respect company rules and policies even when no one is watching me.					
35	I do not take extra breaks.					
36	I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.					
37	I do my job without constant requests from my boss.					
38	I am one of the most conscientious employees.					

Appendix 5

PARTICIPANTS' INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Department of Industrial Psychology

Research: *Occupational stress and Organisational citizenship behaviour*

Researcher: Mr. John K. Aderibigbe, doctorate degree researcher (University of Fort Hare)

I am conducting this survey in Nigeria as my PhD research. Please, you are invited to participate in this study, because you are a graduate employee in Nigeria.

By signing this consent form, it means that you have confirmed that you:

- …have read the participant information sheet.
- …fully understand your role within this research.
- …have had enough opportunity to ask any questions and have received satisfactory answers.
- …understand that your participation in this study is completely voluntary that you are able to withdraw from the study at anytime within practical limits, without penalty.
- …understand that this research project has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through the supervisor in charge of this study.
- …understand that your data will be handled in a confidential manner and no one involved in the study will know your name. The data will only be made available to Mr. John K. Aderibigbe and will be stored at the library of University of Fort Hare.
- …you agree to take part in the research stated above.
- ...understand that if you have any other questions about this research you can contact John K. Aderibigbe at (201607467@ufh.ac.za). If you would like to make a complaint, please contact Prof. T.Q Mjoli at (tmjoli@ufh.ac.za).

Signed (Participant)………………..….....   Date………………

Signed (Researcher) ……………….……   Date……………...

Appendix 6

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE
REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number:	MJO071SADE01
Project title:	**Psychological capital and emotional intelligence as moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organizational citizenship behavior among graduate employees in Nigeria.**
Nature of Project:	PhD in Industrial Psychology
Principal Researcher:	John Kolawole Aderibigbe
Supervisor:	Prof T Mjoli
Co-supervisor:	N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
  - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
  - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
  - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
  - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to

- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.

- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

Professor Wilson Akpan
Acting Dean of Research

02 November 2016

Appendix 7

LETTER FROM THE RESEARCH SUPERVISOR

University of Fort Hare

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND COMMERCE
DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Private Bag X1314, King William's Town Rd, Alice, 5700, RSA
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University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

3 October 2016

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I write this letter to introduce **Mr John Kolawole ADERIBIGBE** as a doctoral degree researcher in the Department of Industrial Psychology, Faculty of Management and Commerce, University of Fort Hare, South Africa. He is conducting his PhD studies on occupational stress management and organizational citizenship behaviour among employees in Nigeria.

Having drafted his research proposal under my supervision, and successfully presented it before the South African Higher Education Board, it is required that Mr John Kolawole ADERIBIGBE proceeds to do field work in Nigeria. I therefore seek your kind assistance towards the success of his study.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Professor Themba Q Mjoli
HOD: Industrial Psychology
Faculty of Management and
Commerce
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1

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Appendix 8

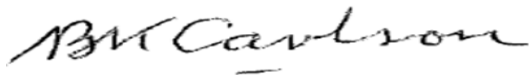## EDITOR'S CONFIRMATION LETTER

8 Nahoon Valley Place

Nahoon Valley

East London

5241

10 November 2017

<center>TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN</center>

I hereby confirm that I have proofread and edited the following doctoral thesis (chapters 1-6 only) using the Windows 'Tracking' system to reflect my comments and suggested corrections for the student to action:

Psychological capital and emotional intelligence as moderators of the relationship between occupational stress and organisational citizenship behaviour among graduate employees in Nigeria by JOHN KOLAWOLE ADERIBIGBE, a research thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Commerce in Industrial Psychology at the University of Fort Hare.

BM Carlson

<div align="center">Brian Carlson (B.A., M.Ed.)</div>

Professional Editor

Email: bcarlson521@gmail.com

Cell: 0834596647

<center>Disclaimer: Although I have made comments and suggested corrections, the responsibility for the quality of the final document lies with the student in the first instance and not with myself as the editor.</center>

<center>BK & AJ Carlson Professional Editing Services</center>