FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

THREE ESSAYS EXAMINING THE STRESS PROCESSES OF NON-VETERANS AND VETERANS OF THE UNITED STATES MILITARY IN THE CIVILIAN WORKPLACE

By

JEREMY DAVID MACKEY

A Dissertation submitted to the
Department of Management
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Degree Awarded:
Spring Semester, 2015

Jeremy Mackey defended this dissertation on December 8, 2014.
The members of the supervisory committee were:

Pamela L. Perrewé
Professor Directing Dissertation

Ronald E. Goldsmith
University Representative

Gerald R. Ferris
Committee Member

Mark J. Martinko
Committee Member

Chad H. Van Iddekinge
Committee Member

The Graduate School has verified and approved the above-named committee members, and certifies that the dissertation has been approved in accordance with university requirements.

I dedicate my dissertation to my family.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am immensely grateful for the support I received from a number of people while completing my dissertation. First, I am grateful for all of the work my dissertation advisor, Dr. Pam Perrewé, has done providing encouragement, guidance, and support while completing my dissertation. Her guidance has been instrumental in helping me complete my dissertation, and I appreciate all of the time she has invested in my research and professional development.

Next, I thank my dissertation committee for their feedback and support while completing my dissertation. Next, I appreciate the help and guidance Dr. Gerald Ferris, Dr. Ronald Goldsmith, Dr. Mark Martinko, and Dr. Chad Van Iddekinge provided while working on my dissertation. I thank Charn McAllister for his feedback and assistance with data collection. Also, I thank my immediate and extended families for their continued support during my pursuit of a doctoral degree. In particular, I appreciate my wife's continued encouragement and support while pursuing a doctoral degree.

Finally, I thank a number of organizations that were generous enough to provide grant funding for my dissertation research. First, I thank the Center for Veteran Outreach at Florida State University for supporting my research through consultation and grant funding. Next, I thank The Graduate School, the Congress of Graduate Students (COGS), the Office of the Provost, and the Office of Research at Florida State University for jointly funding a research grant made available through the Dissertation Research Grant program. Finally, I thank the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) Pilot Research Project through the Sunshine Education and Research Center at the University of South Florida for funding a research grant. All of these research grants helped provide data for my dissertation research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

Although there are millions of Veterans of the United States military (i.e., Veterans) currently working in civilian organizations, and millions of unemployed Veterans seeking jobs in civilian organizations, little research has examined if, how, and to what extent Veterans and non-Veterans (i.e., individuals without any military experience) experience workplace stress in civilian organizations differently. In my dissertation, I completed three research essays to address this gap in the stress literature.

In the first essay, I developed a conceptual model of Veterans' workplace stress that incorporated the role of chronic strain resultant from Veterans' experiences while in the military. In the second essay, I tested an empirical model of workplace stress that accounted for the role of perceptions of hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and organizational goodness-of-fit on employees' personal and organizational outcomes (i.e., job tension, vigor, job satisfaction, work intensity, interpersonal deviance, work-family interference). In the third essay, I built off of the findings from the second essay by exploring the role of self-regulation at work in the stress process.

CHAPTER ONE

DISSERTATION OVERVIEW

Stress is something present in every work environment. Workplace stress has been conceptualized and operationalized in a multitude of ways, and can cost organizations billions of dollars per year in lost productivity and employee mental and physical health-related issues. Although a lot of research has examined employees' stress processes, little work has examined how different sub-groups of employees fundamentally differ in how they experience stress processes. To help address this gap in the stress literature, I conducted a three-essay dissertation that reviewed employees' stress processes and empirically examined how Veterans of the U.S. military (henceforth "Veterans") and non-Veterans (i.e., individuals who are not in the military, nor have any military experience) experience stress processes in civilian organizations.

The first essay is entitled "The Impact of Veterans' Chronic Strain and Personal Resources on Their Transition to Traditional Workplace Roles." It started as a conceptual paper I wrote for Dr. Pam Perrewé's Organizational Behavior seminar. This paper reviewed employees' stress processes and speculated as to why non-Veterans and Veterans may differ in how they experience traditional stress processes. Subsequent versions of this paper have focused less on the fundamental differences between how Veterans and non-Veterans may differ in how they experience stress processes, and instead focused more on the role of self-regulation and adaptation in employees' stress processes. A revised version of the first essay was presented at the Work, Stress, and Health 2013 Semiannual Meeting in Los Angeles, California, and was published in the *Organizational Psychology Review*.

The second essay of my dissertation is entitled "Do I fit in? Perceptions of Fit as a Resource to Reduce Workplace Stress: An Examination of Non-Veterans and Veterans." In the

second essay, I tested an empirical model of workplace stress that was driven by the conservation of resources theory. In the model, organizational demands (i.e., hindrance stressors, challenge stressors) and personal resources (i.e., organizational goodness-of-fit) were suggested to impact intrapersonal (i.e., job satisfaction, work intensity) and interpersonal (i.e., interpersonal workplace deviance, work-family interference) outcomes through health impairment (i.e., job tension) and motivational (i.e., vigor) processes. Across two samples, the results provided some support for the hypotheses and found that Veterans and non-Veterans experienced similar stress processes, but differed in how they experienced some portions of the stress process. A revised version of the second essay was presented at the 2014 Academy of Management annual meeting in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

For the third essay of my dissertation, I built off of the conceptual model developed in the original and revised versions of the first essay, as well as the empirical findings of the second essay, to test a model of workplace stress that examined the conditional indirect effects of organizational demands (i.e., hindrance stressors, challenge stressors) on employees' strain, health, and well-being (i.e., somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, problem drinking) through job tension and vigor, conditional upon employees' levels of self-regulation at work. Across samples of Veterans and non-Veterans, I found support for most of the direct relationships hypothesized in the model, but little support for the conditional indirect effects hypothesized.

In sum, I conducted a three-essay dissertation that conceptually and empirically examined if, how, and to what extent Veterans and non-Veterans differentially experienced the stress process in civilian organizations. In the first essay, I developed a conceptual model of workplace stress that incorporated the role of self-regulation in the examination of workplace stress. In the

second essay, I empirically examined differences between Veterans and non-Veterans in a general model of workplace stress. Finally, in the third essay, I examined a model of workplace stress that incorporated the effects of self-regulation at work in the job stress process. Altogether, the three research papers demonstrate my abilities as a researcher and serve as the beginning of a stream of research examining how different subgroups of employees (e.g., Veterans) may fundamentally differ in how or to what extent they experience stress in the workplace.

CHAPTER TWO

THE IMPACT OF VETERANS' CHRONIC STRAIN AND PERSONAL RESOURCES ON THEIR TRANSITION TO CIVILIAN WORKPLACE ROLES (ESSAY 1)

"To honor those who have served and to protect the future health of the all-volunteer force, America must renew its commitment to its service members and veterans. The time has come to [do this] more effectively and with greater urgency" (Harrell & Berglass, 2011, p. 10).

Employees encounter stressful events in the workplace on a daily basis. This may be especially true when employees enter new and/or unfamiliar environments, which is likely commonplace for new employees. Employees' subjective interpretations of workplace events vary based on a host of factors, including personality differences and prior experiences. Employees with powerful and/or salient negative prior experiences have the added difficulty of balancing current workplace stressors with their lingering chronic strain. United States military Veterans no longer on active duty are among those that are likely affected by lingering chronic strain. There were an estimated 23 million Veterans residing in the United States and/or its territories in 2009 (Westat, 2010, p. 53). With the number of Veterans currently employed and/or seeking employment in civilian workplace roles, it is important to consider the implications of Veterans' chronic strain on their (re-)entry into the civilian workforce.

Experienced job stress results from an external environmental demand that disturbs an individual's natural homeostatic balance (Cannon, 1932). This stimulus-response framework places an emphasis on demands external to the person. Although job stress has been extensively examined, little research has been done that explores how Veterans' interpretations of external demands may fundamentally differ from civilians' interpretations of external demands. Research is needed to identify how and why Veterans may differ from each other and their coworkers in

their interpretations of workplace stressors and job demands. Additionally, research has not yet examined what factors distinguish between Veterans' successful and non-successful transitions from military roles to civilian workplace roles. I use Lazarus' (1966) transactional theory of stress to suggest a framework that includes the effects of Veterans' chronic strain and personal resources in the cognitive process Veterans likely consciously or unconsciously undergo when interpreting workplace stressors.

Theoretical Foundations and Proposition Development

The transactional model of stress (Folkman & Lazarus, 1990; Lazarus, 1993; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, 1987) is a popular interactionist framework for assessing the cognitive process employees undergo when interpreting potential workplace stressors. The transactional model relies on the notion that stress is based on a subjective assessment that is cognitively determined by an interaction between the person and their environment. Thus, an important foundational proposition of the transactional model is that the interaction of the individual and a demand in their environment creates felt stress for the individual (Lazarus, 1968; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Thus, stress arises when there is the specific combination of a certain type of person and a certain type of environment that leads to a primary appraisal of a threat (Lazarus, 1991). If the event is interpreted as threatening, then a secondary appraisal is used to determine an appropriate coping mechanism. During the secondary appraisal, individuals ask themselves if they have the means to deal with the stressor at hand and whether or not anything can be done to change the situation (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Perceived personal control, or lack thereof, reflects one's beliefs in his or her ability to effect change in a desirable direction on his or her environment and drives an individual's choice of coping mechanism (Greenberger & Strasser, 1986).

How employees appraise and cope with stress may be just as important for their well-being as simply the existence of stress (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987). Typically, an individual engages in either problem-focused coping or emotion-focused coping in response to a threat. Problem-focused coping is thought to occur when one believes that they can change their situation whereas emotion-focused coping is thought to occur when one deems their situation uncontrollable. The choice of coping mechanism affects the resultant perceptual or behavioral response(s).

The subjective primary and secondary appraisal processes can become complex for Veterans with chronic strain resultant from their experiences in the military. Personal resources can attenuate some of the negative effects of chronic strain during the appraisal process. The conceptual model is consistent with the transactional model of stress that relies on an environmental demand initiating a subjective cognitive appraisal process that drives important perceptual and behavioral outcomes in the workplace.

(Re-)Entering the Workforce

Career research has traditionally focused on the nature of relationships between individuals, organizations, and society (Hughes, 1958; O'Mahony & Bechky, 2006), but more recent research on careers has examined interorganizational mobility (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Valcour & Tolbert, 2003). Unfortunately, there is still a lack of research dedicated to how individuals adapt to new careers (Savickas, 2002). Veterans transitioning from a role in the military to a role in the civilian workplace are likely to simultaneously experience an interorganizational change and a career change. Some Veterans re-acquaint themselves with an American workforce they once worked in, and others enter a civilian workplace role for the first time. The uncertainty of changing work roles is inherently

stressful, so it is likely that Veterans will perceive a host of acute workplace stressors in their new work environments, especially if they are simultaneously changing organizations and careers.

Acute Stressors

Acute stressors are conceptualized as perceived job demands that elicit a primary appraisal. Acute stressors are potentially prevalent in organizations and can take on many forms. Examples of acute stressors include organizational constraints, interpersonal conflict, and perceived injustice (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). Some stress research has attempted to identify objective stressors (Bischoff & Terborg, 1995; Ganster & Duffy, 1995; Melin, Lundberg, Söderlund, & Granqvist, 1999), which have been conceptualized as stressors that likely initiate the primary appraisal process for most individuals despite any influence of specific individuals' cognitive or emotional processes (Frese & Zapf, 1988). Rather than attempt to identify objective stressors relevant for Veterans, I focus on how Veterans subjectively interpret objective environmental conditions.

Acute stressors can be perceived as challenge stressors, irrelevant, or hindrance stressors. The distinction between challenge and hindrance stressors has been noted in the stress literature for decades (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Selye, 1976). Challenge stressors are appraised as opportunities that likely trigger positive emotions and promote learning performance, personal gain, personal development, personal growth, and/or work related accomplishment; challenge stressors may be motivational and trigger problem-solving coping (LePine, LePine, & Jackson, 2004; LePine, LePine, & Saul, 2007; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005). Challenge stressors in the workplace include demands such as high workload, time pressure, job scope, and high responsibility. Some challenge stressors may ultimately be helpful for employees.

On the other hand, hindrance stressors are appraised as threatening stressors that likely trigger negative emotions and constrain personal gain, personal growth, personal development, and/or work related accomplishment; hindrance stressors may trigger emotional forms of coping (LePine et al., 2004, 2005, 2007). LePine et al. (2007) suggested that hindrance stressors include stressful demands such as "constraints, hassles, resource inadequacy, role ambiguity, role and interpersonal conflict, role dissensus, role interference, role strain, role clarity (reverse coded), role overload, supervisor-related stress…" (p. 44). LePine et al. (2004) suggested that hindrance stressors have the potential to be harmful across an assortment of criteria. Following the subjective identification of an acute stressor in the workplace, Veterans engage in a primary appraisal to determine whether or not the potential stressor is a threat.

Cognitive Appraisal

The primary appraisal stage of the transactional model of stress is critically important in determining the nature of a perceived stressor. It relies upon a subjective cognitive appraisal that assesses whether the person, event, or situation is positive, irrelevant, or stressful (Peacock, Wong, & Reker, 1993).

Positive evaluation. If a stimulus is deemed to be positive then it is generally considered to be beneficial and/or desirable. A positive evaluation is considered favorable because of the absence of a perceived threat and because the cognitive appraisal process is shortened, reducing the chances of experiencing multiple cognitive appraisals simultaneously. Examples of workplace stressors that are likely to be deemed positive include job promotions and increased responsibility. Challenge stressors represent positive evaluations in the conceptual model.

Evaluation of Irrelevance. The stimulus is deemed irrelevant if there is no personal significance for the individual. In this case, there is no felt stress and the cognitive appraisal process ends.

Threat. A stressful encounter with a person, event, or situation is thought to be harmful, threatening or challenging (Lazarus, 1994). The evaluation of a threat encourages further cognitive elaboration and results in a secondary appraisal. An evaluation of a threat encourages the employee to undergo further cognitive elaboration that may result in unfavorable outcomes or experiencing multiple cognitive appraisals simultaneously. Hindrance stressors represent threats in the conceptual model.

Proposition 1: *Veterans cognitively appraise workplace stressors as challenge stressors, irrelevant, or hindrance stressors.*

Chronic Strain

So far, my discussion has focused on the transactional model of stress for employees in the workplace. It is important to consider how Veterans might fundamentally differ from civilians in how they subjectively appraise job demands. Veterans' chronic strain and personal resources may bias their perceptions of their environment.

Veterans are thought to experience chronic strain resulting from their military experiences. The level of chronic strain and the relative influence of this strain as a biasing factor during the cognitive appraisal process likely varies according to each Veteran and their experiences. Non-Veterans may carry chronic strain around with them as well, but Veterans carry a more unique type of chronic strain that is likely difficult for non-Veterans to understand. I suggest that higher levels of chronic strain will increase the likelihood that acute stressors in the

workplace are perceived as threats. I focus on two predictors of Veterans' levels of chronic strain: Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) and prior experiences while in the military.

Post-Traumatic stress disorder. Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder afflicts many war Veterans that have been exposed to traumatic life events that are extraordinary, evoke fear and helplessness, and elicit experiences of threat to survival (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 1994). This is probably especially true for Veterans that spent time in hostile war zones. Symptoms of PTSD include anxiety, depression, difficulties with anger management, sleep deprivation, and substance abuse; many of these symptoms have been associated with Veterans' recent deployment experiences in Afghanistan and Iraq (Harrell, & Berglass, 2011). In order for Veterans to be successful in transitioning to civilian work roles while managing their PTSD, they likely will have to engage in personal development that alters their frame of reference, values, and other identity-related attributes, as well as actively engage in role development that involves creating or altering the requirements of their new career to match their needs (Nicholson, 1984). Thus, the effects of PTSD present a substantial challenge to Veterans who attempt to successfully (re-)enter and assimilate into the civilian workforce.

Prior experiences. There are a multitude of possible prior experiences that do not qualify as traumatic but still bias Veterans' cognitive processing. For example, there are often differences in how Veterans were expected to conduct themselves while in the military versus how they are expected to conduct themselves in civilian organizations. Thus, prior experiences from a fundamentally different context may dysfunctionally bias subjective evaluations of stressors in the new work environment. Post-traumatic Stress Disorder and prior negative experiences are thought to combine to comprise Veterans' chronic strain, which negatively biases their subjective appraisal of workplace stressors.

Proposition 2: *Post-traumatic Stress Disorder and prior experiences combine to influence Veterans' levels of chronic strain.*

Proposition 3: *Chronic strain moderates the workplace stressor-cognitive appraisal relationship such that as a high chronic strain individual perceives a workplace stressor, he or she will be more likely to perceive that stressor as a hindrance stressor than a low chronic strain individual.*

Personal Resources

In contrast to the negative effects of chronic strain, personal resources can be used to positively influence the primary appraisal process. Personal resources are available in many forms.

Resiliency. Resilience represents a dynamic positive adaptation despite risk or adversity (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Baker, 2000; Masten, 1994) and can be viewed as the basis for bouncing back from hardship and progressing toward recovery and growth. Resilience is a process and an outcome (Reich, Zautra, & Hall, 2010) that is continuously being altered; it includes the ability to seek out the positive (Reich, Zautra, & Hall, 2010) and recover from challenge (Masten, 2001; Rutter, 1987). Resiliency at the organizational level "refers to a capacity for continuous reconstruction [and] it requires innovation with respect to those organizational values, processes, and behaviors that systematically favor perpetuation over innovation" (Hamel & Välikangas, 2003, p. 55). Thus, resilience in organizations is conceptualized as the ability to dynamically reinvent strategic plans as circumstances and conditions change (Hamel & Välikangas, 2003; Lengnick-Hall & Beck, 2005). High levels of resiliency may enable Veterans to adapt to their work environment and may reduce the amount of hindrance stressors Veterans perceive.

Identity. Social identity has been described as an "individual's knowledge that he belongs to a certain group together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group" (Tajfel, 1972, p. 292). Social identity theory suggests that using social categories allows individuals to define who they are and can provide a sense of self-definition that is part of individuals' larger self-concepts (Hogg & Terry, 2001, p. 3). Veterans can hold multiple social identities simultaneously, and generally cognitively arrange them in a hierarchy that reflects their relative subjective importance (Ashforth, 2001; Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2006) and level of commitment to each identity (Stryker & Burke, 2000). The preferred identity is labeled the primary central identity. The central identity or primary set of identities often functions as the salient identity that orchestrates the cognitive process of interpreting stressors and the environment, which influence behavior (Stryker & Burke, 2000).

The U. S. Military identity may be the primary central identity for some Veterans in the workplace, despite Veterans no longer being on active duty. It is likely that many Veterans have a U.S. Military identity present somewhere in their identity hierarchy. Because the saliency of some Veterans' U. S. Military identities has the potential to hinder some Veterans' adjustment to civilian workplace roles, Veterans possessing multiple social identities may be better equipped to adjust to their workplace environment.

Social support. Various forms of social support in Veterans' work environments can be used as personal resources to help positively influence the cognitive appraisal process. There are many forms of social support. First, structural support consists of having a system of supportive other people (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Then, functional support (i.e., how employees utilize their structural support; Beehr & Glazer, 2001) can be used. Functional support is comprised of emotional and instrumental support. Emotional support refers to a reliance on others to make

employees feel better, whereas instrumental support refers to tangible supports that assist employees in obtaining resources that can help them to effectively cope with stressors. A well-developed social support system with coworkers that can provide emotional and instrumental support can serve as a useful personal resource for Veterans when they are confronted with workplace stressors.

Political skill. Organizations are political arenas (Ferris, Treadway, Perrewé, Brouer, Douglas, & Lux, 2007). Further, there are perceptual and objective differences in politics between organizations. For Veterans, their previous interpersonal interactions while in the military and their expected interpersonal interactions in civilian organizations may be very different. To help adjust to their new environment, Veterans can develop their political skill, which reflects "the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004, p. 311). Political skill can be learned and developed, so Veterans that are not politically skilled when they enter the workplace can become politically skilled.

Socialization. Socialization describes an ongoing process of individuals acquiring the attitudes, behavior, and knowledge that come along with participating as an organizational member (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Cable & Parsons, 2001; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Socialization can support the continuation of organizational values and norms by helping employees learn how to appropriately respond to events and interpersonal interactions in the workplace (Bauer et al., 1998; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). New employee orientation programs often are used to begin the socialization process. Klein and Weaver (2000) suggested that employees that attend an orientation training program are significantly more socialized into

the organization than employees who do not attend orientation training programs. The socialization process can be particularly important for new hires, especially Veterans who transition between organizations and from military roles to civilian roles.

Resiliency, identity, social support, political skill, and socialization all are important personal resources for Veterans in organizations. Unlike the damaging nature of their chronic strain, Veterans' personal resources may help reduce the amount of hindrance stressors perceived.

Proposition 4: *Personal resources moderate the workplace stressor-cognitive appraisal relationship such that as a high resource individual perceives a workplace stressor, he or she will be more likely to perceive that stressor as irrelevant or a challenge stressor than a low resource individual.*

Felt Stress

If the primary appraisal determines that a potential workplace stressor is irrelevant, then there likely will not be any felt stress, and the cognitive appraisal process will end. Similarly, if a workplace stressor is determined to be a challenge stressor, then little or no felt stress likely will result. Irrelevant and challenge stressors lessen the burden of cognitive elaboration for Veterans and reduce the possibility of engaging in multiple simultaneous cognitive processes that negatively influence each other.

Proposition 5: *Little or no felt stress will result when workplace stressors are perceived to be irrelevant or challenge stressors.*

Felt stress results from the perception that a workplace stressor is a threat (i.e., hindrance stressor). When this is the case, Veterans will continue to cognitively evaluate the threat in order

to determine how to respond appropriately. The appraisal process continues when Veterans make an attribution for their felt stress.

Proposition 6: *Felt stress will result when workplace stressors are perceived as hindrance stressors.*

Attributions

Research suggests that individuals make attributions when they experience felt stress (Perrewé & Zellars, 1999). Attributions are subjective, perceptual assessments that identify individuals' causal explanations for their outcomes (Heider, 1958; Weiner, 1985). Individuals typically make attributions when an important, surprising, and/or unexpected outcome occurs, especially if the outcome is negative. Attributions often are described by attributional explanations such as effort, ability, the situation, and luck.

According to attribution theory, underlying attributional dimensions reveal the cognitive structure of attributional explanations (Weiner, 1986). A comprehensive discussion of all of the identified attributional dimensions is beyond the scope of this paper, so I follow prior research (Perrewé & Zellars, 1999) and focus on the widely used dimensions of locus of causality and controllability. Locus of causality refers to whether or not the cause of an outcome is perceived to be located within the individual; typically, locus of causality is described as internal or external. On the other hand, controllability refers to whether or not a cause is perceived to be under the volitional control of the individual (Weiner, 1979); controllability typically is described as controllable or uncontrollable. Different combinations of the locus of causality and controllability dimensions result in various attributional explanations that drive emotions, which ultimately drive perceptions and behaviors.

Emotions

Individuals that have a stake in an encounter are thought to generate the potential for emotion (Lazarus, 1991). In the conceptual model, Veterans who perceive a hindrance stressor (i. e., a threat) during the primary appraisal process are thought to determine that they have a stake in the encounter. Engaging in the cognitive elaboration necessary to make an attribution suggests that Veterans have a stake in the hindrance stressors they experience; otherwise the primary appraisal process likely would direct Veterans to interpret stressors as positive (i.e., challenge stressors) or irrelevant.

Positive emotions. Internal and controllable attributions can result in positive emotions (Perrewé & Zellars, 1999), such as hope. Internal and controllable attributions suggest that individuals attribute their felt stress to a lack of effort. Positive emotions (e.g., hope) are thought to encourage problem-solving coping.

Negative emotions. Negative emotions are thought to result when Veterans do not believe that they have control over the cause of their negative outcomes. Thus, internal and uncontrollable, external and organizationally controllable, and external and organizationally uncontrollable attributions are all thought to result in negative emotions (Perrewé & Zellars, 1999). Internal and uncontrollable attributions are associated with perceptions of a general lack of ability and are linked to feelings of shame. External and organizationally controllable attributions are associated with perceptions of unreasonable demands or exceptional task difficulty and are linked to feelings of anger, which is an important precursor to workplace aggression, retaliation, revenge, and sabotage (Bies & Tripp, 1996; Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Martinko & Zellars, 1998; Weiner, 1995). External and organizationally uncontrollable attributions are associated with perceptions of a lack of resources or bad luck and are linked to

feelings of frustration. When employees perceive that their organization has little or no control over negative outcomes, the severity of negative emotions toward the organization is thought to be reduced (Clore & Centerbar, 2004). With the judgment of organizational responsibility removed, a hostile response is predicted to be difficult to justify (Weiner, 1995).

Overall, attributions that reflect a lack of perceived control typically result in negative emotions such as shame, anger, or frustration. These negative emotions drive Veterans' choices of appropriate coping mechanisms. Negative emotions are thought to encourage emotion-focused coping.

Proposition 7: *Hindrance stressors lead to various emotions, depending on the type of attribution made for felt stress.*

Job-Related Outcomes

The transactional model of stress identifies the cognitive appraisal process Veterans undergo when evaluating potential workplace stressors. This cognitive process has implications for a host of important perceptual and behavioral workplace outcomes. Long-term job strain, job satisfaction, other-directed aggression, and self-directed aggression are particularly relevant outcomes for Veterans.

Long-term job strain. Job strain is the result of experienced stress. Examples of job strain include anxiety, burnout, depression, and exhaustion (Jex, 1998). The effects of job strain are often negative and the cumulative effects of long-term job strain can be detrimental to Veterans successfully transitioning into the civilian workplace. Veterans with well-developed personal resources may better adapt to their new work environment, experience more positive emotions, and experience less long-term job strain than Veterans with fewer and less well-developed personal resources.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is an evaluative judgment regarding the satisfaction one derives from their work. Research (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Locke, 1969) suggests that job satisfaction is an appraisal that relies on the perceived relationship between the job and the person. Veterans may fundamentally differ from civilians in how they appraise their relationship with their job. Veterans who generally experience more positive emotions likely will judge that they have greater levels of job satisfaction than Veterans that are prone to experiencing negative emotions resultant from a lack of perceived control.

Other-directed aggression. Workplace aggression has been broadly conceptualized as any verbal or physical behavior that is performed with the intention to harm someone either physically or psychologically (Baron & Richardson, 1994; Berkowitz, 1988). Martinko and Zellars (1998) defined workplace aggression as "retaliatory aggression by an employee or former employee of an organization against individual(s) within the organization, with the intent to do harm" (p. 5). Although major acts of workplace violence (e.g., attacks with weapons) may not be common, their psychological impact is profound (Griffin & O'Leary-Kelly, 2004; Leymann, 1990). Aggression may be an especially important workplace outcome to examine for Veterans due to the increased likelihood that many Veterans have been previously exposed to aggression. Research suggests that exposure to aggression likely results in increases in aggression (Wood, Wong, & Chachere, 1991). Aggression can be other-directed or self-directed aggression (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002).

Other-directed aggression involves an externally focused, negative affective reaction. Other-directed aggression includes forms of non-violent acts, such as stealing, intentional work slowdowns, spreading rumors, or refusing to provide needed resources; other-directed aggression also includes hostile acts that include behaviors such as attacks with weapons, physical assault,

threats of violence, and vandalism (Harvey, Summers, & Martinko, 2010). Veterans that experience a lot of negative emotions, such as anger and frustration, will be more likely to engage in other-directed aggression than Veterans prone to experiencing positive emotions.

Self-directed aggression. Self-directed aggression involves an internally focused, negative affective reaction. Self-directed aggression includes forms of non-violent acts (e.g., alcohol abuse, drug abuse, procrastination, withdrawal) and hostile acts (e.g., self-inflicted injury, suicide; Harvey et al., 2010). A lack of perceived control can make individuals see themselves as unable to prevent negative outcomes in the future. The resultant negative emotions, particularly shame, may elicit self-directed aggression (Martinko, Douglas, Harvey, & Joseph, 2005).

Self-directed aggression is an especially relevant outcome for Veterans because the U.S. Army Veteran suicide rate has continually grown since 2004 (Harrell & Berglass, 2011). The Department of Veterans Affairs (2010) estimates that a Veteran suicides every 80 minutes. Veterans' self-directed aggression may go unnoticed in less severe cases, but Veterans' self-inflicted injury or suicide likely will have an influence on the perceptual and behavioral outcomes of their coworkers. Veterans who experience a lot of negative emotions (e.g., shame) will be more likely to engage in self-directed aggression than Veterans prone to experiencing positive emotions.

Proposition 8: *Positive (negative) emotions result in less (more) job strain, more (less) job satisfaction, less (more) other-directed aggression, and less (more) self-directed aggression.*

Job strain, job satisfaction, other-directed aggression, and self-directed aggression are important workplace outcomes for Veterans (re-)entering the workforce; however, these outcomes do not represent the end of the transactional model of stress.

Re-Appraisals

The results of the aforementioned workplace outcomes can and usually will influence future cognitive appraisals. Specifically, the results of these outcomes will influence Veterans' re-evaluations of the quality and quantity of their personal resources. Positive outcomes resultant from positive emotions should help Veterans build personal resources, whereas negative outcomes resultant from negative emotions likely lead Veterans to devalue their personal resources.

Proposition 9: *Work-related outcomes will influence Veterans' assessments of their available resources.*

Veterans' re-assessments of the types and amounts of their resources will almost assuredly alter how their personal resources bias their future cognitive processes. Chronic strain is suggested to have a unique and important exacerbating influence on Veterans' stress perceptions. When Veterans alter their subjective assessments of the quality and quantity of their personal resources, they ultimately will accentuate or ease their perceptions of the severity of their lingering chronic strain. Thus, Veterans who become adept at developing useful personal resources during the reinforcement stage of the stressor-strain process may be able to reduce the negative effects of their chronic strain over time.

Proposition 10: *Veterans' re-assessments of their personal resources will increase or decrease their experienced level of chronic strain.*

Practitioner Application

Organizations use a great deal of resources in an effort to manage employees' stress (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001). This may be especially true for organizations that employ large numbers of Veterans because Veterans not only transition from one organization to

another, they transition from military to civilian life. Organizations should consider staging interventions to help smooth the process for Veterans who transition to civilian workplace roles. Although interventions may occur at a number of stages in the conceptual model, interventions occurring before the primary appraisal, during the attribution-making process, and when Veterans re-evaluate their levels and qualities of personal resources during the reinforcement part of the cognitive appraisal process may be particularly helpful.

First, interventions aimed at helping Veterans before their primary appraisal (i. e., when determining whether potential workplace stressors are threats or not) may enable Veterans to interpret fewer potential stressors as hindrance stressors. If fewer workplace stressors are perceived to be hindrance stressors, then the transactional model of stress is shortened and the cumulative effects of assessing potential stressors may be lessened. The potentially negative effects of simultaneously interpreting multiple stressors also may be lessened. Building Veterans' perceptions of the quality and amount of their personal resources available is an effective means of intervening at this stage of the model. Resiliency, identity, social support, political skill, and socialization are useful personal resources that Veterans can try to build before and during employment to assist with their transition to their current or future work roles.

Next, interventions designed to address the types of attributions Veterans make can focus on encouraging Veterans to make realistic attributions. Internal and controllable attributions are preferable when possible because these attributions are more likely to lead to positive emotions and outcomes than attributions reflecting a lack of perceived control. Organizations can use attributional retraining techniques (i.e., counseling) to help Veterans focus on making realistic and objective attributions (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978; Harvey et al., 2010; Martinko & Gardner, 1982).

Finally, interventions may occur when Veterans re-evaluate the qualities and quantities of their personal resources. Greater resiliency, stronger and/or a greater number of identities, greater and/or more useful social support, stronger political skill, and more thorough socialization are suggested to increase Veterans' assessments of their qualities and quantities of their personal resources. Although a full discussion of techniques to develop personal resources is beyond the scope of this paper, this level of intervention has much promise for organizations because there likely is a multitude of ways to develop Veterans' personal resources. Organizations and managers can focus early and often on developing Veterans' personal resources in a manner that takes into account organizational norms and goals.

Limitations, Contributions, and Directions for Future Research

The transactional model of stress is not without its critics. It has been argued that affect may occur without significant cognitive processing (Zajonc, 1984). Thus, an individual may not consciously go through the whole transactional model of cognitive processing when considering the sources of their acute stressors and determining why their successes and failures occurred. Lazarus (1984) argued that cognition precedes affect, even when extensive cognitive elaboration is not used.

Additionally, the highly perceptual nature of the cognitive evaluation process suggests that not all Veterans will consider the same workplace stressors to be threats. There has been some research that attempts to examine objective workplace stressors, but this work has been inconclusive and the subjective nature of determining what constitutes an objective stressor may be just as controversial as trying to discern whether employees consistently perceive legitimate stressors.

Little work has been done to examine differences between Veterans and civilians in the workplace. Even less research has been conducted to examine the effects of chronic strain on Veterans' subjective cognitive assessments of potential stressors in the workplace. Veterans' chronic strain likely negatively biases their perceptual and behavioral responses associated with workplace stressors. With the relative lack of research on Veterans' biased information processing, there is much room for research. Specifically, future research could examine factors that influence Veterans' levels of chronic strain and identify the causes and implications of Veterans' chronic strain. Qualitative exploration of what Veterans suggest influences their levels of chronic strain and empirical testing of all or parts of the conceptual model likely would prove fruitful for organizations that want to help Veterans transition to civilian workplace roles. Empirically testing portions of the model to determine which influences on chronic strain negatively affect Veterans' subjective assessments and which personal resources most consistently attenuate these negative effects would be useful. Research needs to further explore how objective environments get subjectively appraised by Veterans.

Conclusion

Many Veterans carry significant, lingering chronic strain around with them while in the civilian workplace, and this chronic strain likely negatively biases their subjective assessments of workplace stressors. Veterans cognitively and subjectively construct their own reality, and this reality is biased by the negative effects of their chronic strain, as well as the positive effects of their personal resources. Developing personal resources and reducing chronic strain over time can help Veterans effectively adapt to civilian workplace roles.

Veterans served domestically and abroad to protect the American people that comprise and run American organizations. Now it is time for American organizations to serve the Veterans

that protected their interests. Actively seeking to employ Veterans is an important first step, but further precautions and support must be offered when helping Veterans transition from the military to the civilian workplace. My modest purpose is to encourage researchers to identify how to reduce the number of perceived threats for Veterans in their work environment by identifying effective means of increasing Veterans' personal resources and decreasing Veterans' levels of chronic strain. Although it is infeasible to eliminate all stressors, a reduction in the number of times Veterans go through the whole cognitive cycle of stress has the potential to alleviate some of the chronic strain preventing Veterans from effectively transitioning to the civilian workforce.

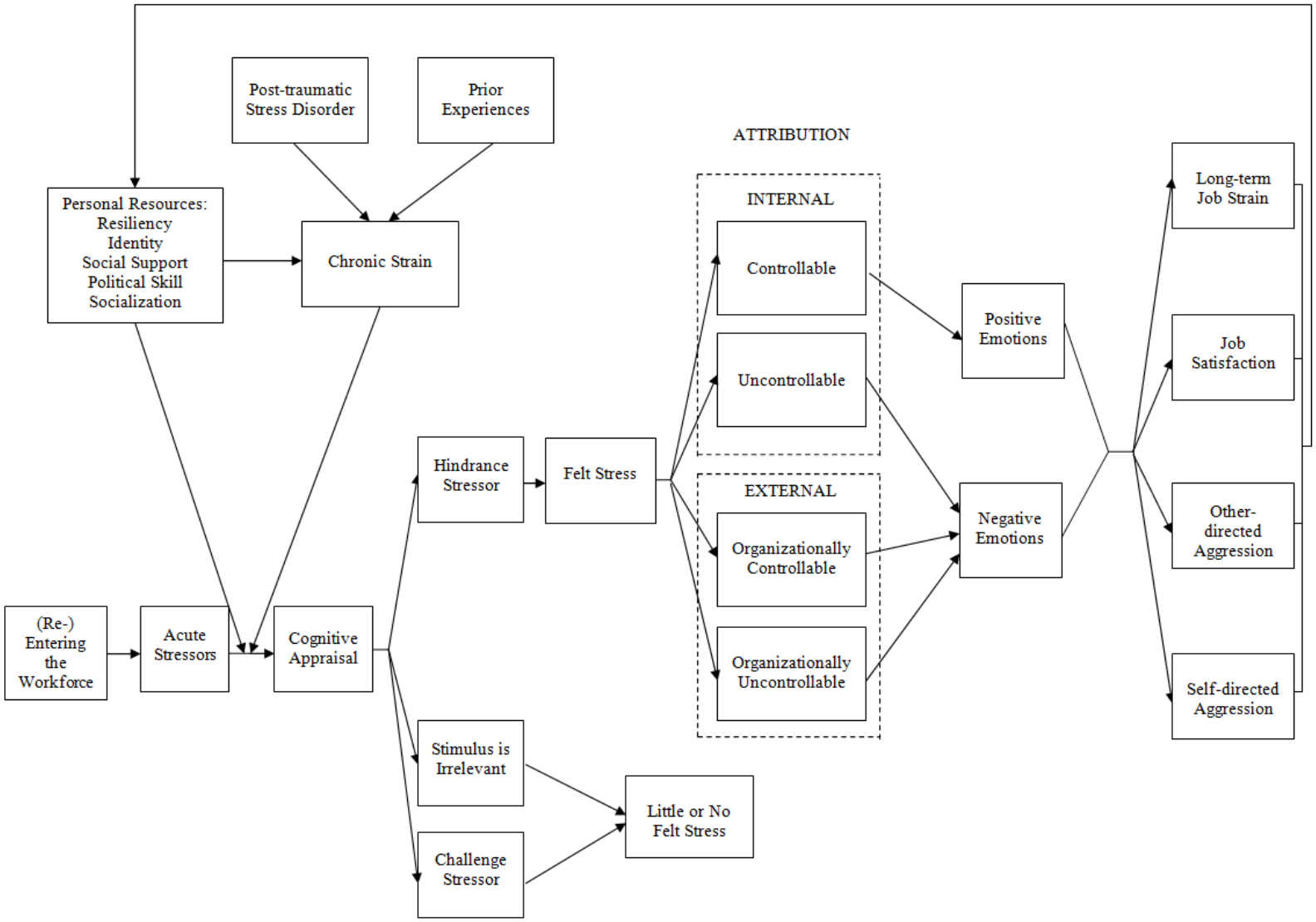

Figure 1. A transactional model of stress for Veterans (re-)entering the civilian workplace.

CHAPTER THREE

DO I FIT IN? PERCEPTIONS OF FIT AS A RESOURCE TO REDUCE WORKPLACE STRESS: AN EXAMINATION OF NON-VETERANS AND VETERANS (ESSAY 2)

Job stress is a fact of organizational life that costs organizations billions of dollars in lost productivity, employee absenteeism, and disability claims every year (Perrewé et al., 2005; Spector, Chen, & O'Connell, 2000; Xie & Schaubroeck, 2001). Stress arises from a disruption to an individual's cognitive-emotional-environmental system and/or natural homeostatic balance by some external environmental demand (Cannon, 1932; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; McGrath, 1976). Over time, stress can build (Fuller et al., 2003) to have adverse effects on individuals' mental and physical health, as well as organization-related outcomes (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; Perrewé et al., 2004; Spector et al., 2000).

Over the past 20 years, many stress researchers have used Hobfoll's (1989, 2001) conservation of resources (COR) theory to explain why individuals were motivated to maintain and accumulate resources that could be used as means to develop or protect other valued resources. The COR theory serves as a useful theoretical framework for stress researchers because of its flexibility. Although the COR theory has been applied to a wide array of organizations and industries, there has been little work examining how individuals' perceptions of fit within their organization may serve as a resource capable of developing and protecting other valued resources. This is surprising given that the need to belong has been argued as a fundamental human motivation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

Not surprisingly, little work has examined how different groups of employees may fundamentally differ in how they appraise organizational demands (i.e., hindrance and challenge stressors) and fit with others in organizations (i.e., organizational goodness-of-fit). In the present

study, I examine how Veterans of the United States (U.S.) military (i.e., Veterans; men and women who have previously served on active duty in the U.S. Armed Forces and have since returned to civilian life; Walker, 2010) working in civilian organizations may differ from their non-Veteran (i.e., individual who is not currently in the military and has no military experience) counterparts in how they appraise organizational demands and fit, as well as how these perceptions drive their stress processes in civilian organizations.

Veterans are an important sub-group of employees to study for numerous reasons. First, there is a large and underutilized pool of talented Veterans seeking work in civilian organizations (Beauchesne, 2012). As of 2009, roughly 2 million of the 23 million Veterans living in the U.S. and/or its territories were unemployed (Westat, 2010). Projections forecasted that an influx of an additional 1 million Veterans may try to hit the job market between 2011 and 2016 as service members return from tours of duty (Glazer, 2011). Further, Veterans who have left the service since September 2001, often referred to as Gulf War-era II Veterans, have unemployment rates as high as 13.1%, which is drastically higher than the non-Veteran population's 8.1% unemployment rate (Freking, 2012).

The alarmingly high unemployment figures for Veterans may stem from Veterans' exposure to combat, other forms of trauma, and stressors unique to the military environment (Dolan & Ender, 2008). For example, Kleim, Graham, Fihosy, Stott, and Ehlers (2014) found that trauma survivors suffered from autobiographical memory overgenerality that was associated with fewer imagined specific events that were in response to positive, but not in response to negative, stimuli. Those returning from service in Iraq with higher levels of the serotonin transporter gene (i.e., 5-HTTLPR) may be particularly troubled by these issues because they are susceptible to biased processing of negative stimuli (Disner et al., 2013). Organizations that can

successfully hire and gainfully employ Veterans may build a competitive advantage over other organizations by tapping into an underutilized and growing labor pool of the most educated, highest skilled military ever to enter the civilian workplace (Beauchesne, 2012), building reputational capital by engaging in socially responsible actions (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012), and benefitting from the state and/or federal tax credits available for organizations hiring Veterans (Glazer, 2011).

Due to the large number of returning and unemployed Veterans in the U.S., as well as the importance of examining the problem of stress and well-being in the military (Harms, Krasikova, Vanhove, Herian, & Lester, 2013), there has been a growing body of research in the past decade examining service members and Veterans; however, research still paints an incomplete picture of Veterans' stress and well-being in civilian organizations because most mental health-related interventions targeted toward service members and Veterans have demonstrated small effects that are typically more effective among Veterans who have been exposed to combat than those who have not been exposed to combat (Adler, Bliese, McGurk, Hoge, & Castro, 2009). Thus, it is important for research to explore if and how Veterans may differ from non-Veterans in how they experience the stress process in civilian organizations.

This research makes two primary contributions to the stress literature. First, I extend research examining the role of perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit in the stress process. Lanivich, Brees, Hochwarter, and Ferris (2010) called for more research examining the nature and extent to which perceptions of fit affect stress-inducing constructs and their outcomes (Wheeler & Halbesleben, 2009). This study helps answer their call by further exploring the role of the elusive criterion of fit (Wheeler, Buckley, Halbesleben, Brouer, & Ferris, 2005) in influencing psychological reactions to workplace stimuli. Second, I extend research examining

how employees with different experiences prior to their current employment (i.e., employees without military experiences, employees with military experiences) may fundamentally differ in how they experience the stress process.

Therefore, the purpose of the present study is to explore the role of hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit on strain-inducing (i.e., job tension) and motivational (i.e., vigor) cognitive processes associated with employees' intrapersonal (i.e., job satisfaction, work intensity) and interpersonal (i.e., interpersonal workplace deviance, work-family interference) outcomes. Thus, the research question driving the present investigation concerns whether or not the stress process for non-Veterans and Veterans working in civilian organizations differs.

Background Research, Theory, and Hypothesis Development

The Conservation of Resources Theory

Overall, the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) is a resource-oriented stress model founded on the notion that individuals strive to retain, protect, and build resources in order to buffer against the threat of the potential or actual loss of valued resources. Resources aid in stress resistance, and can come in many forms (Hobfoll, 1989). Objects (e.g., mansions) and personal characteristics (e.g., social adaptability) are resources that aid in stress resistance, whereas conditions (e.g., tenure) are considered resources to the extent to which they are sought after and valued. Finally, energies (e.g., time) are resources to the extent to which they are able to aid in the procurement of other types of resources.

According to COR theory, resource loss is posited to be the primary determinant of stress. Further, resource gain becomes critically important in the context of resource loss because currently held resources can be used to prevent resource loss. Thus, individuals without the

appropriate type and amount of resources may be susceptible to "rapid and impactful loss spirals" (Hobfoll, 2001, p. 338), and individuals with the appropriate type and amount of resources may experience positive spirals.

Hobfoll's (1989) COR theory builds off of Karasek's (1979) job demands-control model, which posited that psychological strain resulted from the joint effects of organizational demands and the range of decision-making control/discretion available to individuals facing these demands. The job demands-control model is consistent with Selye's (1956) paradigm of stress adaptation, which suggested that neither too much nor too little strain was good for individuals. The job demands-resources model (JD-R model; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) was developed as an empirical model of workplace stress that captured the conceptual tenets of Hobfoll's, Karasek's, and Selye's work.

Due to the flexible and extremely broad nature of the COR theory, a direct test of how all resources influence personal and organizational outcomes is implausible. Thus, rather than directly testing the COR theory, the COR theory is used as a theoretical lens in the present study. Studies using the COR theory as a theoretical lens have found that job demands can result in resource loss (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands refer to the physical, psychological, organizational, or social aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological costs. Although job demands are not necessarily negative, they are thought to be initiators of a health impairment process. Examples of common job demands include role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, irregular working hours, high work pressure, and/or an unfavorable physical work environment.

Broadly defined, job demands can be thought of as hindrance and challenge stressors. The distinction between hindrance and challenge stressors has been noted in the stress literature

for decades (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Selye, 1956), but the role of cognitive appraisal in determining what constitutes a hindrance or challenge stressor is still being explored (Webster, Beehr, & Love, 2011). Hindrance stressors are work circumstances that involve excessive or undesirable constraints that interfere with or inhibit employees' abilities to achieve valued goals (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). Hindrance stressors usually trigger negative emotions and forms of coping because they constrain personal gain, growth, development, and/or work related accomplishment (LePine, LePine, & Saul, 2007).

Alternatively, challenge stressors are considered job opportunities that have the potential to be rewarding experiences that promote individuals' personal accomplishments and growth (LePine et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2007). Challenge stressors are likely to trigger positive emotions, motivation, and problem-solving coping because they can promote learning performance, personal gain, personal development, personal growth (LePine et al., 2005, 2007). Much like hindrance stressors, challenge stressors can deplete resources, but challenge stressors also can stimulate and motivate individuals because they present opportunities to achieve goals and need satisfaction (Van den Broeck, de Cuyper, de Witte, & Vansteenkiste, 2010). Demerouti and Bakker (2011) recently called for further empirical examination of the differentiation between hindrance and challenge stressors in stress models using the COR theory as a theoretical lens.

In contrast to job demands, job resources refer to the physical, psychological, organizational, or social aspects of the job that can be functional in stimulating personal development, growth, and learning, as well as achieving work goals, and/or reducing the physiological and psychological costs associated with job demands. Not all job resources will

help alleviate the negative effects of job demands, but job resources are nonetheless important because they serve as initiators of a motivational process. Job resources can come from the macro, organizational level (e.g., career opportunities, job security, wages), the interpersonal level (e.g., coworker and supervisor support), the specific job position (e.g., participation in decision making), and/or the task level (e.g., autonomy, performance feedback, skill variety, task identity, task significance).

In contrast to job resources, which are provided by the organization, employees can bring personal resources with them into the workplace. Personal resources allow employees to meet the requirements of job roles while protecting employees from some of the strain associated with meeting those requirements. Job resources and personal resources can influence the primary and secondary appraisal stages of the stress process, which ultimately determine how stressors are appraised and which coping options are perceived as viable (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Mackey & Perrewé, 2014).

Although numerous types of job resources have been examined in the stress literature using the COR theory, the role of personal resources in the stress process still needs further exploration. In the present investigation, I explore the role of individuals' perceptions of fit within their organization as a personal resource. Specifically, I examine employees' perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit, which refer to individuals' perceptions of fit between themselves and other members of their organization. Ultimately, organizational goodness-of-fit reflects a subjective assessment of the extent to which employees perceive themselves to be prototypical members of some group that allows them to act like their true selves (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004; Stoner, Perrewé, & Hofacker, 2011). Organizational goodness-of-fit constitutes a condition type of resource (Hobfoll, 1989) because fitting in with

other members of the organization is something that is generally sought after and valued (Edwards, 2008), can provide stress-resistance potential, and provides a sense of belonging that appeals to a fundamental human motivation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit were chosen for the present study because these perceptions may affect non-Veterans and Veterans in civilian organizations differently.

Job Tension

Job strain manifests when external environmental demands disturb employees' natural homeostatic balances (Cannon, 1932) to create felt stress (Lazarus, 1968; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Job tension is a form of job strain that occurs when employees experience psychological responses to interruptions in their work environments (Chisholm, Kasl, & Eskenazi, 1983). In the present study, I suggest that job tension captures the psychological responses associated with job demands that drain employees' resources. The appraisal of organizational demands as hindrance or challenge stressors can differentially affect health impairment processes (Van den Broeck et al., 2010), but both forms of stressors can drain employees' resources. Thus, it is hypothesized that there will be a positive association between perceptions of hindrance and challenge stressors and job tension.

Hypothesis 1: Perceptions of hindrance stressors will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of job tension.

Hypothesis 2: Perceptions of challenge stressors will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of job tension.

Perceptions of fit can result in psychological reactions that influence attitudes and behaviors (Schneider, 1987; Wheeler et al., 2005). In contrast to the resource-depleting effects of hindrance and challenge stressors, perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit can serve as a

personal resource capable of protecting individuals from resource loss. Thus, it is hypothesized that perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of job tension.

Hypothesis 3: Perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of job tension.

Vigor

Vigor refers to employees' feelings of cognitive liveliness, emotional energy, and physical strength, which collectively serve as a set of interconnected affective experiences related to employees' energetic resources (Shirom, 2003; Shirom, Toker, Berliner, Shapira, & Melamed, 2008). In contrast to the psychological strain associated with job tension, vigor has been conceptualized as an indicator of optimal psychological functioning (Shirom, 2003). Similarly, in contrast to the resource-depleting nature of job tension, vigor likely is associated with a dynamic process of continuous increases in mental well-being that can result in increases in individuals' resources (Shirom, 2003).

Van den Broeck et al. (2010) found that job hindrances were negatively associated with vigor, whereas job challenges were positively associated with vigor. The present study seeks to constructively replicate Van den Broeck's findings by using different measures of hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and vigor. Based on Van den Broeck et al.'s findings, as well as the COR theory, it is hypothesized that hindrance stressors will be negatively associated with vigor, whereas challenge stressors will be positively associated with vigor.

Hypothesis 4: Perceptions of hindrance stressors will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of vigor.

Hypothesis 5: Perceptions of challenge stressors will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of vigor.

Research has found that job and personal resources are positively associated with vigor (e.g., Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2005; Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005). Individuals with high levels of perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit likely are equipped with a personal resource capable of protecting them from some of the resource loss associated with addressing organizational demands, resulting in more resources available for employees' affective experiences related to energetic resources. Thus, it is hypothesized that perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit will be associated with increases in feelings of vigor.

Hypothesis 6: Perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of vigor.

Workplace Outcomes

The present study seeks to examine whether and how different sub-groups of employees (i.e., non-Veterans, Veterans) experience the stress process differently, so it is important to examine outcomes that capture multiple components of the stress process. Thus, I examine evaluative perceptions (i.e., job satisfaction), perceptions of working hard (i.e., work intensity), reports of dysfunctional behaviors in the workplace (i.e., interpersonal workplace deviance), and assessments of how stress at work affects employees' familial responsibilities (i.e., work-family interference). In all, the outcomes chosen for the present study capture perceptions and behaviors in the workplace and at home that are thought to stem from stressors and strain in the workplace. Many of the aforementioned outcomes have been examined in studies utilizing the COR theory, but these outcomes have not been used in tandem in a stress model that can estimate the effects of the stress process on these outcomes simultaneously.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction represents an overall sum evaluation of perceived work favorability (Locke, 1969; Weiss, 2002). In general, the COR theory suggests health impairment processes will be negatively associated with evaluations of the work environment, whereas motivational processes will be positively associated with evaluations of the work environment (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Thus, employees who feel energized by their work and experience increases in mental well-being likely are more satisfied with their work than employees whose resources are drained by the psychological responses associated with job tension. In sum, it is hypothesized that job tension will be negatively associated with job satisfaction, whereas vigor will be positively associated with job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7: Perceptions of job tension will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 8: Perceptions of vigor will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of job satisfaction.

Work intensity. Work intensity is a dimension of work effort that refers to energy exerted per unit of time (i.e., force; Brown & Leigh, 1996). Work intensity and time commitment form the core of working hard, which requires resources. Thus, employees who feel vigorous and energetic are more likely to experience high levels of work intensity than employees who lose resources due to psychological responses associated with job tension. Consistent with the tenets of the COR theory, it is hypothesized that job tension will be negatively associated with work intensity and vigor will be positively associated with work intensity.

Hypothesis 9: Perceptions of job tension will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of work intensity.

Hypothesis 10: Perceptions of vigor will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of work intensity.

Interpersonal workplace deviance. Workplace deviance is "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). Robinson and Bennett's definition excludes trivial violations of social norms that "are not usually or directly harmful" (p. 557). Further, interpersonal workplace deviance consists of overt acts in the presence of at least one other person that inflict harm upon at least one individual. Examples of interpersonally-directed deviant behaviors usually include verbal harassment, physical aggression, sexual harassment, and assault.

Interpersonal workplace deviance is a negative form of interpersonal mistreatment that can reflect employees' lack of resources necessary to interact with others appropriately or employees' attempts to take resources from other employees. Thus, employees whose resources are already depleted by job tension may be more likely to engage in interpersonal workplace deviance than employees who invest resources in vigor because those who invest resources in vigor likely have the resources necessary to interact with others appropriately and/or do not need to attempt to take resources from other employees.

Hypothesis 11: Perceptions of job tension will be positively associated with individuals' tendencies to engage in interpersonal workplace deviance.

Hypothesis 12: Perceptions of vigor will be negatively associated with individuals' tendencies to engage in interpersonal workplace deviance.

Work-family interference. Work-family interference reflects the extent to which employees' functioning with their family is influenced by demands at work, and can be a serious

issue because many employees have considerable familial responsibilities in addition to their demands at work (Bakker, ten Brummelhuis, Prins, & van der Heijden, 2011). Work-family interference sometimes is referred to as work-home interference or work-family conflict (Bakker et al., 2011). Further, negative forms of interference are generally more frequent than positive forms of interference (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Janssen, Peeters, de Jonge, Houkes, & Tummers, 2004). Employees whose resources are depleted by job tension likely experience increases in work-family interference because of their limited remaining personal resources available to address familial demands (i.e., the work-home resources model; ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), whereas employees who have sufficient resources to feel vigorous in the workplace likely are able to build and/or protect resources that can be used to address familial demands.

Hypothesis 13: Perceptions of job tension will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of work-family interference.

Hypothesis 14: Perceptions of vigor will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of work-family interference.

According to the COR theory, job demands can initiate health impairment processes and resources can initiate motivational processes. Ultimately, both of these processes influence personal and organizational outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Strain (e.g., job tension) has been used to examine the health impairment process in stress research examining the effects of job demands (e.g., Demerouti & Bakker, 2007) and subjective perceptions of fit (e.g., Edwards, 2008) on outcomes. In contrast, vigor has been used to examine the motivational process in stress research (i.e., Shirom, 2003). Ultimately, this study seeks to explore the role of job tension and vigor in the stress process and assess whether, how, and to what extent non-Veterans and

Veterans differ in their experience of the stress process. Thus, in addition to the direct effects hypothesized earlier in the paper, it is hypothesized that job tension and vigor will mediate the relationships between job demands (i.e., hindrance and challenge stressors) and resources (i.e., organizational goodness-of-fit) and intrapersonal (i.e., job satisfaction, work intensity) and interpersonal (i.e., interpersonal workplace deviance, work-family interference) outcomes.

Hypothesis 15a-d: Job tension will mediate the relationship between hindrance stressors and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.

Hypothesis 16a-d: Job tension will mediate the relationship between challenge stressors and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.

Hypothesis 17a-d: Job tension will mediate the relationship between organizational goodness-of-fit and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.

Hypothesis 18a-d: Vigor will mediate the relationship between hindrance stressors and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.

Hypothesis 19a-d: Vigor will mediate the relationship between challenge stressors and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.

Hypothesis 20a-d: Vigor will mediate the relationship between organizational goodness-of fit and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.

Research Question: Does the stress process for non-Veterans and Veterans working in civilian organizations differ?

Method

Plan of the Research

The present study employs a two-sample constructive replication design to assess differences in the stress process that stem from fundamental differences between non-Veterans and Veterans. Constructive replications can utilize changes in sampling procedures, rating sources, measures, and/or subjects to provide stronger evidence for the validity of results than is possible with single-study designs (Eden, 2002; Lykken, 1968; Schmidt, 2009). Further, multiple study designs can increase evidence for the validity of empirical results and make substantive and meaningful contributions to research (Hochwarter, Ferris, & Hanes, 2011). In the present study, the first sample tests the stress process described throughout this paper with a sample of non-Veterans (i.e., U.S. civilians without any military experience). Then, the second sample constructively replicates the findings from the first sample with a sample of Veterans of the U.S. military currently working in civilian organizations. Thus, the present study utilizes a two-sample design intended to constructively replicate findings from a sample of non-Veterans across a Veteran sample (i.e., this study utilizes a change in subjects) to examine the validity of the general model and assess the potential for differences across the two groups.

Participants and Procedures

Sample 1. 350 respondents were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) platform, which is an online marketplace for work that connects individuals who wish to complete Human Intelligence Tasks (i.e., HITs; simple tasks) with individuals who wish to have tasks completed for modest levels of financial compensation. MTurk is popular among social

scientists because it provides a quick, effective means for reaching out to participants, and because results obtained from MTurk workers are considered comparable to results obtained from traditional subject populations (e.g., Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012). I posted a HIT with a link to the electronic questionnaire on MTurk's website and compensated respondents $0.50 for completing the questionnaire.

The questionnaire began with a letter of consent, proceeded with measures of the exogenous variables, mediators, and outcomes, then concluded with a section for demographic variables and general comments. Short measures of constructs not examined in the study were included throughout the questionnaire to help conceal the true purpose of the study. The questionnaire was structured this way to help limit the potential for common method bias to inflate relationships and pose a threat to the validity of the study (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

There were several inclusion criteria respondents were required to meet to be included in the final sample. Specifically, respondents had to indicate that they were at least 18 years of age, spoke English, lived in the U.S., were *not* Veterans of the U.S. military, and that they worked at least 20 hours per week. If the same worker responded to the survey multiple times, based on the worker ID provided and the IP address used to complete the survey, then only their first response was included in the final sample. In cases where only a single response was missing from a measure, within-person mean imputation was used to replace the missing value; this only affected 3 cases (1% of the sample). If more than a single response was missing for any measure, the case was removed from the analyses. After removing cases that did not meet the inclusion criteria, the final sample consisted of 268 employed civilians (77% final response rate). The respondents averaged 33.9 years of age (σ = 11.1), about 5.4 years of organizational tenure (σ =

5.0), and worked about 39.6 hours per week (σ = 8.1). Roughly half of the respondents were male (49.6%) and most respondents reported working full-time (81.7%).

Sample 2. Data for the second sample were collected by contacting Veterans through social media websites. Specifically, I posted information about the survey on the message boards of Veterans' group pages on two popular personal and professional social media websites (i.e., Facebook and LinkedIn). The posting notified Veterans about the purpose of the study and invited them to voluntarily participate in an anonymous online questionnaire if they were currently working in civilian organizations. Fifteen respondents were chosen at random to receive $25 Amazon gift cards for their participation. The questionnaire was structured in the same manner as the questionnaire used for the first sample, except Veteran demographic information was added to the portion of the survey that inquired about demographic information. Again, precautions were taken to help limit the potential for common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012).

A total of 283 individuals responded to the survey. In cases where only a single response was missing from a measure, within-person mean imputation was used to replace the missing value; this only affected 5 cases (2% of the sample). After removing responses from non-Veterans, Veterans who did not work at least 20 hours per week, and cases that were missing more than one response from any given measure, the final sample consisted of 259 Veterans who were currently working in civilian organizations (92% useable data). This useable data rate likely is inflated because there is no way to detect how many Veterans read the post about the study but chose not to participate.

The respondents averaged 48.6 years of age (σ = 11.4) and about 8.7 years of organizational tenure (σ = 9.4). As expected, the majority of respondents were male (*n* = 235;

90.7%). Most respondents reported working full-time (94.6%), and averaged about 49.0 hours of work per week ($\sigma = 10.9$). Most of the respondents served in the Army (86.1%), but Veterans of the Air Force (4.6%), Marines (1.9%), Navy (2.3%), and Coast Guard (0.4%) also were represented; 4.2% of respondents indicated that they served in multiple branches, and one respondent did not identify the branch in which they served. On average, respondents spent about 17.6 years in the military ($\sigma = 9.1$), 1.8 years in combat zones ($\sigma = 3.7$), and had been separated from service for roughly 10.5 years ($\sigma = 10.1$). About 57.9% of respondents sustained a physical disability while on active duty and 48.7% of respondents indicated that they had a disability rating; among the 112 respondents who had a disability rating, there was an average disability rating of 41.0% ($\sigma = 30.6$).

Measures

I used a seven-point response format (1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree") for all measures, unless otherwise noted. Higher scores for each measure reflected greater perceptions of each construct than lower scores. Please see Table 1 for a complete list of items, response formats, standardized item loadings, and composite reliabilities for all measures.

Hindrance stressors. I used a five-item measure developed by Cavanaugh et al. (2000) to measure perceptions of hindrance stressors. Cavanaugh et al. used a five-point scale (1 = "produces no stress," 5 = "produces a great deal of stress"), but Webster, Beehr, and Christiansen (2010) suggested that this response scale format artificially inflated correlations with strain measures. Thus, I used the seven-point response format Webster et al. used (1 = "strongly disagree," 7 = "strongly agree;" sample 1: Cronbach's alpha [α] = .79, construct reliability [CR] = .83, average variance extracted [AVE] = .61; sample 2: α = .75, CR = .76, AVE = .52).

Challenge stressors. I used a six-item measure developed by Cavanaugh et al. (2000) to measure perceptions of challenge stressors. Again, I followed Webster et al.'s suggestion to use a seven-point agreement scale instead of Cavanaugh et al.'s original scale points (sample 1: α = .89, CR = .92, AVE = .78; sample 2: α = .90, CR = .93, AVE = .81).

Organizational goodness-of-fit. I adapted the four-item dimension of goodness-of-fit from Stoner et al.'s (2011) 15-item multidimensional identity scale to measure organizational goodness-of-fit (sample 1: α = .88, CR = .89, AVE = .72; sample 2: α = .92, CR = .93, AVE = .81).

Job tension. I used a seven-item measure developed by House and Rizzo (1972) to measure perceptions of job tension. One of the items (i.e., "I often 'take my job home with me' in the sense that I think about it when doing other things") was problematic. Specifically, across both samples, the aforementioned item had the lowest standardized item loading, highest item mean, highest item standard deviation, and lowest average inter-item correlation with other items among the job tension items. Thus, the item was removed from the analyses. The content of the removed item partially overlapped with the content of another item in the measure (i.e., "Problems associated with my job have kept me awake at night"), suggesting that the content validity of the measure did not suffer meaningfully because the item was removed. Thus, the final measure of job tension consisted of six items (sample 1: α = .88, CR = .89, AVE = .73; sample 2: α = .87, CR = .86, AVE = .67).

Vigor. I used a six-item measure of vigor from Schaufeli and Bakker's (2003) 17-item measure of workplace engagement. The original measure contained three subscales of engagement: vigor, dedication, and absorption. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they felt various ways about their work. A seven-point response format was used (1 =

"never," 7 = "always;" sample 1: α = .84, CR = .87, AVE = .69; sample 2: α = .88, CR = .92, AVE = .79).

Job satisfaction. I used a three-item job satisfaction measure developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979; sample 1: α = .91, CR = .91, AVE = .77; sample 2: α = .91, CR = .92, AVE = .79).

Work intensity. I used a five-item measure developed by Brown and Leigh (1996) to measure work intensity (sample 1: α = .92, CR = .93, AVE = .81; sample 2: α = .89, CR = .90, AVE = .76).

Interpersonal workplace deviance. I used a seven-item measure developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000) to measure interpersonal workplace deviance. Although the seven items from the original scale were used, two important modifications were made to the response format in order to make responses consistent with Robinson and Bennett's (1995) definition of workplace deviance. First, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they *voluntarily* engaged in the deviant behaviors described in the items. Second, a seven-point response format was used that incorporated the role of employees' perceptions of organizational norms (1 = "much less than my coworkers," 7 = "much more than my coworkers"). Thus, respondents were asked to report the extent to which they voluntarily engaged in deviant interpersonal behaviors in the workplace, in comparison with their coworkers (sample 1: α = .96, CR = .96, AVE = .88; sample 2: α = .96, CR = .96, AVE = .88).

Work-family interference. I adapted a two-item work-family conflict measure used by Vinokur, Pierce, Lewandowski-Romps, Hobfoll, and Galea (2011) to measure work-family interference. The items used by Vinokur et al. originally asked respondents to indicate the extent to which their Air Force job was interfering with their family life. I adapted the items to reflect

the extent to which respondents' jobs were interfering with their family life. "How often does your job or career interfere with your responsibilities at home?" and "How often does your job or career keep you from spending the amount of time you would like to spend with your family?" were the items used. A seven-point response format was used (1 = "never or almost never," 7 = "always or almost always;" sample 1: $\alpha = .88$, CR = .88, AVE = .79; sample 2: $\alpha = .87$, CR = .88, AVE = .78).

Assessment of Measures

Both, McQuitty (2004; $df = 250$ and $\pi = .90$ requires $N \geq 90$; $df = 300$ and $\pi = .90$ requires $N \geq 81$) and Reinartz, Haenline, and Henseler (2009; $N = 250$; moderate equal item loadings of .7; medium effect size [$\beta = .30$], with 2 and 4 indicators; 78% and 95% power, respectively) suggested that I had ample power to detect relationships in the samples using covariance-based structural equation modeling (SEM) if they existed in the population.

I conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) using the maximum likelihood estimation method in AMOS 18.0 (Arbuckle, 2005) as part of Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach to investigating the validity of the primary constructs of interest. Prior to conducting CFAs, I used partial disaggregation (i.e., parceling) techniques to create parcels for the variables of interest that had more than three items. I used the factorial algorithm technique (i.e., item-to-construct balance; Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002; Rogers & Schmitt, 2004), which balances the highest and lowest loading items across parcels in an attempt to equally balance parcels with regards to item difficulty and discrimination (Williams, Vandenberg, & Edwards, 2009). Partial disaggregation was used to help reduce the amount of item-specific error in the model, reduce type I errors among the item correlations, reduce the likelihood of a-priori model misspecification, reduce some of the demands placed on the data

when running the CFAs and structural models, and to provide relatively evenly distributed constructs (i.e., the number of items for each construct now ranges from 2-3 instead of 2-7).

Table 1 presents the constructs, measures, standardized loadings, and composite reliabilities for each of the measures used across both samples. Table 2 presents zero-order correlations between the constructs of interest, as well as the means (μ), standard deviations (σ), Cronbach's alphas (α), construct reliabilities (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct across both samples. According to the suggestions outlined by Hu and Bentler (1999), the CFA results for both samples revealed acceptable fit between the model and the data (sample 1: χ^2 [263] = 507.559, Comparative Fit Index [CFI] = .954, Tucker-Lewis Index [TLI] = .944, and root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = .059; sample 2: χ^2 [263] = 402.759, CFI = .973, TLI = .967, and RMSEA = .045).

Next, I conducted tests of convergent validity, discriminant validity, and unidimensionality. The results indicated that all items/parcels significantly loaded on their respective constructs and had standardized loadings of at least .5, which suggested that appropriate levels of convergent validity were present (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All bivariate correlations were significantly different from 1, which provided evidence of construct-level discriminant validity (Bagozzi, Yi, & Singh, 1991). All composite reliabilities and Cronbach's alphas were above .70, which suggested that there were acceptable levels of internal consistency for each construct.

The data were cross-sectional and perceptual in nature, so common method bias may have existed. To address concerns about common method bias, I used Cote and Buckley's (1987) hierarchically nested covariance structure models to test for potential common method bias. As expected, the results indicated that variance due to trait and variance due to method were present

in both samples. The results of these analyses can be found in Tables 3 and 4. In sample 1, 57.7% of the variance was explained by the trait and 19.5% of the variance was explained by the method. In sample 2, 59.1% of the variance was explained by the trait and 17.8% of the variance was explained by the method. Much more of the variance was explained by the trait than the method for both samples, so I concluded that common method bias did not pose a substantial threat to the validity of inferences drawn from the study.

Results

Structural Model Results

After finding acceptable measurement models, I estimated the structural models using SEM with the latent variables measured in the CFAs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The results indicated a good fit between the theoretical model and the observed data across both samples (sample 1: χ^2 [282] = 580.079, CFI = .944, TLI = .936, and RMSEA = .063; sample 2: χ^2 [282] = 478.387, CFI = .962, TLI = .956, and RMSEA = .052). All indices fell within acceptable levels (Hu & Bentler, 1999), indicating that hypothesis testing was reliable. Results for hypothesis testing are summarized in Table 5, and results for the structural models are visually depicted in Figure 2.

The results indicated that perceptions of hindrance stressors were positively associated with perceptions of job tension (sample 1: $\gamma = .41$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $\gamma = .36$, $p < .01$) and negatively associated with vigor (sample 1: $\gamma = -.15$, $p < .05$; sample 2: $\gamma = -.33$, $p < .01$), which provided support for hypotheses 1 and 4. Perceptions of challenge stressors were positively associated with job tension (sample 1: $\gamma = .40$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $\gamma = .40$, $p < .01$), but not significantly associated with vigor (sample 1: $\gamma = .04$, *ns*; sample 2: $\gamma = .13$, *ns*), which provided support for hypothesis 2, but not hypothesis 5. Perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit

were significantly negatively associated with job tension in the first sample (sample 1: $\gamma = -.15$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $\gamma = -.11$, *ns*) and positively associated with vigor in both samples (sample 1: $\gamma = .38$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $\gamma = .26$, $p < .01$), which provided partial support for hypothesis 3 and full support for hypothesis 6.

Most of the results for hypothesis testing for the effects of the exogenous variables (i.e., hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and organizational goodness-of-fit) on the mediators (i.e., job tension, vigor) were relatively consistent across the two samples, but the effects of the mediators on the dependent variables of interest were mixed. Job tension was significantly negatively associated with job satisfaction in both samples (sample 1: $\beta = -.22$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $\beta = -.12$, $p < .05$), and positively associated with work intensity in the second sample (sample 1: $\beta = .10$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = .31$, $p < .01$), interpersonal workplace deviance in the first sample (sample 1: $\beta = .14$, $p < .05$; sample 2: $\beta = -.03$, *ns*), and work-family interference in both samples (sample 1: $\beta = .62$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $\beta = .52$, $p < .01$). Results provided full support for hypotheses 7 and 13, partial support for hypothesis 11, and no support for hypothesis 9. Contrary to hypothesis 9, the direction of the relationship between job tension and work intensity was positive, suggesting that individuals engaged in working hard either as a means to attempt to restore depleted resources, or that a reciprocal relationship between job tension and work intensity existed such that respondents were caught in a cycle whereby working hard resulted in felt job tension due to expensing resources to work hard.

Vigor was positively and significantly associated with job satisfaction (sample 1: $\beta = .68$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $\beta = .67$, $p < .01$) and work intensity (sample 1: $\beta = .62$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $\beta = .60$, $p < .01$), negatively associated with interpersonal workplace deviance in sample 2 (sample 1: $\beta = -.11$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = -.15$, $p < .05$), and not significantly associated with work-family

interference in either sample (sample 1: β = -.08, *ns*; sample 2: β = .07, *ns*). Results provided full support for hypotheses 8 and 10, partial support for hypothesis 12, and no support for hypothesis 14.

In addition to testing the direct associations between the variables of interest, I tested for the indirect effect of perceptions of hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and organizational goodness-of-fit on job satisfaction, work intensity, interpersonal workplace deviance, and work-family interference through job tension and vigor. To test these indirect effects, I used the Sobel test ($Z = [a \times b] / [\sqrt{[b^2 s_a^2 + a^2 s_b^2}]]$; *a* represented the unstandardized effect size from the independent variable to the mediator, *b* represented the unstandardized effect size from the mediator to the dependent variable, s_a represented the standard error for the unstandardized effect size from the independent variable to the mediator, and s_b represented the standard error for the unstandardized effect size from the mediator to the dependent variable; Baron & Kenny, 1986; Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010). Hypotheses 15-18 and 20 received partial support across both samples, but hypothesis 19 (i.e., the mediating effects of vigor in the relationship between challenge stressors and outcomes) received no support in either sample. A complete summary of results can be found in Table 5. Overall, the results indicated that employees' stress processes are very complex and cannot be fully captured by only examining job tension and vigor as intermediary linkages between demands and resources and employees' outcomes.

Supplementary Analyses

I ran several supplementary analyses in order to check the robustness of the study's findings and provide guidance for future research. First, I conducted t-tests for the means of measures across samples (i.e., non-Veterans = 1, Veterans = 2). Results are summarized in Table 6, and indicated that the means for all measures except challenge stressors and interpersonal

workplace deviance were significantly different across samples ($t > |1.96|$, $p < .05$). Then, I ran t-tests for the means of measures between Veterans who were enlisted ($n = 111$) and those who were officers (i.e., $n = 143$; enlisted = 0, officers = 1). Results indicated that these two groups significantly differed in their means for hindrance stressors ($\Delta\mu = -.33$, $t = -1.99$, $p < .05$), organizational goodness-of-fit ($\Delta\mu = .38$, $t = 1.98$, $p < .05$), and vigor ($\Delta\mu = .48$, $t = 4.00$, $p < .01$). Thus, Veterans who were officers reported fewer hindrance stressors, greater perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit, and greater vigor than Veterans who were enlisted.

Per Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) recommendation to test alternative structural models when running SEM, I tested a partial mediation model whereby the exogenous variables (i.e., hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, organizational goodness-of-fit) had direct effects on the mediators (i.e., job tension, vigor) and the dependent variables (i.e., job satisfaction, work intensity, interpersonal workplace deviance, work-family interference). As expected, the fit indices for the structural models improved because more constraints were placed on the model (sample 1: χ^2 [270] = 550.923, CFI = .948, TLI = .937, and RMSEA = .062; sample 2: χ^2 [270] = 431.683, CFI = .969, TLI = .963, and RMSEA = .048). Chi-square difference tests revealed the partial mediation model fit the data better than the fully mediated model in both samples (sample 1: $\Delta\chi^2 = 29.156$, $\Delta df = 12$, critical value = 21.03, $p < .05$; sample 2: $\Delta\chi^2 = 46.704$, $\Delta df = 12$, critical value = 21.03, $p < .05$). An examination of the effect sizes for the effects of the exogenous variables on the outcomes revealed weak-to-moderate relationships that were strong enough to modestly improve the fit indices, but not necessarily meaningful enough to sacrifice the parsimony of the proposed model.

Next, I ran multiple two-group SEM analyses (i.e., finite mixture distribution analyses; Neale, 2000) to test for the moderating effects of Veteran status (1 = non-Veterans; 2 = Veterans)

on each path and covariance in the hypothesized model. These analyses were able to assess non-Veterans and Veterans simultaneously to provide a means to statistically test for the heterogeneity of results between non-Veterans and Veterans. I performed chi-square difference tests between the baseline model (i.e., the fully constrained model) with both groups and models with a constraint for each path and covariance lifted.

Results indicated that four paths in the structural model were moderated by Veteran status ($\alpha = .05$, $\Delta df = 1$, critical value for $\Delta\chi^2 = 3.84$). According to the chi-square difference tests conducted, the paths between perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit and vigor ($\Delta\chi^2 = 4.02$), job tension and work intensity ($\Delta\chi^2 = 7.82$), job tension and work-family interference ($\Delta\chi^2 = 4.38$), and vigor and work-family interference ($\Delta\chi^2 = 4.87$) all were moderated by Veteran status.

Finally, I ran two-group SEM analyses to test for the moderating effect of Veterans' ranks (1 = enlisted; 2 = officer) on each of the paths and covariances in the hypothesized model. Veterans' ranks moderated the paths between hindrance stressors and job tension ($\Delta\chi^2 = 8.65$) and challenge stressors and job tension ($\Delta\chi^2 = 5.26$). The results suggested that the manner in which perceptions of hindrance and challenge stressors were associated with job tension differed between Veterans who were enlisted and those who were officers, such that enlisted Veterans experienced greater increases in job tension due to perceptions of hindrance and challenge stressors than Veterans who were officers. Overall, the results suggested more research is needed to examine how the effects of organizational demands carry over to workplace outcomes and family life differently for non-Veterans and Veterans, as well as for Veterans who were enlisted versus Veterans who were officers.

Discussion

It was hypothesized that perceptions of hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and organizational goodness-of-fit would influence personal and organizational outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, work intensity, interpersonal workplace deviance, work-family interference) through health impairment (i.e., job tension) and motivational (i.e., vigor) stress processes. In sample 1, hypotheses 1-4, 6-8, 10, 11, 13, 15a, 15c, 15d, 16a, 16c, 16d, 17a, 17d, 18a, 18b, 20a, and 20b were supported, but hypotheses 5, 9, 12, 14, 15b, 16b, 17b, 17c, 18c, 18d, 19a-d, 20c, and 20d were not supported. In sample 2, hypotheses 1, 2, 4, 6-8, 10, 12, 13, 15a, 15b, 15d, 16a, 16b, 16d, 18a, 18b, 20a, and 20b were supported, but hypotheses 3, 5, 9, 11, 14, 15c, 16c, 17a-d, 18c, 18d, 19a-d, 20c, and 20d were not supported. Thus, most of the structural relationships hypothesized were supported, but there was mixed support for the indirect effects of job demands and resources on personal and organizational outcomes.

Results from the primary and supplementary analyses suggested that, on the whole, the stress process for non-Veterans and Veterans likely was very similar, but that these two groups assessed organizational demands and resources somewhat differently, which resulted in some differences in how the stress process was experienced. Specifically, the results of t-tests suggested that non-Veterans and Veterans had significantly different means on most of the study variables. Further, the results of two-group SEM analyses suggested that Veteran status moderated some of the paths in the hypothesized model. Thus, the results supported the notion that the overall stress process for non-Veterans and Veterans was similar, but there were some differences that warrant future research attention.

Overall, the results suggested that the COR theory was an appropriate theoretical lens from which to view employees' stress processes. Despite non-Veterans and Veterans having

different experiences prior to their current employment in civilian organizations, these two groups experienced the stress process similarly. The results suggested that the stress process for non-Veterans and Veterans operated more or less the same, and supported many of the hypothesized relationships. Although many of the effect sizes for the hypothesized relationships were similar, the results of t-tests for study variables across the samples of non-Veterans and Veterans suggested that these two groups significantly differed on the extent to which they experienced most of the variables in the model. An examination of the results of the t-tests suggested that, overall, Veterans reported more intense levels of many of the constructs examined than non-Veterans.

Specifically, Veterans reported more hindrance stressors, job tension, vigor, job satisfaction, work intensity, work-home interference and fewer perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit than non-Veterans. Although non-Veterans and Veterans reported experiencing the stress process similarly, Veterans experienced the stress process more intensely than their non-Veteran counterparts. Thus, beyond simply examining the role of perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit in the stress process and examining how non-Veterans and Veterans fundamentally differed in how they experienced the stress process, this study contributes to the stress literature by empirically demonstrating that even when different sub-groups of employees experience the stress process similarly, they may systematically differ in how they appraise and experience various components of the stress process. Thus, stress researchers examining multiple groups of employees can gain useful information by not only examining whether or not there are differences in the extent to which portions of the stress process are associated with one another, but also by assessing differences between groups with regard to each component of the stress process.

In conclusion, the results of this study provided evidence that the stress process for non-Veterans and Veterans was similar, but that components of the stress model were reported to be of higher intensity for Veterans than non-Veterans. Thus, future research is needed to examine resources and constraints that Veterans bring with them into the workplace that non-Veterans generally do not, as well as how non-Veterans and Veterans develop resources in the workplace. Further, future empirical research is needed to examine additional mediators in the complex stress process that influence how the indirect effects of stressors on job strain, health, and well-being are experienced, as well as how these intermediary linkages influence the intensity with which non-Veterans and Veterans experience the stress process.

Contributions to Theory and Research

I extended research utilizing the COR theory by examining the role of perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit as a personal resource capable of influencing employees' stress processes as they interpret and respond to their work environment. Specifically, I examined the role of organizational goodness-of-fit in influencing employees' personal and organizational outcomes through employees' health impairment and motivational stress processes. Despite the need to belong being a fundamental human motivation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), little stress research has examined the role of fit as a resource for employees during the stress process (Wheeler & Halbesleben, 2009).

Also, I extended prior research using the COR theory by examining how different sub-segments of employees (i.e., non-Veterans, Veterans) fundamentally differed in how they perceived and responded to perceptions of organizational demands (i.e., hindrance and challenge stressors) and personal resources (i.e., organizational goodness-of-fit). The results suggested that different sub-segments of employees systematically differed in how they assessed organizational

demands and resources, as well as how they experienced the stress process in the workplace. By examining organizational demands (i.e., hindrance and challenge stressors) and personal resources (i.e., organizational goodness-of-fit) that were potentially applicable to employees in most or all organizations, I was able to utilize the tenets of the COR theory to provide evidence for a model that was potentially generalizable to a wide range of occupations, organizations, and industries.

Finally, the interpersonal workplace deviance measure used in this study contributes to the deviance literature by incorporating more aspects of the definition of workplace deviance into how it is empirically measured than utilized in prior research. Specifically, the measure used in this study asked respondents about their *voluntary* behaviors and incorporated the role of organizational norms by using scale points that captured whether respondents voluntarily engaged in particular behaviors more or less frequently than their coworkers. Thus, the measure for interpersonal workplace deviance in this study captured the extent to which employees voluntarily engaged in behaviors that violated organizational norms that could harm their coworkers and/or organization (e.g., publicly embarrassing someone at work, playing a mean prank on someone), rather than just asking employees to report how often or how many times they engaged in particular behaviors over some specified time period.

Strengths and Limitations

A focal strength of the present research was the two-study constructive replication design employed. Using two separate samples, I was able to examine how different subgroups of employees in civilian organizations fundamentally differed in their appraisals of organizational demands and resources in the workplace, based on experiences prior to employment (i.e., service in the military). This study provided findings that likely are applicable to a wide range of

employees in civilian organizations and demonstrated how particular sub-segments of employees with common experiences fundamentally differed in their perceptions of and reactions to organizational demands and resources from other sub-segments of employees.

The main limitation of this study stemmed from the cross-sectional (i.e., single-source, self-report) nature of the data. To address many of the limitations associated with cross-sectional data, I followed procedural remedies outlined by prior research to design the questionnaires used in ways to minimize some of the effects of common method bias (e.g., use of various response formats, protecting respondent anonymity; Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012). Due to the perceptual nature of the constructs of interest (i.e., hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, organizational goodness-of-fit, job tension, vigor, intra- and inter-personal outcomes), self-report data were appropriate. Further, although most measures asked respondents to report their perceptions of the workplace, interpersonal workplace deviance was measured with self-reports of actual behaviors. In sum, single-source, self-report data may be criticized (Ashkanasy, 2010), but were appropriate for the objectives of this study.

An assessment of the extent to which common method bias explained variance in the constructs of interest (Cote & Buckley, 1987) revealed that common method bias explained much less of the variance in the study constructs (sample 1: 19.5%; sample 2: 17.8%) than the trait models (sample 1: 57.7%; sample 2: 59.1%). Thus, although common method bias was present in the study, it did not pose a substantial threat to hypothesis testing. Due to the cross-sectional nature of the data used in both samples, I was not able to make any definitive claims of causality, so I used prior theory and research to develop the conceptual model. Finally, the cross-sectional nature of the data precluded an examination of resource gains and losses, so I examined demands and resources in general instead.

Directions for Future Research

There are numerous potentially fruitful directions for future research. First, the Veterans in the present investigation primarily served in the Army (85.6%), so examining how the present model unfolds for Veterans from other branches of the military who are now in civilian organizations would be helpful. Also, it would be helpful to further examine the antecedents and consequences of Veterans' perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit in civilian organizations. For example, it would be helpful to use comprehensive measures of war experiences (i.e., war experiences inventory; Katz, Cojucar, Davenport, Clarke, & Williams, 2012) to examine how Veterans' war experiences differentially affect perceptions and outcomes within civilian organizations (e.g., Vinokur et al., 2011). Not all Veterans have war experiences, and not all war experiences pose the same stressors and/or trauma for Veterans, so examining variables such as number of deployments and time spent in combat zones also may provide useful information.

Next, it would be useful to examine how transition programs and reintegration experiences designed for Veterans affect Veterans' cognitive appraisals of their experiences in the military (e.g., Edge & Ivey, 2012) and how these appraisals affect personal and organizational outcomes in civilian organizations (e.g., Currie, Day, & Kelloway, 2011; Vinokur et al., 2011). Specifically, it would be useful to examine how the development of chronic fatigue syndrome symptoms related to military experience affects Veterans' personal and organizational outcomes (Dhillon & Boyd, 2010) in civilian organizations. Also, it would be interesting to examine the extent to which different stress management programs designed for military personnel and Veterans help Veterans integrate into civilian lives and organizations (e.g.,

Siniscalchi, Kimmel, Couturier, & Murray, 2011; Williams, Hagerty, Brasington, Clem, & Williams, 2010).

More research is needed to examine the stress processes of employee sub-groups (e.g., former homemakers, retirees returning to work) that have similar experiences that may bias their perceptions of and responses to organizational demands. For example, differences in self-regulatory (Vohs & Baumeister, 2011) processes across groups may differentially influence how members of these groups perceive and respond to stressors in their work environment (Mackey & Perrewé, 2014). Coping with stress in the workplace requires self-control, which consumes a limited amount of self-control strength available for subsequent self-control efforts (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). Thus, fundamental differences in the amount of self-control strength across employee sub-groups may fundamentally influence how various groups experience workplace stress. More research is needed to explore this potentially fruitful area of research.

Future research could continue to examine how non-Veterans and Veterans react differently to perceptions of organizational demands. For example, non-Veterans and Veterans may engage in job crafting and/or meaning-making differently. Job crafting describes the self-initiated adjustment behaviors that some employees engage in with the goal of aligning their jobs with their own individual passions, preferences, and motives (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), whereas meaning-making describes the capability to use conscious, deliberate, value-based reflection to integrate challenging or uncertain circumstances into a framework of personal meaning (van den Heuvel, Demerouti, Schreurs, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2009). It is possible that Veterans' military experiences influence how they engage in job crafting and meaning-making, whereas non-Veterans may incorporate some of the motives,

passions, and preferences for personal meaning from other areas of their lives because they do not have military experience.

Also, future research could explore how non-Veterans and Veterans cope with organizational demands differently. Specifically, future research could examine how these two groups differ in their self- and other-directed forms of mistreatment as a coping mechanism. Recent research has shown that Veterans have high suicide rates (Kang, 2008) and are at high risk of experiencing alcohol-related problems (Taft et al., 2007). Thus, research examining how non-Veterans and Veterans differ in their consideration of self- and other-directed aggression (Brees, Mackey, & Martinko, 2013) as a viable coping option would be helpful.

Constructive replications of the current study could use different measures of hindrance and challenge stressors. Van den Broeck et al. (2010) used measures of emotional demands and work-home interference to measure hindrance stressors, and measures of workload and cognitive demands to measure challenge stressors. Similarly, Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2013) measured hindrance stressors using cognitive and emotional demands and modeled challenge stressors as workload. The present study used items from validated measures of hindrance and challenge stressors (Cavanaugh et al., 2000), but future research could use other measures of hindrance and challenge stressors (e.g., Gaab, Rohleder, Nater, & Ehlert, 2005; LePine, LePine, & Jackson, 2004; Zhang, LePine, Buckman, & Wei, 2014). Also, future research could expand on the measure of fit used in the present study, especially because fit has been conceptualized as a multidimensional construct (Wheeler et al., 2005).

Next, future research could benefit from examining nonlinear terms in the conceptual model (Grant & Schwartz, 2011; Pierce & Aguinis, 2013). Calls for examining nonlinear terms in stress research (e.g., Ferris et al., 2006) largely remain unanswered, so this presents an

interesting opportunity for future research. Finally, future research could benefit from examining time-separated and/or longitudinal data, especially studies that examine the reciprocal relationship between job demands and resources (e.g., Rodriguez-Muñoz, Sanz-Vergel, Demerouti, & Bakker, 2012).

Practical Implications

This study has numerous practical implications. First, although non-Veterans and Veterans had similar results for parts of the investigated model, these two groups differed on others. Thus, the results lend support to the notion that sub-groups of employees might have some shared experiences that fundamentally influence how they perceive stressors and experience the stress process. This may be especially true for groups at risk of experiencing low levels of perceived organizational goodness-of-fit (e.g., Veterans, former homemakers, retirees returning to work) whose stress and strain may manifest in different manners than they do for employees without these experiences. Ultimately, stress management intervention programs (e.g., Richardson & Rothstein, 2008) may affect some groups of employees differently than others, which could affect which programs organizations use, as well as how these programs are implemented.

The findings in this study, compounded by the fact that only about 15% of Veterans eventually develop Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD; Park, 2011), but about half of employers are concerned about employing Veterans with PTSD (Lu, 2012), suggest that concerns regarding Veterans' abilities to manage workplace stress in civilian organizations may be exaggerated. This may be especially true for Veterans who were officers. Specifically, supplementary analyses revealed that Veterans who were enlisted experienced greater increases

in job tension due to perceptions of hindrance and challenge stressors than Veterans who were officers.

This study's findings may have significant implications for organizations that want to take advantage of state and federal tax incentives. As of November 2011, organizations can receive federal tax credits of up to $2,400 for hiring Veterans that have recently left the service and tax credits of up to $9,600 for hiring Veterans that have been out of work for longer than six months (Glazer, 2011). Ultimately, organizations that can help Veterans manage their stress may be able to simultaneously take advantage of an underutilized and growing labor pool of the most educated, highest skilled military ever to enter the civilian workplace (Beauchesne, 2012), engage in socially responsible actions in order to build reputational capital (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012), and enjoy the financial benefits of state and/or federal tax credits.

Conclusion

The COR theory is a flexible theory of job stress that has been applied in a wide range of occupations, organizations, and industries. This study expanded the COR theory to incorporate the roles of sub-groups of employees (e.g., non-Veterans, Veterans) and perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit in employees' appraisals of and responses to organizational demands and fit. The results of this study suggested that subgroups of employees (i.e., non-Veterans, Veterans) fundamentally differed in how they perceived organizational demands and fit within organizations, as well as how organizational demands and fit drove the stress process. Ultimately, perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit may serve as a personal resource capable of helping employees reduce the effects of resource-depleting demands. I hope the findings stimulate more research examining the role of sub-groups and perceptions of fit in the examination of workplace stress.

Table 1

Measures, Standardized Item Loadings, and Composite Reliabilities

Construct	Measure	Sample 1	Sample 2
Hindrance Stressors	Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree that each of the demands below contributes to your stress at work. (1 = "Strongly disagree," 7 = "Strongly agree")	(.825)	(.760)
	Parcel 1	.760	.546
	The inability to clearly understand what is expected of me on the job.		
	Parcel 2	.819	.820
	The amount of red tape I need to go through to get my job done.		
	The degree to which my career seems "stalled."		
	Parcel 3	.765	.768
	The degree to which politics rather than performance affects organizational decisions.		
	The lack of job security I have.		
Challenge Stressors	Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree that each of the demands below contributes to your stress at work. (1 = "Strongly disagree," 7 = "Strongly agree")	(.915)	(.926)
	Parcel 1	.800	.838
	The amount of time I spend at work.		
	Time pressures I experience.		
	Parcel 2	.944	.936
	The volume of work that must be accomplished in the allotted time.		
	The amount of responsibility I have.		
	Parcel 3	.905	.918
	The number of projects and/or assignments I have.		
	The scope of responsibility my position entails.		

Table 1 (Continued)

Construct	Measure	Sample 1	Sample 2
Organizational Goodness-of-Fit	Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Strongly disagree," 7 = "Strongly agree")	(.886)	(.925)
	Parcel 1	.870	.935
	I represent a typical member of my organization.		
	Parcel 2	.869	.909
	I am like other members of my organization.		
	Parcel 3	.808	.845
	I perceive myself to be similar to other members of my organization.		
	I have attributes, traits, features, and behaviors that are normal for a member of my organization.		
Job Tension	Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Strongly disagree," 7 = "Strongly agree")	(.889)	(.856)
	Parcel 1	.823	.811
	I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.		
	I have felt nervous before attending meetings in my company.		
	Parcel 2	.917	.876
	If I had a different job, my health would probably improve.		
	Problems associated with my job have kept me awake at night.		
	Parcel 3	.817	.756
	My job tends to directly affect my health.		
	I work under a great deal of tension.		

Table 1 (Continued)

Construct	Measure	Sample 1	Sample 2
Vigor	Please indicate how often you have felt this way about your work by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Never," 7 = "Always")	(.870)	(.920)
	Parcel 1	.820	.892
	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.		
	At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well.		
	Parcel 2	.793	.883
	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.		
	I can continue working for very long periods of time.		
	Parcel 3	.878	.897
	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.		
	At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.		
Job Satisfaction	Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Strongly disagree," 7 = "Strongly agree")	(.911)	(.917)
	In general, I like working at my job.	.890	.926
	All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	.933	.933
	I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.	.810	.795

Table 1 (Continued)

Construct	Measure	Sample 1	Sample 2
Work Intensity	Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Strongly disagree," 7 = "Strongly agree")	(.925)	(.902)
	Parcel 1	.849	.799
	I work at my full capacity in all of my job duties.		
	Parcel 2	.942	.899
	When I work, I do so with intensity.		
	I strive as hard as I can to be successful in my work.		
	Parcel 3	.899	.905
	When there's a job to be done, I devote all my energy to getting it done.		
	When I work, I really exert myself to the fullest.		
Interpersonal Deviance	Please indicate the frequency with which you voluntarily engage in the following behaviors by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Much less than my coworkers," 7 = "Much more than my coworkers")	(.958)	(.955)
	Parcel 1	.940	.856
	Made fun of someone at work.		
	Made an ethnic, religious or racial remark at work.		
	Cursed at someone at work.		
	Parcel 2	.965	.972
	Said something hurtful to someone at work.		
	Played a mean prank on someone at work.		
	Parcel 3	.914	.977
	Acted rudely toward someone at work.		
	Publicly embarrassed someone at work.		

Table 1 (Continued)

Construct	Measure	Sample 1	Sample 2
Work-Family Interference	Please indicate how often you have felt this way at work. (1 = "Never or almost never," 7 = "Always or almost always")	(.881)	(.876)
	How often does your job or career interfere with your responsibilities at home?	.922	.911
	How often does your job or career keep you from spending the amount of time you would like to spend with your family?	.852	.854

CFA model goodness-of-fit indexes (Sample 1; non-Veterans):

χ^2 = 507.559 (263 *df*)
CFI = .954
TLI = .944
RMSEA = .059
90% confidence interval of RMSEA (.051, .067)

CFA model goodness-of-fit indexes (Sample 2; Veterans):

χ^2 = 402.759 (263 *df*)
CFI = .973
TLI = .967
RMSEA = .045
90% confidence interval of RMSEA (.036, .054)

Notes: CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation. Sample 1(non-Veterans; *N* = 268) results/Sample 2 (Veterans; *N* = 259) results. Standardized item loadings for both samples are presented in columns. Construct reliabilities are presented in parentheses.

Table 2
Zero-Order Correlations and Descriptive Statistics among Study Variables in Samples 1 and 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Hindrance Stressors	-	.37**	-.10	.49**	-.27**	-.42**	.04	-.14	.19*
2. Challenge Stressors	.35**	-	.11	.51**	.03	.04	.22**	-.10	.43**
3. Organizational Goodness-of-Fit	-.13	.14*	-	-.11	.30**	.31**	.17*	-.07	.04
4. Job Tension	.55**	.52**	-.13	-	-.35**	-.34**	.11	.05	.49**
5. Vigor	-.16*	.01	.38**	-.27**	-	.69**	.51**	-.14*	-.10
6. Job Satisfaction	-.26**	.00	.38**	-.39**	.73**	-	.40**	-.07	-.12
7. Work Intensity	-.12	.12	.30**	-.04	.58**	.40**	-	-.17*	.15*
8. Interpersonal Workplace Deviance	.10	-.08	-.16*	.18**	-.10	-.12	-.33**	-	-.01
9. Work-Family Interference	.43**	.35**	-.19**	.63**	-.22**	-.24**	-.15*	.18**	-
Sample 1 - Mean (μ)	4.03	4.97	4.96	3.85	4.62	5.01	5.44	2.02	3.48
Sample 1 - *SD* (σ)	1.37	1.26	1.09	1.36	.95	1.41	1.10	1.28	1.62
Sample 1 - Cronbach's Alpha (α)	.79	.89	.88	.88	.84	.91	.92	.96	.88
Sample 1 - Construct Reliability	.83	.92	.89	.89	.87	.91	.93	.96	.88
Sample 1 – AVE	.61	.78	.72	.73	.69	.77	.81	.88	.79
Sample 2 - Mean (μ)	4.44	4.79	4.45	4.14	4.99	5.34	5.75	1.97	4.17
Sample 2 - *SD* (σ)	1.34	1.31	1.52	1.31	.98	1.45	.94	1.07	1.47
Sample 2 - Cronbach's Alpha (α)	.75	.90	.92	.87	.88	.91	.89	.96	.87
Sample 2 – Construct Reliability	.76	.93	.93	.86	.92	.92	.90	.96	.88
Sample 2 - AVE	.52	.81	.81	.67	.79	.79	.76	.88	.78

Notes: Correlations for Sample 1 (non-Veterans; $N = 268$) shown below the diagonal. Correlations for Sample 2 (Veterans; $N = 259$) shown above the diagonal. Means (μ), standard deviations (*SD*; σ), and Cronbach's alphas (α) were calculated using all of the individual items in each measure. Zero-order correlations (*r*), construct reliabilities, and AVEs (average variance extracted) were calculated using parcels. All statistical significance tests based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 3
Assessment of Common Method Bias in Sample 1 (non-Veterans)

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
M1: Null model	5683.522	325	.000	n/a	n/a	n/a
M2: Trait only model	507.559	263	.000	.954	.944	.059
M3: Method only model	4242.86	299	.000	.264	.200	.222
M4: Trait and method model	400.997	237	.000	.969	.958	.051

Model Comparison	χ^2	Δdf	*p*	Conclusion
Testing for the presence of trait factors				
M1-M2	5175.963	62	<.01	M1>M2
M3-M4	3841.863	62	<.01	M3>M4
Testing for the presence of a method factor				
M1-M3	1440.662	26	<.01	M1>M3
M2-M4	106.562	26	<.01	M2>M4

Notes: CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation. *N* = 268.

Table 4
Assessment of Common Method Bias in Sample 2 (Veterans)

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
M1: Null model	5520.428	325	.000	n/a	n/a	n/a
M2: Trait only model	402.759	263	.000	.973	.967	.045
M3: Method only model	4142.842	299	.000	.260	.196	.223
M4: Trait and method model	350.479	237	.000	.978	.970	.043

Model Comparison	χ^2	Δdf	*p*	Conclusion
Testing for the presence of trait factors				
M1-M2	5117.669	62	<.01	M1>M2
M3-M4	3792.363	62	<.01	M3>M4
Testing for the presence of a method factor				
M1-M3	1377.586	26	<.01	M1>M3
M2-M4	52.28	26	<.01	M2>M4

Notes: CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation. *N* = 259.

Table 5
Hypotheses and Test Results

Hypothesis	*Standardized Parameter Estimate*	*Conclusion*
Hypothesis 1: Perceptions of hindrance stressors will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of job tension.	.41** / .36**	Supported / Supported
Hypothesis 2: Perceptions of challenge stressors will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of job tension.	.40** / .40**	Supported / Supported
Hypothesis 3: Perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of job tension.	-.15* / -.11	Supported / Not Supported
Hypothesis 4: Perceptions of hindrance stressors will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of vigor.	-.15* / -.33**	Supported / Supported
Hypothesis 5: Perceptions of challenge stressors will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of vigor.	.04 / .13	Not Supported / Not Supported
Hypothesis 6: Perceptions of organizational goodness-of-fit will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of vigor.	.38** / .26**	Supported / Supported
Hypothesis 7: Perceptions of job tension will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of job satisfaction.	-.22** / -.12*	Supported / Supported

Table 5 (Continued)

Hypothesis	*Standardized Parameter Estimate*	*Conclusion*
Hypothesis 8: Perceptions of vigor will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of job satisfaction.	.68** / .67**	Supported / Supported
Hypothesis 9: Perceptions of job tension will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of work intensity.	.10 / .31**	Not Supported / Not Supported
Hypothesis 10: Perceptions of vigor will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of work intensity.	.62** / .60**	Supported / Supported
Hypothesis 11: Perceptions of job tension will be positively associated with individuals' tendencies to engage in interpersonal workplace deviance.	.14* / -.03	Supported / Not Supported
Hypothesis 12: Perceptions of vigor will be negatively associated with individuals' tendencies to engage in interpersonal workplace deviance.	-.11 / -.15*	Not Supported / Supported
Hypothesis 13: Perceptions of job tension will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of work-family interference.	.62** / .52**	Supported / Supported
Hypothesis 14: Perceptions of vigor will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of work-family interference.	-.08 / .07	Not Supported / Not Supported

Table 5 (Continued)

Hypothesis	*Standardized Parameter Estimates*	*Conclusion*
Hypothesis 15a-d: Job tension will mediate the relationship between hindrance stressors and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.	a = -3.51 / a = -2.08 b = 1.68 / b = 3.41 c = 2.07 / c = -.39 d = 5.04 / d = 3.86	Partially Supported / Partially Supported
Hypothesis 16a-d: Job tension will mediate the relationship between challenge stressors and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.	a = -3.59 / a = -2.17 b = 1.69 / b = 3.90 c = 2.08 / c = -.39 d = 5.27 / d = 4.62	Partially Supported / Partially Supported
Hypothesis 17a-d: Job tension will mediate the relationship between organizational goodness-of-fit and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.	a = 2.28 / a = 1.50 b = -1.46 / b = -1.83 c = -1.70 / c = .39 d = -2.57 / d = -1.89	Partially Supported / Not Supported

Table 5 (Continued)

Hypothesis	*Standardized Parameter Estimates*	*Conclusion*
Hypothesis 18a-d: Vigor will mediate the relationship between hindrance stressors and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.	a = -1.99 / a = -3.81	Partially Supported /
	b = -1.98 / b = -3.70	Partially Supported
	c = 1.29 / c = 1.94	
	d = 1.13 / d = -1.05	
Hypothesis 19a-d: Vigor will mediate the relationship between challenge stressors and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.	a = .56 / a = 1.86	Not Supported / Not Supported
	b = .56 / b = 1.84	
	c = -.53 / c = -1.43	
	d = -.52 / d = .94	
Hypothesis 20a-d: Vigor will mediate the relationship between organizational goodness-of fit and (a) job satisfaction, (b) work intensity, (c) interpersonal workplace deviance, and (d) work-family interference.	a = 5.01 / a = 3.81	Partially Supported /
	b = 4.81 / b = 3.70	Partially Supported
	c = -1.60 / c = -1.94	
	d = -1.32 / d = 1.05	

Table 5 (Continued)

Hypothesis	*Standardized Parameter Estimates*	*Conclusion*
Structural model goodness-of-fit indexes (Sample 1; non-Veterans):		
χ^2 = 580.079 (282 *df*)		
CFI = .944		
TLI = .936		
RMSEA = .063		
90% confidence interval of RMSEA (.056, .070)		
Structural model goodness-of-fit indexes (Sample 2; Veterans):		
χ^2 = 478.387 (282 *df*)		
CFI = .962		
TLI = .956		
RMSEA = .052		
90% confidence interval of RMSEA (.044, .060)		

Notes: CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation. Sample 1 results (non-Veterans; N = 268)/sample 2 (Veterans; N = 259) results. All statistical significance tests based on two-tailed tests (α = .05). *p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 6

Results of T-Tests for Study Variables across Samples

	Sample 1		Sample 2			
Variables	Mean (μ)	SD (σ)	Mean (μ)	SD (σ)	T Statistic	*p*-value
Hindrance Stressors	4.03	1.37	4.44	1.34	3.43	< .01
Challenge Stressors	4.97	1.26	4.79	1.31	-1.60	.11
Organizational Goodness-of-Fit	4.96	1.09	4.45	1.52	-4.39	< .01
Job Tension	3.85	1.36	4.14	1.31	2.55	.01
Vigor	4.62	.95	4.99	.98	4.43	< .01
Job Satisfaction	5.01	1.41	5.34	1.45	2.65	< .01
Work Intensity	5.44	1.10	5.75	.94	3.45	< .01
Interpersonal Deviance	2.02	1.28	1.97	1.07	-.58	.57
Work-Family Interference	3.48	1.62	4.17	1.47	5.15	< .01

Notes: N = 268 for Sample 1 (non-Veterans). N = 259 for Sample 2 (Veterans). Means and standard deviations were calculated using all items for each measure, not parcels. Statistical tests are based on two-tailed tests.

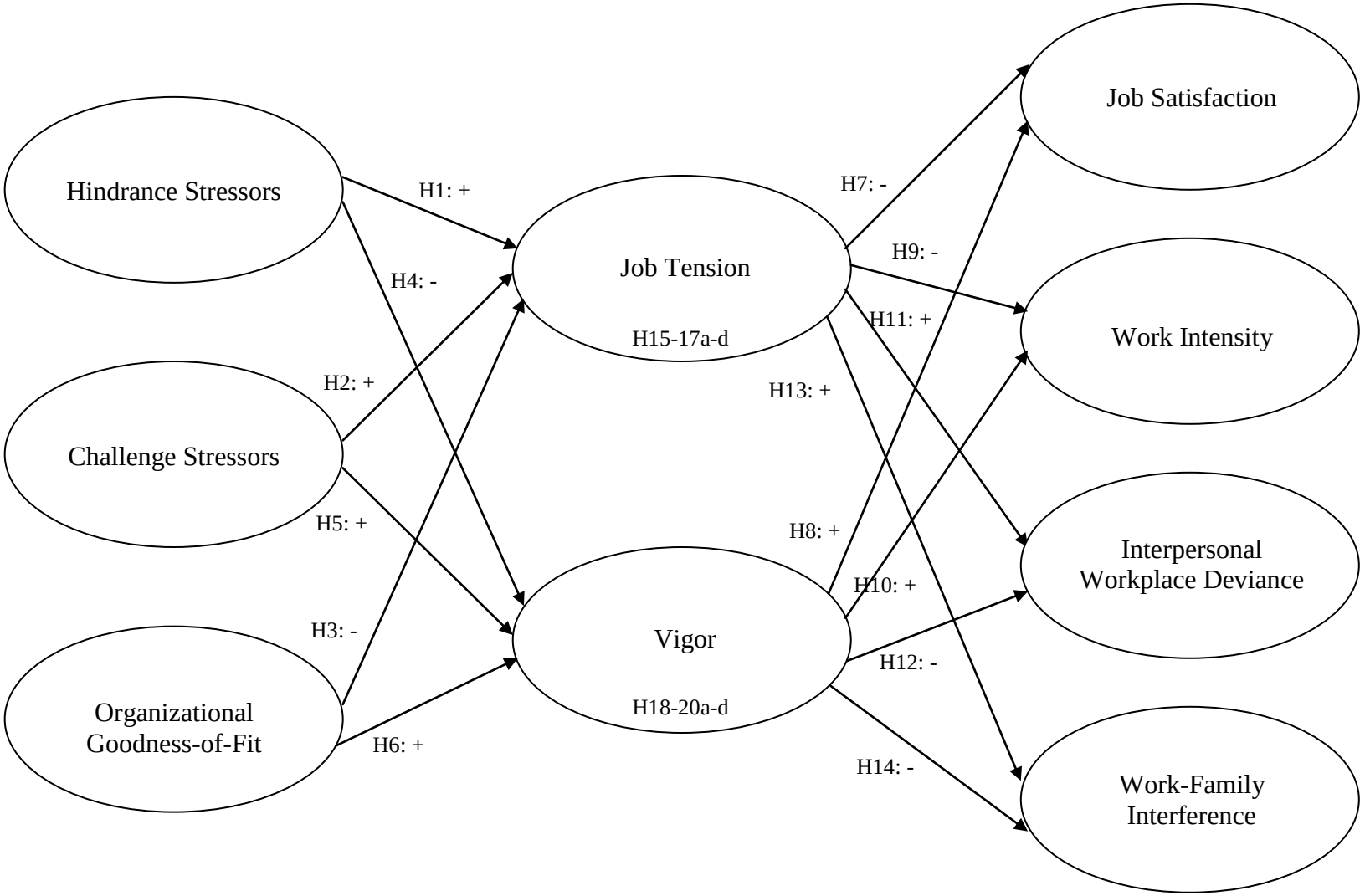

Figure 2. Operational model and hypotheses for Essay 2.

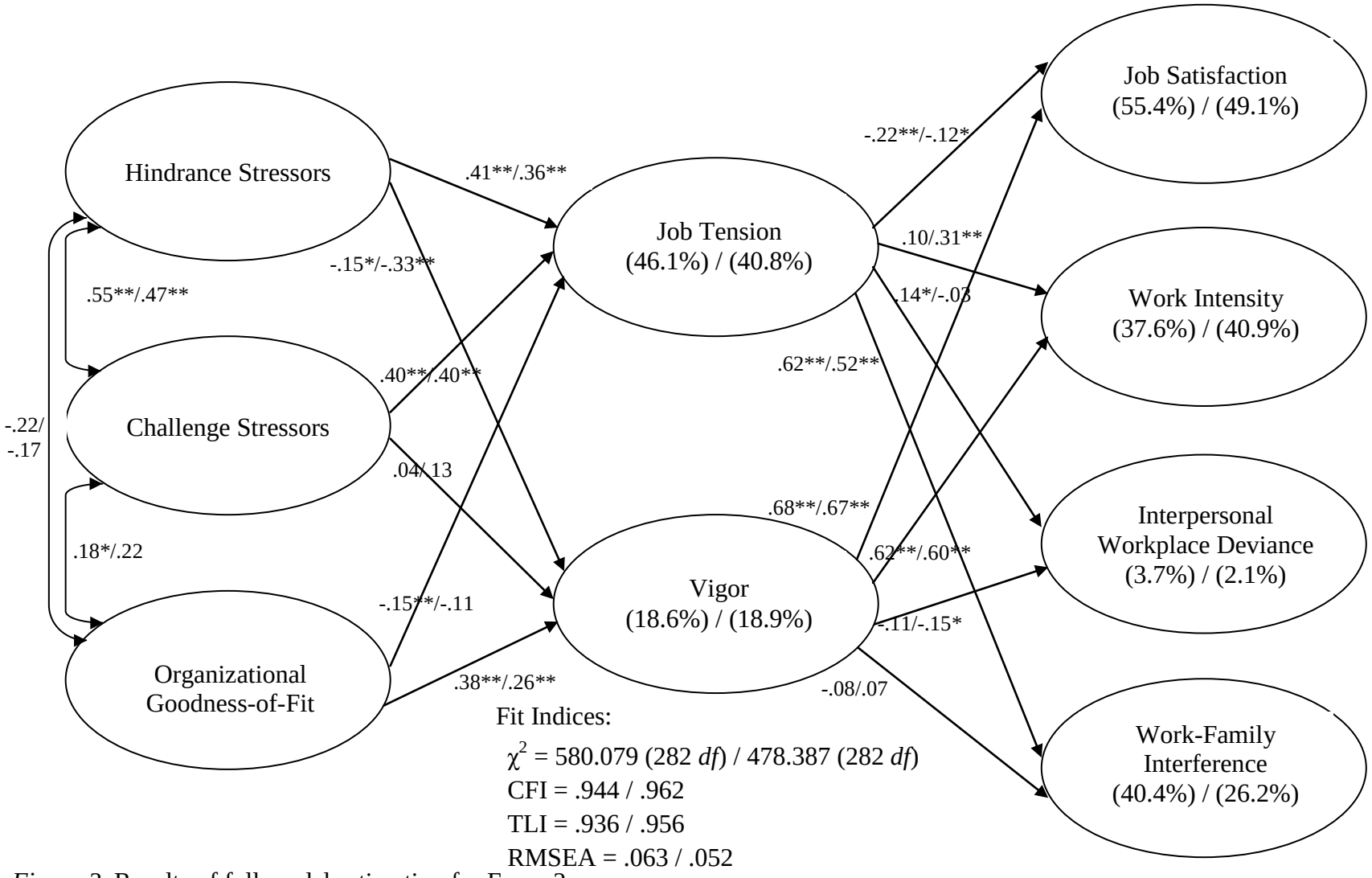

Figure 3. Results of full model estimation for Essay 2.

Notes: All parameter estimates reflect standardized effect sizes. Variance explained (R^2) is included below the construct name. Sample 1 (non-Veterans; N = 268) results/sample 2 (Veterans; N = 259) results. All statistical significance tests based on two-tailed tests (α = .05). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE ROLE OF SELF-REGULATION AT WORK IN THE ORGANIZATIONAL STRESS PROCESS: AN EXAMINATION OF EMPLOYED NON-VETERANS AND VETERANS (ESSAY 3)

Workplace stress stems from organizational demands that disrupt employees' natural homeostatic balances (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Psychosocial stressors are organizational demands that affect employees through a psychological stress process, rather than a physical stress process (Ganster & Rosen, 2013). Ultimately, psychosocial stressors elicit psychological and/or physiological responses to stressors (i.e., strain; Griffin & Clarke, 2011). Employees' strain is a major concern for organizations because it is negatively associated with job satisfaction, affective commitment, task performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors, as well as increased turnover intentions (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009).

Numerous theoretical frameworks have been developed to explain employees' stress processes (see Ganster & Rosen, 2013; Mackey & Perrewé, 2014; Meurs & Perrewé, 2011 for reviews). Among the established theoretical frameworks, the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) frequently has been examined because of its flexibility and generalizability (Halbesleben, 2006). Much of the empirical stress research utilizing the COR theory examines how stressors initiate health impairment and motivational processes that ultimately influence personal and organizational outcomes (i.e., the job demands-resources model; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001), but no empirical studies have examined how employees' self-regulatory attempts at work are associated with these processes.

Self-regulation at work reflects employees' abilities to control and manage internal states in the workplace, as well as their abilities to adjust behavioral responses to meet personal standards and pursue valued goals (Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). The ability to regulate impulses and behavior may alter the extent to which stressors are associated with job strain, health, and well-being through health impairment and motivational processes. Most of the research utilizing theories of self-regulation fails to actually measure self-regulation. Further, much of the existing research that has measured self-regulation has relied on experimental designs using undergraduate subjects. Thus, field studies that actually measure self-regulation are needed to examine how employees' proclivities to engage in self-regulation at work affect employees' stress processes in the workplace.

Also, research is needed to explore if, how, and to what extent different sub-groups of employees may differ with regards to how they report regulating their impulses and behaviors, experience health impairment and motivational processes, and assess their job strain, health, and well-being. Differences in how employees experience the stress process may ultimately manifest in different types of coping and/or strain, and may even indicate that organizations could benefit from offering different types of stress interventions (see Richardson & Rothstein, 2008 for a review) for various sub-groups of employees. One group of particular importance is former service members of the U.S. military (i.e., Veterans; individuals who served on active duty in the U.S. Armed Forces but are no longer in the Armed Forces; Walker, 2010).

The intensity with which Veterans and non-Veterans experience job stress in civilian organizations may differ because some Veterans' exposure to stressors exclusive to the military work environment (e.g., combat and other forms of trauma; Dolan & Ender, 2008) may have resulted in physiological changes in the brain (e.g., higher levels of the serotonin

transporter gene 5-HTTLPR) that render some Veterans susceptible to biased cognitive processing of negative stimuli (Disner et al., 2013). For example, 54.3% of Veterans reported that they were exposed to individuals who were deceased, dying, or wounded while in service (Westat, 2010). Exposure to such extreme stressors could physiologically alter Veterans' brain functions that cognitively process future stimuli and ultimately manifest in differences in how Veterans and non-Veterans assess their resources, as well as how these two groups use their resources when experiencing stress processes. Although some studies have examined the issue of stress and well-being for individuals in the Armed Forces (Harms, Krasikova, Vanhovc, Herian, & Lester, 2013), little research has addressed Veterans' stress in civilian organizations after service. To address this gap in the stress literature, this study examines if, how, and to what extent Veterans and non-Veterans (i.e., individuals who have not served on active duty in the U.S. Armed Forces) differentially experience stress in civilian organizations.

Veterans' struggles to assimilate into the civilian workplace have contributed to Veterans' high unemployment rates in recent years (Stone & Stone, 2015). A recent government report (Westat, 2010, p. 156) reported that only 22.3% of Veterans reported that their "most recent civilian job generally matched the occupations they were trained for while in the military" and that approximately 40.5% of Veterans reported being well or very well "prepared to enter the civilian job market when they left the service." Thus, there often are challenges for Veterans who wish to transition from working in the military to working in civilian organizations. Millions of Veterans still seek employment in civilian organizations (Westat, 2010) despite being an underutilized and growing labor pool of the highest skilled, most educated military ever available to enter the civilian workplace (Beauchesne, 2012). In response, governments at local and national levels have enacted legislation to provide

monetary incentives in the form of local, state, and/or federal tax credits (Stone & Stone, 2015) for organizations that successfully hire and gainfully employ Veterans.

The intermediary mechanisms through which psychosocial stressors affect employees' strain, health, and well-being are not well-understood, nor are the individual differences that alter the stress process and/or affect sub-groups of employees differently. Therefore, the purpose of the present research is to examine if, how, and to what extent employees' self-regulation at work serves as a boundary condition in employees' stress processes, and to examine whether or not there are differences between how Veterans and non-Veterans experience the stress process (see Figure 4). This study makes at least two key contributions to the stress literature. First, this study empirically measures self-regulation at work in a field setting and applies it to the COR theory and organizational stress literatures. Second, this study extends the limited research examining if, how, and to what extent different sub-groups of employees (i.e., Veterans, non-Veterans) experience stress differently.

Background Research, Theory, and Hypothesis Development

The Conservation of Resources Theory

The COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) is a motivational stress theory that proposes that individuals are motivated to attempt to build and protect resources against the threat of potential or actual loss of valued resources posed by job demands (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014). Resources are "anything perceived by the individual to help attain his or her goals" (Halbesleben et al., 2014, p. 1338). Initially, Hobfoll (1989) defined resources as the valuable conditions (e.g., organizational tenure), energies, (e.g., time), objects (e.g., large office), and personal characteristics (e.g., self-regulation) that provide a means to attain other resources. Conditions are resources if they are sought after and valued, energies help

individuals procure other resources, and objects and personal characteristics are resources to the extent to which they aid in stress resistance. In the present study, self-regulation at work is examined as a personal characteristic type of resource.

Job demands are the organizational, physical, or social features of employees' jobs that necessitate sustained costs. Empirical studies using the COR theory to explain employees' stress processes consistently have found that job demands are associated with the depletion of resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). There are a multitude of psychosocial stressors that can initiate the stress process (e.g., role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload; for a review, see Kopp et al., 2010). Job demands can broadly be sorted into hindrance and challenge stressors (Webster, Beehr, & Love, 2011). Hindrance and challenge stressors represent different types of events that are thought to initiate the stress process, and differ based upon whether the events constrict or promote employees' pursuit of personal development and valued goals.

Hindrance stressors stem from excessive or unwanted constraints that obstruct employees' abilities to attain valued goals (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). Chang et al. (2009) provided meta-analytic evidence that hindrance stressors (i.e., perceptions of organizational politics, role ambiguity, and role conflict) were negatively associated with job satisfaction ($-.57 < \rho < -.48$; ρ was a meta-analytic population estimate of effect size corrected for measurement error and sampling error), affective commitment ($-.54 < \rho < -.30$), task performance ($-.22 < \rho < -.14$), and organizational citizenship behaviors ($-.20 < \rho < -.12$), as well as positively associated with strain ($.43 < \rho < .52$) and turnover intentions ($.43 < \rho < .45$). Overall, hindrance stressors drain employees' resources and trigger negative forms of coping because they hinder personal development, gain, growth, and work-related accomplishment (LePine, LePine, & Saul, 2007).

In contrast to hindrance stressors, challenge stressors represent job opportunities that can reward and/or promote employees' pursuit of personal growth and accomplishments (LePine et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2007). LePine et al. (2005) found meta-analytic evidence that challenge stressors (e.g., pressure, responsibility, time urgency, workload) were positively associated with increases in motivation (r_c = .16; r_c was a meta-analytic correlation corrected for measurement error), performance (r_c = .12), and strain (r_c = .40). Challenge stressors are associated with strain because of the immediate tension felt to cope with them. Unlike hindrance stressors, the resources required to cope with challenge stressors likely do not have long-term detrimental effects on felt tension. Although challenge stressors can deplete resources, they also can promote pursuit of personal development, gain, and growth (LePine et al., 2005, 2007) and motivate employees to pursue valued goals (Van den Broeck, de Cuyper, de Witte, & Vansteenkiste, 2010).

Job Tension

Job strain manifests as job tension when psychosocial stressors present interruptions to employees' work environments that result in psychological responses (Chisholm, Kasl, & Eskenazi, 1983). Thus, job tension captures the psychological responses associated with job strain that comprise the health impairment process portion of the job stress process. Although hindrance and challenge stressors can affect the health impairment process differently (Van den Broeck et al., 2010), they both drain employees' resources. Thus, it is hypothesized that there will be a positive association between hindrance and challenge stressors and job tension.

Hypothesis 1: Perceptions of hindrance stressors will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of job tension.

Hypothesis 2: Perceptions of challenge stressors will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of job tension.

Vigor

In addition to initiating a health impairment process, job demands can initiate a motivational process (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010) that captures employees' attempts to vigorously pursue valued goals. Vigor refers to a set of interconnected affective experiences (i.e., employees' feelings of cognitive liveliness, emotional liveliness, and physical strength) that are associated with employees' resources (Shirom, Toker, Berliner, Shapira, & Melamed, 2008) and optimal psychological functioning (Shirom, 2003). In contrast to the resource-depleting nature of job tension, vigor likely is associated with a dynamic process of continual increases in cognitive well-being that can increase individuals' resources (Shirom, 2003) and positively affect individuals' cognitions and behaviors.

Van den Broeck et al. (2010) found that job hindrances were negatively associated with vigor, whereas job challenges were positively associated with vigor. The present study seeks to constructively replicate Van den Broeck et al.'s findings by using different measures of hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and vigor. Hindrance stressors present obstacles that likely deplete employees' resources, whereas challenge stressors present opportunities to develop and strengthen resources. Thus, it is hypothesized that hindrance stressors will be negatively associated with vigor, whereas challenge stressors will be positively associated with vigor.

Hypothesis 3: Perceptions of hindrance stressors will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of vigor.

Hypothesis 4: Perceptions of challenge stressors will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of vigor.

Workplace Outcomes

Although Crawford et al. (2010) found meta-analytic evidence that challenge and hindrance stressors are associated with health impairment (i.e., job tension) and motivational (i.e., vigor) processes, less is known about how job tension and vigor influence employees' physiologically (Ganster & Rosen, 2013) and/or psychologically (Meurs & Perrewé, 2011) experienced job strain, health, and well-being. Thus, it is important to assess the extent to which employees' stress contributes to physiological (e.g., somatic complaints at work) and psychological (e.g., psychological well-being at work) strain responses at work, as well as health-related concerns that can affect workplace attitudes and behaviors (e.g., problem drinking).

Somatic complaints at work. Job strain stemming from psychosocial stressors in the workplace can manifest in a number of physiological (i.e., somatic) symptoms (see Zijlema et al., 2013 for a review). Prior research has assessed physiological symptoms stemming from physical complaints, psychosomatic symptoms, and somatic complaints that reflect cognitive reactions and/or bodily sensations that indicate deviations from normal health (Ritsner, Modai, & Ponizovsky, 2002). Job demands (e.g., hindrance and challenge stressors) that tax employees' resources can contribute to employees' somatic complaints at work when employees expend resources managing job tension and/or do not have the vigor necessary to effectively manage those demands. Thus, it is hypothesized that employees' job tension will be positively associated with somatic complaints at work, whereas vigor will be negatively associated with somatic complaints at work.

Hypothesis 5: Perceptions of job tension will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of somatic complaints at work.

Hypothesis 6: Perceptions of vigor will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of somatic complaints at work.

Psychological well-being at work. In addition to the physiological strain experienced during the stress process, employees may experience psychological strain associated with decreases in well-being. Psychological well-being describes health-related quality of life stemming from optimal functioning that provides contentment, happiness, and/or satisfaction, not just the absence of distress (McDowell, 2010). Subjective well-being stems from an interaction between cognitions, culture, goals, the objective environment, personality, and resources (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). Diener et al. (1999) conducted a review of the subjective well-being literature and concluded that happy people tend to have positive temperaments, avoid ruminating about negative events, and have enough resources to make progress toward valued goals.

Job tension likely decreases employees' assessments of psychological well-being at work because it drains resources and negatively affects how employees assess their job resources (Mackey & Perrewé, 2014). Employees who have the resources necessary to pursue valued goals likely experience positive states of psychological well-being at work. Thus, it is hypothesized that job tension will be negatively associated with psychological well-being at work, whereas vigor will be positively associated with psychological well-being at work.

Hypothesis 7: Perceptions of job tension will be negatively associated with individuals' perceptions of psychological well-being at work.

Hypothesis 8: Perceptions of vigor will be positively associated with individuals' perceptions of psychological well-being at work.

Problem drinking. There are numerous important health-related concerns and negative coping behaviors associated with job strain and de-motivated behavior (e.g., heavy and/or abusive alcohol consumption; Kazemi, Berry-Cabán, Becker, & Hiebert, 2013; Sturm, 2002). Alcohol consumption is considered problem drinking when behaviors associated with drinking become personally and/or socially deleterious (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006). Problem drinking is a form of self-directed aggression (Harvey, Summers, & Martinko, 2010) that can have serious behavioral and physical health-related consequences for employees, especially if workplace conditions initiate and/or exacerbate it (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006; Frone, 2013). For example, Liu, Wang, Bamberger, Shi, & Bacharach (in press) found that work-based heavy drinking was positively associated with alcohol misuse. Excessive alcohol use has been linked to cardiovascular, liver, renal, metabolic, gastrointestinal, respiratory tract, and neurological disorders (see Chase, Neild, Sadler, & Batey, 2005 for a review), as well as injuries that contribute to emergency room visits (Cherpitel, 2007).

Prior research suggests that employees' stress is positively associated with tendencies to engage in problem drinking (e.g., Bacharach, Bamberger, & Sonnenstuhl, 2002) because some employees use alcohol to reduce anxiety and stress (Taft et al., 2007). Stress exposure can cue neural circuits in the brain associated with alcohol craving (Sinha & Li, 2007), so some employees use alcohol consumption as a coping mechanism (i.e., the self-medication hypothesis; Carrigan & Randall, 2003; Khantzian, 1997). Job demands (e.g., hindrance and challenge stressors) that tax employees' resources may be associated with employees' problem drinking if these demands ultimately manifest in health impairment and de-motivation, whereas problem drinking may be less of a concern for employees who approach job demands as opportunities to vigorously pursue their valued goals. Thus, it is hypothesized that job tension will be positively

associated with problem drinking outside the workplace, whereas vigor will be negatively associated with problem drinking outside the workplace.

Hypothesis 9: Perceptions of job tension will be positively associated with individuals' problem drinking.

Hypothesis 10: Perceptions of vigor will be negatively associated with individuals' problem drinking.

Self-Regulation at Work

The COR theory suggests that personal characteristics (e.g., self-regulation) can serve as resources that aid in stress resistance. Self-regulation reflects employees' abilities to govern their internal states and subsequently adjust their behavioral responses to pursue valued goals (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). Self-regulation consists of three primary components, all of which are necessary for self-regulatory attempts to be effective (Baumeister & Tierney, 2011). First, employees must commit to a set of clear standards (i.e., expectations, goals, ideals, and values) that can guide their behavior. Next, employees must use self-awareness to monitor their behavior (Carver & Scheier, 1981) so they can address events in the workplace and anticipate and/or avoid specific events in the future (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1994). Finally, employees must have the ability to regulate and alter their behaviors, which consumes a limited resource (Baumeister et al., 1994; Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996).

Self-regulation acts like a muscle, and can be restored and even increased via repeated exercise and practice (Baumeister et al., 2007; Muraven, Baumeister, & Tice, 1999). Regular use of self-regulation can improve employees' abilities to self-regulate over time, but can result in ego depletion if overused to the point that employees are low in self-regulatory resources (Baumeister et al., 2007). Efforts to regulate behaviors in one area can have effects in seemingly

unrelated areas (Baumeister et al., 2007), and overuse of self-regulatory resources can render employees susceptible to breakdowns in self-regulatory behaviors when addressing future events.

Ultimately, the ability to engage in self-regulation enables employees to meet some desirable standard that aligns with their pursuit of valued long-term goals (Baumeister et al., 2007). Effective self-regulation has been associated with positive psychological states and good adjustment, whereas poor self-regulation has been associated with eating disorders, substance abuse, and increased vulnerability (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). At its core, self-regulation is comprised of a set of psychological subfunctions that require development and mobilization in order to direct change (Bandura, 1986). Specifically, self-regulatory processes involve self-monitoring, self-evaluations, and self-reactions (Kanfer, 2012). First, self-monitoring reflects employees' attention to the outcomes of their actions, as related to their goals. Next, self-evaluations are used to determine progress toward goals. Finally, self-reactions (e.g., self-efficacy) reflect employees' assessments of the likelihood of goal attainment.

Ultimately, self-regulation reflects an individual difference in individuals' abilities to develop, modify, and use various self-regulatory strategies to pursue goals (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997). In the present study, self-regulation at work is examined as an individual difference personal characteristic type of resource capable of modifying the magnitude and/or direction of stress-strain relationships within the health impairment and motivational processes central to the job stress process. Self-regulation at work is examined as a personal characteristic type of resource (Hobfoll, 1989) because it can aid in stress resistance, which enables employees to protect valued resources and pursue procurement of additional resources.

The interactionist perspective suggests situations and workplace events can affect how the self-regulatory system functions to affect thought, affect, motivation, and action (Bandura, 1991). Further, situations and workplace events can alter the extent to which self-regulatory skills are needed or can be used (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997). Thus, the relationship between stressors and employees' coping efforts likely is modified by employees' self-regulatory skills and efforts (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997; Mackey & Perrewé, 2014). Employees who are able to engage in effective self-regulation at work may experience less of the negative effects of hindrance stressors on the stress process than others because they do not allow hindrance stressors to become overwhelming obstacles. Alternatively, challenge stressors likely are initiators of self-regulatory attempts to engage in behaviors consistent with pursuing valued personal goals, growth, and accomplishment, which ultimately decrease strain (i.e., job tension) and increase employees efforts directed toward pursing goals (i.e., vigor).

Thus, it is hypothesized that self-regulation at work will moderate the relationships between job demands (i.e., hindrance stressors and challenge stressors) and job tension and vigor, such that employees with greater levels of self-regulation at work will be able to attenuate the effects of job demands on job tension and accentuate the positive effects of job demands on vigor.

Hypothesis 11: Self-regulation at work will moderate the relationship between hindrance stressors and job tension such that the positive relationship between hindrance stressors and job tension will be weaker for employees with higher levels of self-regulation at work than employees with lower levels of self-regulation at work.

Hypothesis 12: Self-regulation at work will moderate the relationship between challenge stressors and job tension such that the positive relationship between challenge stressors

and job tension will be weaker for employees with higher levels of self-regulation at work than employees with lower levels of self-regulation at work.

Hypothesis 13: Self-regulation at work will moderate the relationship between hindrance stressors and vigor such that the negative relationship between hindrance stressors and vigor will be weaker for employees with higher levels of self-regulation at work than employees with lower levels of self-regulation at work.

Hypothesis 14: Self-regulation at work will moderate the relationship between challenge stressors and vigor such that the positive relationship between challenge stressors and vigor will be stronger for employees with higher levels of self-regulation at work than employees with lower levels of self-regulation at work.

Although stress traditionally has been viewed as a relatively negative phenomenon, stress can be beneficial for employees (Meurs & Perrewé, 2011). Specifically, employees who are able to engage in effective self-regulation at work during the job stress process likely experience decreases in job strain (i.e., somatic complaints at work) and health-related problems (i.e., problem drinking), as well as increases in well-being (i.e., psychological well-being at work). The resource-depleting nature of hindrance and challenge stressors likely initiates the job stress process for employees (Mackey & Perrewé, 2014), which ultimately affects employees' job strain, health, and well-being through health impairment (i.e., job tension) and motivational (i.e., vigor) processes. Employees who experience low levels of job strain and high levels of health and well-being likely regulate their behaviors to address challenge stressors as opportunities and avoid ruminating about obstacles presented by hindrance stressors, rendering them with enough resources to alleviate job tension and to vigorously pursue valued goals. Thus, it is hypothesized

that the indirect effects of organizational demands on job strain, health, and well-being will occur through job tension and vigor, conditional upon employees' levels of self-regulation at work.

Hypothesis 15a-c: The hindrance stressor × self-regulation at work interaction will affect (a) somatic complaints at work, (b) psychological well-being at work, and (c) problem drinking through job tension.

Hypothesis 16a-c: The challenge stressor × self-regulation at work interaction will affect (a) somatic complaints at work, (b) psychological well-being at work, and (c) problem drinking through job tension.

Hypothesis 17a-c: The hindrance stressor × self-regulation at work interaction will affect (a) somatic complaints at work, (b) psychological well-being at work, and (c) problem drinking through vigor.

Hypothesis 18a-c: The challenge stressor × self-regulation at work interaction will affect (a) somatic complaints at work, (b) psychological well-being at work, and (c) problem drinking through vigor.

Differences between Veterans and Non-Veterans

Overall, Veterans and non-Veterans likely experience similar stress processes in civilian organizations, but Veterans may experience a heightened sensitivity to organizational stressors that intensifies the stress process. Specifically, some Veterans may have experienced chemical and physiological changes in their brains stemming from their exposure to stressors unique to the military environment (Dolan & Ender, 2008) that render them more susceptible to biased processing of negative stimuli than their non-Veteran counterparts (Disner et al., 2013). Unfortunately, some Veterans' concerns about their own physical and mental health, as well as employers' concerns about Veterans' physical and mental health (e.g., post-traumatic stress

disorder; PTSD; Kleim, Graham, Fihosy, Stott, & Ehlers, 2014; Lu, 2012) have contributed to Veterans' high unemployment rates (Stone & Stone, 2015). Research on workplace stress needs to examine if, how, and to what extent non-Veterans and Veterans differ in how they experience stress processes in civilian organizations in order for organizations to successfully hire from an underutilized and growing labor pool of the most educated and highest skill military to ever attempt to enter the civilian workforce (Beauchesne, 2012) and reap the benefits of state and/or federal tax credits for hiring Veterans (Stone & Stone, 2015).

Research Question: If, how, and to what extent does the stress process for non-Veterans and Veterans working in civilian organizations differ?

Plan of the Research

This study utilizes a two-sample constructive replication design to examine potential differences in the stress processes of Veterans and non-Veterans. Constructive replication designs can utilize changes in measures, rating sources, sampling procedures, and/or subject pools to make substantive contributions to research (Hochwarter, Ferris, & Hanes, 2011) by providing more robust evidence for the validity of empirical findings than can be found in single-study designs (Eden, 2002; Lykken, 1968; Schmidt, 2009). In the proposed study, the first sample will test the proposed job stress model with a sample of Veterans. The second sample will constructively replicate the findings from the first sample with a sample of non-Veterans. Thus, this study utilizes a two-sample study design to constructively replicate findings across two different subject pools to examine the validity of the hypothesized model and assess the potential for differences across the two subject pools.

Method

Procedures and Participants

Procedure. Respondents were contacted at two separate time periods approximately three weeks apart to inquire about volunteering for participation in this study. A three week time lag between responses in self-reported surveys has been used successfully in prior research to address common method bias (CMB) concerns without resulting in excessive attrition of study participants (e.g., Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua, 2009). Both surveys for primary respondents were designed to take approximately 15 minutes to complete. The first survey inquired about primary respondents' perceptions of stressors, self-regulation at work, and demographic information. The second survey inquired about primary respondents' job tension, vigor, somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, problem drinking, and demographic information.

Respondents were asked to voluntarily provide an email address for somebody (e.g., co-workers, family members, friends, significant others) who might be willing to fill out a brief survey that assessed the primary respondents' somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking. Secondary respondents were contacted within a week of the completion of primary respondents' second survey. All secondary respondents were entered into a drawing to win one of 10 $10 Amazon gift cards. Secondary respondents recruited by Qualtrics's Panel Management Services were entered into the drawing for Amazon gift cards and were compensated $5.

Each survey began with a letter of consent, then proceeded with measures of the substantive constructs of interest and demographic information. Short measures of other constructs were included throughout the surveys to help conceal the study's true purpose. Also,

each survey contained a quality check item (i.e., instructed item) that required respondents to choose a particular response; instructed items are an effective means for screening data to ensure that respondents exerted sufficient effort when completing surveys (Desimone, Harms, & Desimone, in press). Responses from individuals who did not choose the correct response for a quality check item were removed prior to any analyses. The surveys followed the aforementioned structure to limit the potential for CMB to alter observed relationships and/or pose a threat to the validity of study findings (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Please see Appendices A-C for full versions of the surveys used for this study.

Although the effects of CMB in organizational research may be exaggerated (Spector, 2006), CMB can affect study findings (Johnson, Rosen, & Djurdjevic, 2011; Podsakoff, Whiting, Welsh, & Mai, 2013). Thus, I followed procedural remedies outlined by prior research (Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012) to help address CMB concerns in order to strengthen this study's design before data collection began (Aguinis & Vandenberg, 2014). Specifically, I collected data from multiple raters, altered the number of anchor scale point numbers, altered the response formats among constructs, protected respondents' anonymity, and did not use a cross-sectional (i.e., single source, self-report at one point in time) study design (Podsakoff et al., 2013).

Further, I followed Johnson et al.'s (2011) recommended procedural and statistical remedies for addressing CMB. Johnson et al. suggested the most effective procedural remedy was to use temporal separation of data collection efforts, so I separated data collection efforts by approximately three weeks. Also, Johnson et al. suggested the most effective statistical remedy was controlling for measured or unmeasured methods factors, so I controlled for measured

methods factors by incorporating relevant control variables measuring transient mood states (i.e., negative and positive affectivity) into the study design.

The target respondent pool was adults aged 21-65 who lived in the U.S. and were employed at least part-time (i.e., 20 or more hours per week). There were several inclusion criteria used to determine which respondents were included in the final samples. Specifically, respondents had to indicate that they spoke English, lived in the U.S., report whether or not they were Veterans of the U.S. military, were at least 18 years of age, worked at least 20 hours per week, respond from a unique IP address, and correctly respond to the quality check items to be included in the final analyses. Only the first response was recorded in the final sample for any given IP address. Within-person mean imputation was used to replace missing values when only a single response was missing from any given measure. Cases were removed from the final sample if more than a single response was missing for any measure (i.e., I used listwise deletion). The data collection procedures for this study were approved by the Human Subjects Committee at Florida State University (please see Appendix D).

Sample 1 (Veterans). I recruited Veterans for the first sample in numerous ways. Specifically, I re-contacted Veterans who responded to previous data collection efforts (i.e., Essay 2 of my dissertation), recruited participants through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) website, and recruited participants through Qualtrics's Panel Management Services. First, 165 Veterans who responded to previous data collection efforts (i.e., Essay 2) were re-contacted and invited to participate in the final phase of this Veterans research. This group of Veterans was originally recruited through message boards on Veterans' group pages on social media websites (i.e., Facebook, LinkedIn). Sixty of the Veterans completed the Time 1 survey, 46 of which completed the Time 2 survey. Thirty-nine respondents were included in the final sample (24%

useable data) because they provided full information across both surveys, did not incorrectly report the quality check item, and could be matched based on identification codes. Veterans who responded to this data collection effort were entered into a drawing for 20 $10 Amazon gift cards.

Next, MTurk provides an efficient and effective means of connecting researchers with workers who are available to complete simple tasks (e.g., completing surveys) for modest amounts of financial compensation. Prior research indicates that the results obtained from MTurk samples are similar to results obtained from traditional subject populations when precautions are taken during respondent recruitment (e.g., Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012; Sprouse, 2011). Studies utilizing MTurk are becoming widely used in business and psychology research (e.g., Chua, 2013, *Academy of Management Journal*; Phillips, Gully, McCarthy, Castellano, & Kim, 2014, *Personnel Psychology*; Uhlmann, Heaphy, Ashford, Zhu, & Sanchez-Burks, 2013, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*) and can lead to important theoretical advancements, as well as enhance the generalizability of study findings (Aguinis & Lawal, 2012). Ultimately, 52 Veterans completed the Time 1 survey, 24 of which completed the Time 2 survey. Eighteen respondents were included in the final sample (35% useable data) because they provided full information across both surveys, did not incorrectly report the quality check item, and could be matched based on identification codes. Respondents were compensated $0.50 for each Time 1 survey and $1.10 for each Time 2 survey completed though MTurk.

Finally, Veterans were contacted via Qualtrics's Panel Management Services. Prior stress research has used panel data (e.g., StudyResponse, Qualtrics) successfully (e.g., Byrne et al., 2014). Veterans who responded to Qualtrics's solicitations through Qualtrics Panel Management Services were included in the first sample; non-Veterans comprised the second sample.

Specifically, 984 respondents completed the Time 1 survey; 75 respondents were Veterans and 909 respondents were non-Veterans. Fifty-two Veterans completed the Time 2 survey, 45 of which were included in the final sample (60% useable data) because they provided full information across both surveys, did not incorrectly report the quality check item, and could be matched based on identification codes. Respondents were compensated $5 for each completed survey.

Please see Table 7 for a full description of demographic information for each subsample of Veterans by source. Also, please see Table 8 for the results of independent samples t-tests used to examine mean differences between Veterans' self-reports across subsamples. The results of t-tests suggested that there were some significant mean differences across subsamples with regards to control variables (4/15) and substantive variables (2/24), but that most mean differences across Veteran subsamples were not significant. Thus, I combined Veterans' responses from previous data collection efforts (i.e., Essay 2 of my dissertation), MTurk, and Qualtrics's Panel Management Services into one overall sample of Veterans (n = 102). Overall, approximately 55% of Veterans who responded to the Time 1 survey were included in the final survey.

Independent samples t-tests used to assess nonrespondent bias (Schwab, 1999) demonstrated that respondents included in the final sample (n = 102) differed from respondents who provided full information for the first survey but were excluded from the final sample (n = 69) in their mean reported age ($\mu_{included}$ = 48.85, $\mu_{excluded}$ = 42.88, $\Delta\mu$ = 5.97, t = 3.18, p < .01), but not their mean reported gender ($\mu_{included}$ = .15, $\mu_{excluded}$ = .27, $\Delta\mu$ = -.12, t = -1.80, *ns*), organizational tenure ($\mu_{included}$ = 114.15 months, $\mu_{excluded}$ = 103.85 months, $\Delta\mu$ = 10.30, t = .63, *ns*), hindrance stressors ($\mu_{included}$ = 4.21, $\mu_{excluded}$ = 4.15, $\Delta\mu$ = .06, t = .28, *ns*), challenge stressors

($\mu_{included}$ = 4.96, $\mu_{excluded}$ = 4.85, $\Delta\mu$ = -.11, *t* = -.48, *ns*), or self-regulation at work ($\mu_{included}$ = 5.44, $\mu_{excluded}$ = 5.49, $\Delta\mu$ = -.05, *t* = -.28, *ns*). Thus, nonrespondent bias likely did not pose a threat to the validity of the results obtained from the analyses examining sample 1.

The respondents averaged approximately 49.1 years of age (σ = 11.4), 9.6 years of organizational tenure (σ = 10.0), and 43.7 hours of work per week (σ = 8.9). About 85.3% of the respondents were male and 93.1% reported working full-time. The respondents served in the Air Force (14.7%), Army (55.9%), Coast Guard (2.9%), Marines (8.8%), and Navy (17.6%). On average, respondents spent about 12.1 years in the military (σ = 9.3), 0.9 years in combat zones (σ = 1.1), and had been separated from service for roughly 17.0 years (σ = 11.9). Only 12.8% of Veterans reported terminating their service prior to term. About 39.2% of respondents sustained a physical disability while on active duty and 43.1% of respondents indicated that they had a disability rating; among the 40 respondents who had a disability rating, there was an average disability rating of 32.1% (σ = 29.6). Please see Table 9 for a full description of sample demographics. Only seven secondary respondents completed surveys. Thus, all analyses examining sample 1 consisted of self-reports from primary respondents.

Sample 2 (Non-Veterans). Data for the second sample consisted of non-Veterans who responded to the surveys solicited by Qualtrics's Panel Management Services. Nine hundred and nine non-Veteran respondents completed the Time 1 survey, 593 of which completed the Time 2 survey. Five hundred and thirty-two respondents were included in the final sample (59% useable data) because they provided full information across both surveys, did not incorrectly report the quality check item, and could be matched based on identification codes. Respondents were compensated $5 for each completed survey. The respondents averaged approximately 47.6 years of age (σ = 11.0), 11.9 years of organizational tenure (σ = 10.1), and 41.3 hours of work per

week ($\sigma = 7.5$). About 40.0% of the respondents were male and 95.5% reported working full-time. Please see Table 9 for a full description of sample demographics.

Independent samples t-tests used to assess nonrespondent bias demonstrated that respondents included in the final sample ($n = 532$) differed from respondents who provided full information for the first survey but were excluded from the final sample ($n = 377$) in their mean reported age ($\mu_{included} = 47.58$, $\mu_{excluded} = 45.59$, $\Delta\mu = 1.99$, $t = 2.69$, $p < .01$), gender ($\mu_{included} = .60$, $\mu_{excluded} = .53$, $\Delta\mu = .08$, $t = 2.29$, $p < .05$), organizational tenure ($\mu_{included} = 143.62$ months, $\mu_{excluded} = 125.15$ months, $\Delta\mu = 18.47$, $t = 2.34$, $p < .05$), hindrance stressors ($\mu_{included} = 3.58$, $\mu_{excluded} = 3.91$, $\Delta\mu = -.33$, $t = -3.17$, $p < .01$), and challenge stressors ($\mu_{included} = 4.61$, $\mu_{excluded} = 4.83$, $\Delta\mu = -.22$, $t = -2.23$, $p < .05$), but not their mean reports of self-regulation at work ($\mu_{included} = 5.49$, $\mu_{excluded} = 5.58$, $\Delta\mu = -.09$, $t = -1.35$, *ns*). Thus, nonrespondent bias may have affected the validity of the results obtained from the analyses examining sample 2.

Sixty-six secondary respondents completed the secondary respondent survey; however, only 53 secondary respondents were included in the final sample because they provided full information, did not incorrectly report the quality check item, and could be matched with a primary respondent based on identification codes and email addresses. Secondary respondents were compensated $5 for each completed survey. Secondary respondents ranged in age from 22 to 65 ($\mu = 46.23$, $\sigma = 12.50$). Approximately 42% of secondary respondents were male. Secondary respondents reported various relations to the primary respondents: 32% were coworkers, 21% were spouses, 17% were friends, 2% were significant others, 2% were family friends, and 26% reported knowing the primary respondent in some "other" capacity. The primary analyses conducted in this study examined the responses of primary respondents across

both samples, but data from the secondary respondents in sample 2 were examined in some of the supplementary analyses.

Measures

Higher scores for each measure reflected greater perceptions of each construct than lower scores. Hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and self-regulation at work were collected at Time 1. Job tension, vigor, somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking were collected at Time 2. Please see Table 10 for a list of items, response formats, composite reliabilities, and standardized parcel item loadings for all measures. Also, please see Table 11 for descriptive statistics, internal consistency information, and zero-order correlations between variables.

Hindrance stressors. Hindrance stressors were measured using Cavanaugh et al.'s (2000) five-item measure. Respondents reported the extent to which they agreed that demands contributed to their stress at work (1 = "strongly disagree," 7 = "strongly agree"). Webster, Beehr, and Christiansen (2010) suggested that an agreement response scale format is more appropriate than the original scale format (1 = "produces no stress," 5 = "produces a great deal of stress") because it does not artificially inflate correlations with strain measures. "The amount of red tape I need to go through to get my job done" and "The lack of job security I have" were scale items (sample 1: Cronbach's alpha [α] = .75, construct reliability [CR] = .78, average variance extracted [AVE] = .54; sample 2: α = .81, CR = .82, AVE = .60).

Challenge stressors. Challenge stressors were measured using Cavanaugh et al.'s (2000) six-item measure. Respondents reported the extent to which they agreed that demands contributed to their stress at work (1 = "strongly disagree," 7 = "strongly agree"). "The number

of projects and/or assignments I have" and "The amount of responsibility I have" were scale items (sample 1: α = .93, CR = .95, AVE = .86; sample 2: α = .93, CR = .94, AVE = .85).

Self-regulation at work. Self-regulation at work was measured using Tangney et al.'s (2004) 13-item brief self-control scale. The phrase "at work" was added to the end of items to make them specific to the workplace. The original measure included nine reverse-worded items, but all items were positively worded for the present study in order to avoid item response patterns associated with positively and negatively worded items. Respondents reported the extent to which examples of self-regulation at work were reflective of their behaviors in the workplace (1 = "not at all like me," 7 = "exactly like me"). "I am good at resisting temptation at work" and "I am able to work effectively toward long-term goals at work" were scale items (sample 1: α = .89, CR = .89, AVE = .73; sample 2: α = .92, CR = .91, AVE = .78).

Job tension. Job tension was measured using House and Rizzo's (1972) seven-item measure. Respondents reported the extent to which they agreed that they felt job tension (1 = "strongly disagree," 7 = "strongly agree"). "My job tends to directly affect my health" and "I work under a great deal of tension" were scale items (sample 1: α = .87, CR = .84, AVE = .64; sample 2: α = .91, CR = .89, AVE = .73).

Vigor. Vigor was measured using Schaufeli and Bakker's (2003) six-item vigor dimension of their 17-item measure of workplace engagement. Respondents reported the frequency with which they felt various ways about their work (1 = "never," 7 = "always"). "At my work, I feel bursting with energy" and "At my job, I feel strong and vigorous" were scale items (sample 1: α = .88, CR = .92, AVE = .79; sample 2: α = .88, CR = .92, AVE = .79).

Somatic complaints at work. Somatic complaints at work were measured using the seven-item somatization dimension of Carlier et al.'s (2012) 48-item symptom survey. The

phrase “at work” was added to the end of items to make them specific to the workplace. Respondents reported the frequency with which they felt physiological symptoms in the workplace (1 = “never,” 7 = “always”). “I felt dizzy or lightheaded” and “I felt chest pain (or pressure)” were scale items (sample 1: α = .95, CR = .96, AVE = .90; sample 2: α = .91, CR = .93, AVE = .81).

Psychological well-being at work. Psychological well-being at work was measured using Bech, Olsen, Kjoller, and Rasmussen’s (2003) five-item measure of well-being. The phrase “at work” was added to the end of items to make them specific to the workplace. Respondents reported the extent to which they agreed that they felt well while at work (1 = “strongly disagree,” 7 = “strongly agree”). “I have been a happy person at work” and “I have been interested in things at work” were scale items (sample 1: α = .94, CR = .95, AVE = .86; sample 2: α = .93, CR = .91, AVE = .78).

Problem drinking. Problem drinking was measured using Ewing’s (1984) four-item CAGE (i.e., cutting down, annoyance by criticism, guilty feeling, and eye-openers) measure. Prior research indicates that using an average level of alcohol consumption often poorly correlates with the problems associated with alcoholism and problem drinking (Cooper, Russell, & George, 1988). In response, many studies have used a dichotomous response format (i.e., yes/no responses) and summed up affirmative responses to determine if individuals had drinking problems (i.e., 2 or more “yes” responses indicated problem drinkers). For this study, I focused on the extent to which drinking problems outside of the workplace were associated with employees’ stress processes inside the workplace instead of labeling individuals as non-drinkers, moderate (i.e., non-problem) drinkers, or problem drinkers. To do this, I measured problem drinking in general, rather than problem drinking specific to the workplace. Thus, respondents

reported the frequency with which they experienced problems associated with their drinking (1 = "never," 7 = "always"). "Have you ever felt you ought to cut down on your drinking?" and "Have people annoyed you by criticizing your drinking?" were scale items (sample 1: $\alpha = .89$, CR = .91, AVE = .77; sample 2: $\alpha = .89$, CR = .90, AVE = .75).

Control variables. I controlled for primary respondents' age, gender (male = 0, female = 1), and organizational tenure (in months) in the analyses. These demographic control variables have been used in prior stress research (e.g., Hochwarter, Laird, & Brouer, 2008) because they can influence employees' evaluations of stressors and strain (Smith, Brice, Collins, Matthews, & McNamara, 2000). Also, I controlled for negative affectivity (NA) and positive affectivity (PA) using eight items from Watson, Clark, and Tellegen's (1988) 20-item Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) measure; these abbreviated measures of NA and PA have been used as control variables in prior stress research (e.g., Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they felt various ways (i.e., distressed, upset, afraid, jittery, inspired, excited, strong, active) during the week preceding their completion of the surveys (1 = "very slightly or not at all," 5 = "extremely"). Both measures demonstrated acceptable levels of internal consistency across samples (sample 1_{NA}: $\alpha = .81$, CR = .82, AVE = .61; sample 2_{NA}: $\alpha = .86$, CR = .86, AVE = .68; sample 1_{PA}: $\alpha = .92$, CR = .91, AVE = .77; sample 2_{PA}: $\alpha = .92$, CR = .91, AVE = .77).

Both NA and PA can be biasing factors in stress research because they tend to correlate highly with stress- and strain-related variables (Judge, Erez, & Thoresen, 2000; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989). Respondents' NA and PA over the week prior to responding to the surveys was recorded at Times 1 and 2 (sample 1: $r_{NA} = .66$, $p < .01$, $r_{PA} = .60$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $r_{NA} = .53$, $p < .01$, $r_{PA} = .70$, $p < .01$); respondents' Time 2 NA and PA were used as control variables

for analyses. Thus, NA and PA were used to control for variables relevant to the present study that captured transient mood states that could contribute to CMB concerns (i.e., I used the measured variance approach; Johnson et al., 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2003) and artificially inflated effects on stress and strain variables.

Overall, control variables were included in the model that were theoretically and practically relevant to the hypothesized model so I could test the ability of the substantive constructs in the model to predict incremental variance in the mediators (i.e., job tension, vigor) and dependent variables (i.e., somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking). Thus, all reported effects for the primary analyses reflect the associations between variables when controlling for the effects of age, gender, organizational tenure, NA, and PA (Becker, 2005; Carlson & Wu, 2012).

Assessment of Measures

Power analyses. First, I conducted a power analysis for each sample to determine whether or not I had ample power to detect relationships in the samples using covariance-based structural equation modeling (SEM; McQuitty, 2004; Reinartz, Haenline, & Henseler, 2009) if they actually existed. According to Rigdon's (1994) procedure for calculating degrees of freedom (*df*), I expected the confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) to yield 360 *df* when including NA and PA; age, gender, and organizational tenure were excluded from the CFAs because they all were measured using single items. McQuitty's (2004; $df = 300$ and $\pi = .90$ requires $N \geq 81$; $df = 400$ and $\pi = .90$ requires $N \geq 68$) recommendations suggested that I had ample power to detect relationships in both samples (i.e., $n_{\text{sample 1}} = 102$, $n_{\text{sample 2}} = 532$). Reinartz et al.'s (2009) recommendations suggested that sample 1 likely lacked sufficient power ($N = 100$; moderate equal item loadings of .7; medium effect size [$\beta = .30$], with 2 and 4 indicators; 33% and 51%

power, respectively), but that sample 2 had ample power (N = 500; moderate equal item loadings of .7; medium effect size [β = .30], with 2 and 4 indicators; 91% and 100% power, respectively). Thus, results for analyses involving sample 1 should be interpreted cautiously.

Item parceling. Then, I used the factorial algorithm partial disaggregation (parceling) technique (i.e., item-to-construct balance; Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002; Rogers & Schmitt, 2004; Williams, Vandenberg, & Edwards, 2009) to create three parcels for each latent construct. The item-to-construct balance partial disaggregation technique attempts to balance the lowest and highest loading items across parcels in order to balance item difficulty and discrimination amongst parcels (Williams et al., 2009). Partial disaggregation was used to reduce item-specific error, reduce type I errors among item correlations, examine evenly distributed constructs (i.e., each latent construct had 3 parcels rather than 3-13 items), and reduce the overall demands placed on the data.

Confirmatory factor analyses. Next, I conducted CFAs in AMOS 18.0 (Arbuckle, 2005) using the maximum likelihood estimation method as the first step of Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach to SEM. I allowed the disturbance terms to covary for the dependent variables because I expected the dependent variables to be moderately-to-strongly correlated (Mackey & Perrewé, 2014). In fact, the correlations (r) among dependent variables ranged from .00 to |.45|. I examined the values for chi-square (χ^2), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean residual (SRMR) to determine whether or not the overall CFA for each sample demonstrated acceptable fit between the model and the data (Hu & Bentler, 1999). According to Hu and Bentler's recommended cutoff points, the results for sample 1 should be interpreted cautiously (sample 1: χ^2 [360] = 587.375, CFI = .915, TLI = .897, RMSEA = .079, and SRMR =

.068), but there was acceptable fit between the model and the data for sample 2 (sample 2: χ^2 [360] = 941.801, CFI = .956, TLI = .947, RMSEA = .055, and SRMR = .046).

Then, I conducted tests of convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), discriminant validity (Bagozzi, Yi, & Singh, 1991), internal consistency, and CMB (Cote & Buckley, 1987). Acceptable levels of convergent validity were present because all parcels significantly loaded on their intended constructs and had standardized item loadings of at least .5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Also, acceptable levels of discriminant validity were present because all bivariate correlations were significantly different from 1 (Bagozzi et al., 1991). Acceptable levels of internal consistency were present because all Cronbach's alpha values were above .70, construct reliability values were above .70, and AVE values were above .50.

Next, I conducted measurement invariance tests (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998) using CFAs to clarify whether or not meaningful comparisons of construct means, construct conceptualizations, and relationships between constructs across samples was possible. The results of CFAs revealed that there were acceptable levels of configural invariance (i.e., acceptable values for fit indices, discriminant validity, convergent validity, and no items loading on non-intended constructs according to modification indices), but the results of chi-square difference tests (i.e., $\Delta\chi^2$) used to test metric invariance and factor variance invariance demonstrated that acceptable levels of metric invariance and factor variance invariance were not present. The acceptable levels of configural invariance suggested that the measures demonstrated similar factor loadings across samples. The unacceptable levels of metric invariance and factor variance invariance suggested that respondents across samples did not respond to the items included in the hypothesized model in the same way and that the correlations between constructs

varied across samples, respectively. Thus, differences across samples should be interpreted cautiously.

Finally, I conducted hierarchically nested covariance structure model analyses to examine the extent to which common method bias was present in the data (Cote & Buckley, 1987). The results indicated that there was variance due to both trait and method present in both samples (please see Tables 11 and 13). Estimates of the extent to which trait and method variance were present in sample 1 could not be precisely estimated due to low power and the presence of standardized item loadings above 1.0 when the latent method factor was included in the model. Thus, results from sample 1 should be interpreted cautiously. Results from sample 2 indicated that 48.1% of the variance was explained by the trait factors, 27.7% of the variance was explained by the method factor, and 24.2% of the variance was explained by error. More of the variance was explained by the trait factors than the method factor, so I concluded that CMB likely did not pose a substantial threat to the validity of inferences drawn from sample 2.

Alternative factor analyses. Testing alternative CFA models is a common technique utilized in management research for assessing construct independence, despite being an imperfect means for detecting potential confounds (Martinko, Harvey, & Mackey, 2014). Thus, I ran multiple alternative CFA models to provide evidence regarding whether or not the hypothesized model fit the data better than any competing model. Specifically, I tested alternative CFA models that (1) combined all latent variables into a single factor, (2) combined NA and PA, (3) combined the exogenous variables (i.e., hindrance and challenge stressors), (4) combined the mediators (i.e., job tension and vigor), (5) combined the dependent variables (i.e., somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking), and (6) did not include NA and PA.

As shown in Table 14, the hypothesized model fit the data better than all alternative models except for the model that did not include NA and PA (i.e., model 6; sample 1: $\Delta\chi^2$ = -300.658, Δdf = 136, $\Delta df_{\text{critical value}}$ = 164.216; sample 2: $\Delta\chi^2$ = -358.936, Δdf = 136, $\Delta df_{\text{critical value}}$ = 164.216) because the values for fit indices worsened for alternative models and the chi-square ($\Delta\chi^2$) test failed to meet critical value thresholds. Also, the model without NA and PA demonstrated better fit to the data (sample 1: χ^2 [224] = 286.717, CFI = .969, TLI = .962, RMSEA = .053, and SRMR = .057; sample 2: χ^2 [224] = 582.865, CFI = .965, TLI = .957, RMSEA = .055, and SRMR = .042) than the hypothesized model (sample 1: χ^2 [360] = 587.375, CFI = .915, TLI = .897, RMSEA = .079, and SRMR = .068; sample 2: χ^2 [360] = 941.801, CFI = .956, TLI = .947, RMSEA = .055, and SRMR = .046). Thus, the hypothesized model was retained for the primary analyses and results for the alternative model without NA and PA were examined as secondary analyses.

Finally, per Martinko et al.'s (2014) recommendation, I performed exploratory factor analyses (i.e., EFAs) of highly correlated constructs. Specifically, I used principal axis factoring and promax rotation with Kaiser normalization to examine the parcels for positive affectivity, vigor, and psychological well-being at work. I found that the parcels for these variables overlapped considerably. Specifically, based on the criterion that Eigenvalues above 1.00 indicate independent factors (Field, 2005), I found that sample 1 had two factors and sample 2 had a single factor. Thus, positive affectivity, vigor, and psychological well-being appear to be confounded, so the results of this study should be interpreted cautiously.

Analysis. I proceeded with the second step of Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach to estimate the structural models using SEM with the latent variables measured in the CFAs because the aforementioned results supported the validity of inferences drawn from the

samples examined, though the results from sample 1 should be interpreted cautiously. Further, I used Mathieu, Tannenbaum, and Salas's (1992) method for testing the moderating effects of self-regulation at work on the indirect relationship of stressors on strain, health, and well-being through health impairment and motivational processes. Mathieu et al.'s method is more operationally and conceptually straightforward than most of the other options available for testing continuous moderators in SEM (see Cortina, Chen, & Dunlap, 2001 for a review). Please see Appendix E for a summary of the formulae used to calculate the reliability of the interaction term, the standardized loading of the single item, and the theta delta value used in the moderation analyses.

Results

Primary Analyses

Structural model results. I estimated the structural models using SEM with the latent variables measured in the CFAs described above (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The results indicated a borderline acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999) between the structural model and the observed data in the first sample (sample 1: χ^2 [349] = 563.134, CFI = .914, TLI = .893, RMSEA = .078, and SRMR = .068) and acceptable fit between the structural model and the observed data in the second sample (sample 2: χ^2 [349] = 918.275, CFI = .953, TLI = .941, RMSEA = .055, and SRMR = .045). Results for hypothesis testing are summarized in Table 15 and visually depicted in Figure 5.

The results indicated that perceptions of hindrance stressors were positively associated with perceptions of job tension (sample 1: γ = .17, *ns*; sample 2: γ = .19, $p < .01$) and negatively associated with vigor (sample 1: γ = -.29, $p < .01$; sample 2: γ = -.13, $p < .01$), which provided partial support for hypothesis 1 and full support for hypothesis 3. Perceptions of challenge

stressors were positively associated with job tension (sample 1: $\gamma = .11$, *ns*; sample 2: $\gamma = .28$, $p < .01$), but not significantly associated with vigor (sample 1: $\gamma = -.15$, *ns*; sample 2: $\gamma = .03$, *ns*), which provided partial support for hypothesis 2, but did not support hypothesis 4.

Next, job tension was positively associated with somatic complaints at work (sample 1: $\beta = -.08$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = .29$, $p < .01$), negatively associated with psychological well-being at work (sample 1: $\beta = .19$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = -.15$, $p < .01$), and positively associated with problem drinking (sample 1: $\beta = .32$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = .16$, $p < .05$) in sample 2. Thus, the results provided partial support for hypotheses 5, 7, and 9. Vigor was not significantly associated with somatic complaints at work (sample 1: $\beta = -.21$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = -.13$, *ns*) or problem drinking (sample 1: $\beta = .20$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = -.05$, *ns*), but was positively associated with psychological well-being at work (sample 1: $\beta = .72$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $\beta = .60$, $p < .01$). Thus, the results provided support for hypothesis 8, but did not support hypotheses 6 or 10.

In addition to testing the direct associations between the variables of interest, I used the Sobel test to examine the indirect effects of perceptions of hindrance stressors and challenge stressors on somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking through job tension and vigor ($Z = [a \times b] / [\sqrt{[b^2 s_a^2 + a^2 s_b^2]}]$; a was the unstandardized effect size from the independent variable to the mediator, b was the unstandardized effect size from the mediator to the dependent variable, s_a was the standard error for the unstandardized effect size from the independent variable to the mediator, and s_b was the standard error for the unstandardized effect size from the mediator to the dependent variable; Baron & Kenny, 1986; Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010). Overall, the results indicated that there were no significant indirect effects in sample 1, but that hindrance and challenge stressors had indirect effects on somatic

complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking through job tension ($Z > 1.96$), but not vigor, in sample 2. Please see Table 16 for a complete list of results.

Partial mediation model. The hypothesized model examined a fully mediated model whereby the exogenous variables (i.e., hindrance and challenge stressors) were not hypothesized to have direct effects on the dependent variables (i.e., somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking). Thus, I tested a partial mediation model whereby the exogenous variables (i.e., hindrance and challenge stressors) had direct effects on the mediators (i.e., job tension and vigor) and on the dependent variables (i.e., somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking) because Anderson and Gerbing (1988) recommended testing alternative structural models when conducting SEM. Neither the fully mediated nor the partial mediation model included the self-regulation at work interaction effect when assessing the CFAs in the first step of Anderson and Gerbing's two-step process.

The fit indices for the structural models improved because less constraints were placed on the model (sample 1: χ^2 [211] = 268.66, CFI = .969, TLI = .960, RMSEA = .052, and SRMR = .051; sample 2: χ^2 [211] = 592.516, CFI = .959, TLI = .946, RMSEA = .058, and SRMR = .053). Further, chi-square difference tests (i.e., $\Delta\chi^2$) revealed that the partial mediation model fit the data better than the fully mediated model in both samples (sample 1: $\Delta\chi^2 = 16.247$, $\Delta df = 6$, critical value = 12.59, $p < .05$; sample 2: $\Delta\chi^2 = 13.449$, $\Delta df = 6$, critical value = 12.59, $p < .05$). The weak-to-moderate effect sizes for the exogenous variables on the dependent variables were strong enough to modestly improve the fit indices, but not necessarily meaningful enough to sacrifice the parsimony of the proposed theoretical model.

Interaction effects. Next, I examined the interaction effects of self-regulation at work on the relationships between the exogenous variables (i.e., hindrance and challenge stressors) and

the mediators (i.e., job tension and vigor), as well as the indirect effects of the exogenous variables on the dependent variables (i.e., somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking) through the mediators, conditional upon levels of the moderator (i.e., self-regulation at work), using Mathieu et al.'s (1992) formulae for continuous moderation in SEM. The results indicated that self-regulation at work did not moderate the effects of hindrance (sample 1: $\beta = .07$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = .02$, *ns*) or challenge (sample 1: $\beta = -.02$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = -.02$, *ns*) stressors on job tension, but that self-regulation at work did moderate the effects of hindrance (sample 1: $\beta = .29$, $p < .01$, $\Delta\chi^2 = 5.72$, $\Delta df = 1$, critical value = 3.84; sample 2: $\beta = .01$, *ns*, $\Delta\chi^2 = 6.63$, $\Delta df = 1$, critical value = 3.84) and challenge (sample 1: $\beta = .25$, $p < .05$; sample 2: $\beta = -.05$, *ns*) stressors on vigor in sample 1.

I plotted high (i.e., one standard deviation above the mean) and low (i.e., one standard deviation below the mean) levels of self-regulation across the range of vigor scores for the two significant interaction effects in order to provide a graphic depiction of the interaction effects (www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm; Stone & Hollenbeck, 1989; Stone-Romero & Liakhovitski, 2002).

Figure 6 shows the plot of the significant interaction between hindrance stressors and self-regulation at work on vigor and visually demonstrates that individuals who reported higher levels of self-regulation at work reported higher levels of vigor than individuals who reported lower levels of self-regulation at work. The interaction was not in the hypothesized direction, which predicted that the negative relationship between hindrance stressors and vigor would be weaker for employees with high levels of self-regulation at work than for employees with low levels of self-regulation at work. Neither the low ($b = .23$, $t = .85$, *ns*) nor the high ($b = .41$, $t =$

1.09, *ns*) self-regulation at work slopes were significant at one standard deviation below and above the mean, respectively.

Figure 7 shows the plot of the significant interaction between challenge stressors and self-regulation at work on vigor and demonstrates that individuals who reported higher levels of self-regulation at work reported higher levels of vigor than individuals who reported lower levels of self-regulation at work. The interaction was in the hypothesized direction, but neither the low (b = .26, t = 1.14, *ns*) nor the high (b = .44, t = 1.39, *ns*) self-regulation at work slopes were significant at one standard deviation below and above the mean, respectively. Thus, hypotheses 11, 12, and 13 were not supported, but hypothesis 14 received partial support.

Finally, I tested for the indirect effect of the interaction terms on somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking through job tension and vigor. Please see Table 16 for a complete list of results. Overall, the results indicated that there was only one significant indirect effect of any interaction on somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, or problem drinking through job tension or vigor in either sample (i.e., hindrance stressors × self-regulation at work on psychological well-being at work through vigor in sample 1). Thus, I did not find support for hypotheses 15a-c – 18a-c.

Supplementary Analyses

Differences across samples. I assessed potential differences across samples by conducting independent sample t-tests for mean differences across samples and examining whether or not Veteran status (i.e., Veterans = 1, non-Veterans = 2) moderated the relationship between the results for any of the direct paths in the hypothesized model. The results of the independent samples t-tests are presented in Table 17. The results suggested that there were significantly more males ($\Delta\mu$ = -.45, t = -11.04, p < .01) in the Veteran sample than the non-

Veteran sample and that Veterans reported lower levels of organizational tenure ($\Delta\mu$ = -28.47, t = -2.19, $p < .05$) and greater levels of hindrance stressors ($\Delta\mu$ = .63, t = 4.13, $p < .01$), job tension ($\Delta\mu$ = .40, t = 2.54, $p < .05$), and problem drinking ($\Delta\mu$ = .37, t = 2.93, $p < .01$) than their non-Veteran counterparts ($t > |1.96|$, $p < .05$).

Further, I conducted multiple two-group SEM analyses (i.e., finite mixture distribution analyses; Neale, 2000) to test for the moderating effects of Veteran status (Veterans = 1; non-Veterans = 2) on each path in the hypothesized model. Multiple two-group SEM analyses can simultaneously test results for both samples in order to facilitate chi-square difference tests for the heterogeneity of results ($\alpha = .05$, $\Delta df = 1$, critical value for $\Delta\chi^2 = 3.84$). I performed chi-square difference tests between the baseline model (i.e., the fully constrained model; χ^2 [df] = 1580.00 [751]) and models with a constraint for each path lifted. The chi-square difference tests demonstrated that the paths between challenge stressors and job tension ($\Delta\chi^2 = 11.89$), challenge stressors and vigor ($\Delta\chi^2 = 7.56$), and vigor and psychological well-being at work ($\Delta\chi^2 = 6.96$) all were moderated by Veteran status such that Veterans reported a weaker positive association between challenge stressors and job tension, a stronger negative association between challenge stressors and vigor, and a stronger association between vigor and psychological well-being at work than non-Veterans.

Hypothesis testing without NA and PA. Both NA and PA tend to correlate highly with stress- and strain-related variables (Judge et al., 2000; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989), so there has been debate regarding whether or not to control for NA and PA in stress research (Judge et al., 2000; Spector, Zapf, Chen, & Frese, 2000) because researchers have to weigh controlling for theoretically and practically relevant control variables that are associated with stress and strain versus potentially removing so much variance in dependent variables due to NA and PA that it is

difficult to detect any effects of independent variables. Thus, I tested the hypothesized model with NA and PA as control variables for the primary analyses but proceed forward with the secondary analyses without the inclusion of NA and PA as control variables because I am concerned with testing the specific features of the data rather than the validity of the overall model and/or the extent to which NA and PA affected the obtained results.

First, I conducted new CFAs without the inclusion of NA and PA. According to Hu and Bentler's (1999) recommended cutoff points, both samples demonstrated good fit between the model and the data (sample 1: χ^2 [224] = 286.717, CFI = .969, TLI = .962, RMSEA = .053, and SRMR = .057; sample 2: χ^2 [224] = 582.865, CFI = .965, TLI = .957, RMSEA = .055, and SRMR = .042). Further, the results of testing hierarchically nested covariance structure models (Cote & Buckley, 1987; please see Tables 18 and 19) indicated that the majority of variance was explained by trait factors (sample 1: 55.5%; sample 2: 69.1%), rather than the method factor (sample 1: 24.7%; sample 2: 8.0%) or error (sample 1: 19.8%; sample 2: 22.9%).

Figure 8 and Table 20 report the results of hypothesis testing for the hypothesized model without the inclusion of NA and PA. Overall, many of the reported effect sizes in the model increased when NA and PA were removed from the analyses. Most conclusions regarding hypothesis testing did not change for sample 2, but several relationships became statistically significant for sample 1 that were not significant when controlling for NA and PA. This result likely is due to the low sample size of sample 1 not providing enough power to test the hypothesized relationships over and above the moderate-to-strong effects of NA and PA on the relationships examined. Although the hindrance stressors × self-regulation at work interaction effect on vigor is not significant when not controlling for NA and PA, the reported effect size (β = .25, *ns*) is very similar to the reported effect size when controlling for NA and PA (β = .29, $p <$

.01). Thus, power issues may have precluded detection of a significant interaction effect, but the magnitude of the estimated relationship for the effects of hindrance stressors × self-regulation at work interaction on vigor was similar regardless of the inclusion of NA and PA as control variables.

Next, I used the Sobel test to examine the indirect effects of perceptions of hindrance stressors and challenge stressors on somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking through job tension and vigor. Overall, the results indicated that there were only a few significant indirect effects of hindrance and challenge stressors on outcomes in sample 1, whereas most of the indirect effects of hindrance and challenge stressors on outcomes were significant in sample 2 ($Z > 1.96$). Further, the results indicated there was only one significant indirect effect of any interaction on somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, or problem drinking through job tension or vigor in either sample (i.e., challenge stressors × self-regulation at work on psychological well-being at work through vigor in sample 1). Please see Table 21 for a complete list of results.

Finally, I conducted multiple two-group SEM analyses to test for the moderating effects of Veteran status (1 = Veterans; 2 = non-Veterans) on each path in the hypothesized model. The chi-square difference tests between the baseline model (i.e., the fully constrained model; χ^2 [*df*] = 949.76 [468]) and models with a constraint for each path lifted demonstrated that the paths between challenge stressors and job tension ($\Delta\chi^2 = 11.41$), challenge stressors and vigor ($\Delta\chi^2 = 9.67$), and vigor and psychological well-being at work ($\Delta\chi^2 = 4.90$) all were moderated by Veteran status. Specifically, Veterans reported a weaker association between challenge stressors and job tension, a stronger association between challenge stressors and vigor that was in the opposite direction, and a stronger association between vigor and psychological well-being at

work than non-Veterans. Thus, Veteran status moderated the same paths in the model regardless of whether or not NA and PA were included as control variables.

Hypothesis testing with secondary respondent data. I collected data for the dependent variables in the hypothesized model from secondary respondents (n = 53) to help address some concerns regarding CMB (Johnson et al., 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2013). As mentioned in the description of procedures and samples, specifically the description of sample 2, secondary respondents were individuals who knew the primary respondents in some capacity (e.g., 32% were coworkers) and were willing to fill out a brief survey about the primary respondents' stress and strain that was designed similarly to the primary respondents' surveys. Figure 9 and Table 22 report the results of hypothesis testing for the hypothesized model with the secondary data in Sample 2. There were few significant effects, likely due to the low power of the sample (n = 53), but the hindrance stressor × self-regulation at work interaction effect on job tension (β = .59, *ns*) was stronger in these analyses than in the primary analyses, which suggested that self-reports of the hindrance stressor × self-regulation at work interaction effect demonstrated stronger effects on others' reports of job tension than self-reports of job tension.

Hypothesis testing with respondents from Qualtrics's panel services. Next, I examined the results of testing the hypothesized model with Veterans and non-Veterans who responded via the same source of data collection efforts. Specifically, I examined the results when examining the responses of 45 Veterans and 532 non-Veterans who responded via Qualtrics's Panel Services. Figure 10 and Table 23 report the results of hypothesis testing for the hypothesized model with respondents from Qualtrics's Panel Services. I found few significant effects for the sample of Veterans, likely due to the low power of the sample (n = 45). Thus, the results of this analysis are difficult to meaningfully interpret.

Subsample of non-Veterans matched on demographics. Then, I created a subsample of non-Veterans that closely resembled the sample of Veterans in terms of sample size (n = 102) and demographic composition. Although the subsample of non-Veterans may not be completely representative of the overall sample of non-Veterans or the overall population of non-Veterans, especially because males were oversampled, the subsample of non-Veterans provides an interesting sample with similar demographics and power as the non-Veteran sample that enables improved comparisons of results across samples.

Please see Table 24 for the results of independent samples t-tests of study variables across samples. Veterans' and non-Veterans' age ($\mu_{sample\ 1}$ = 49.08, $\mu_{sample\ 2}$ = 48.98, $\Delta\mu$ = .10, t = .06, p = .95), gender ($\mu_{sample\ 1}$ = .15, $\mu_{sample\ 2}$ = .15, $\Delta\mu$ = .00, t = .00, p = 1.00), and organizational tenure ($\mu_{sample\ 1}$ = .114.60, $\mu_{sample\ 2}$ = 115.39, $\Delta\mu$ = .79, t = -.05, p = .96) were very similar across samples. Further, hindrance stressors ($\Delta\mu$ = .55, t = 2.89, p < .01) and job tension ($\Delta\mu$ = .51, t = 2.68, p < .01) were the only variables that demonstrated mean differences across samples. Specifically, Veterans reported significantly higher levels of hindrance stressors and job tension than non-Veterans, which suggests that Veterans and non-Veterans may experience hindrance stressors and job tension differently.

Next, I conducted multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA; Field & Hole, 2003) analyses for Veterans and non-Veterans with age, gender, and organizational tenure included as covariates in the model. The results of the MANOVA demonstrated that Veteran status (i.e., Veterans = 1, non-Veterans = 2) had modest effects on most substantive variables, but had a significant effect on hindrance stressors (η^2 = .08, p < .01) and problem drinking (η^2 = .15, p < .01). Thus, Veterans reported significantly higher levels of hindrance stressors and problem

drinking than non-Veterans, which suggests that Veterans and non-Veterans may experience hindrance stressors and problem drinking differently. Please see Table 25 for a full list of results.

Finally, Figure 11 and Table 26 report the results of hypothesis testing for the hypothesized model with respondents from the full sample of Veterans and subsample of non-Veterans. Overall, the results indicated that several of the effect sizes differed across samples, especially those involving challenge stresses or problem drinking. For example, the effects of challenge stressors on job tension (sample 1: $\beta = .02$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = .37$, $p < .01$) and vigor (sample 1: $\beta = -.22$, $p < .05$; sample 2: $\beta = .27$, $p < .05$) were considerably different across samples, which suggests that Veterans and non-Veterans experience challenge stressors and the components of the stress process associated with challenge stressors differently. Thus, not all differences found between samples were due to differences in power and/or the demographic composition of the samples.

Differences between enlisted and officer veterans. Enlisted and officer Veterans can differ in how resources affect their stress processes (McAllister, Mackey, Hackney, & Perrewé, in press). Thus, I created subsamples of enlisted ($n = 71$) and officers ($n = 31$) from the overall sample of Veterans so I could examine potential differences (enlisted = 0, officers = 1). Please see Table 27 for the full results of independent samples t-tests of study variables across samples. On average, enlisted Veterans reported lower levels of age ($\mu_{enlisted} = 47.00$, $\mu_{officers} = 53.84$, $\Delta\mu = -6.84$, $t = -2.88$, $p < .01$), vigor ($\mu_{enlisted} = 4.52$, $\mu_{officers} = 5.26$, $\Delta\mu = -.74$, $t = -3.51$, $p < .01$), and psychological well-being at work ($\mu_{enlisted} = 4.82$, $\mu_{officers} = 5.72$, $\Delta\mu = .90$, $t = -3.70$, $p < .01$), as well as higher levels of negative affectivity ($\mu_{enlisted} = 1.75$, $\mu_{officers} = 1.47$, $\Delta\mu = .28$, $t = 2.04$, $p < .05$) and problem drinking ($\mu_{enlisted} = 1.87$, $\mu_{officers} = 1.46$, $\Delta\mu = .41$, $t = 2.10$, $p < .05$) than

officers, suggesting that enlisted and officers may experience various parts of the stress process differently.

Figure 12 and Table 28 report the results of hypothesis testing for the hypothesized model with respondents from the subsamples of enlisted and officers. Few effect sizes were significant for the models examining enlisted and officer Veterans' subsamples, likely because of the low sample sizes and relative lack of power to detect significant effects if they existed. Overall, the results were similar across samples except for the effects of hindrance stressors on job tension (sample 1: $\beta = .44$, $p < .05$; sample 2: $\beta = .23$, *ns*), job tension on problem drinking (sample 1: $\beta = .40$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $\beta = .21$, *ns*), and for the interaction effects (none of which were significant). Differences between enlisted and officers should be interpreted cautiously because of the low sample sizes for each of these subsamples, but the results suggested that enlisted and officer Veterans may differ in how they report their perceptions of resources and experienced stress.

Longitudinal reports of study variables for Veterans. Next, I examined hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, job tension, and vigor for Veterans who responded to data collection efforts for Essays 2 and 3 ($n = 38$). Data were collected approximately 10 months apart using identical measures. The results of t-tests demonstrated that there were no significant mean differences for reports of hindrance stressors ($t = -.70$, *ns*; $r = .74$, $p < .01$), challenge stressors ($t = -.30$, *ns*; $r = .62$, $p < .01$), job tension ($t = -.32$, *ns*; $r = .75$, $p < .01$), or vigor ($t = -1.02$, *ns*; $r = .69$, $p < .01$) across time periods. Thus, the respondents' perceptions of hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, job tension, and vigor were relatively stable over 10 month time-span. Please see Table 29 for zero-order correlations, descriptive statistics, and the results of t-tests.

Curvilinear effects. Recent calls for examining nonlinear terms (Grant & Schwartz, 2011; Pierce & Aguinis, 2013) in stress research (Ferris et al., 2006) largely remain unanswered. Thus, I conducted hierarchical moderated multiple regression analyses (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003) to examine the indirect effects of hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and self-regulation at work on somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking.

Six steps were entered into the regression equation. Age, gender, and organizational tenure were entered in step 1. Hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and self-regulation at work were entered in step 2. The hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and self-regulation at work nonlinear terms (i.e., squared terms) were entered in step 3. Then, the interaction terms (i.e., hindrance stressors × self-regulation at work and challenge stressors × self-regulation at work) were entered in step 4. Next, job tension and vigor were entered in step 5. Finally, the job tension and vigor nonlinear terms were entered in step 6.

Please see Table 30 for a complete list of results. The results demonstrated that there were few significant nonlinear effects, with the exceptions of the effects of the nonlinear job tension term on somatic complaints at work (sample 1: $\beta = 1.21$, $p < .05$; sample 2: $\beta = .64$, $p < .01$) and the effects of the nonlinear vigor term on somatic complaints at work (sample 1: $\beta = -.14$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = 1.05$, $p < .01$) and psychological well-being at work (sample 1: $\beta = -.84$, *ns*; sample 2: $\beta = -.38$, $p < .05$).

The positive beta (β) values indicated that job tension and vigor demonstrated U-shaped relationships with somatic complaints at work, such that low and high levels of job tension and vigor were associated with high levels of somatic complaints at work, whereas moderate levels of job tension and vigor were associated with low levels of somatic complaints at work. Also, the

negative beta value for the relationship between vigor and psychological well-being at work indicated an inverted U-shaped relationship, such that low and high levels of vigor were associated with high levels of psychological well-being at work, but that moderate amounts of vigor were associated with low levels of psychological well-being at work. Thus, moderate amounts of job tension and vigor were associated with the lowest levels of somatic complaints at work, and low and high levels of vigor were associated with high levels of psychological well-being at work. Thus, future stress research would benefit from examining the curvilinear effects of health impairment (e.g., job tension) and motivational (e.g., vigor) processes on job strain, health, and well-being, especially within the COR and job demands-resources model frameworks.

Hypothesis testing with self-regulation at work as an antecedent. Finally, I tested an alternative model built upon the same theoretical tenants (i.e., COR theory) as the hypothesized model that examined the extent to which self-regulation at work was associated with the motivational process rather than a moderator of the relationships between hindrance stressors and challenge stressors on the health impairment (i.e., job tension) and motivational (i.e., vigor) processes. In this model, self-regulation at work is conceptualized as an individual difference variable that can act as a personal characteristic type of resource. Individual differences (i.e., personal characteristic resources) often are conceptualized as initiators of the motivational component of the stress process within the COR theory and the job demands-resources model. The alternative model is consistent with the model tested in Essay 2 of my dissertation, the tenants of the COR theory, and meta-analytic evidence (Crawford et al., 2010) that demonstrates that resources can be associated with motivational processes within the overall stress process.

The fit indices for the structural model demonstrated acceptable values and indicated that the data fit the model well across both samples (sample 1: χ^2 [282] = 403.041, CFI = .943, TLI = .929, RMSEA = .065, and SRMR = .065; sample 2: χ^2 [282] = 717.055, CFI = .958, TLI = .948, RMSEA = .054, and SRMR = .048). As expected, self-regulation at work was associated with vigor (i.e., motivational process; sample 1: $\beta = .56$, $p < .01$; sample 2: $\beta = .45$, $p < .01$) across both samples. Overall, most direct effects for hypothesized relationships were significant, especially for sample 2, which had more power than sample 1 to detect relationships if they existed. Thus, future research examining the role of self-regulation at work in the job stress process would benefit from examining its association with the motivational process component of the overall stress process (i.e., examine self-regulation at work as an independent variable rather than a moderator). Please see Figure 13 and Table 31 for the full results of this analysis.

Discussion

It was hypothesized that perceptions of hindrance and challenge stressors would have indirect effects on somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking through job tension and vigor, conditional upon individuals' levels of self-regulation at work. The results across samples of Veterans and non-Veterans offered some support for the direct effects hypothesized, but offered little support for the conditional indirect effects hypothesized. The results of supplementary results revealed that the inclusion of NA and PA in the model generally did not alter conclusions, but considerably altered the estimated effect sizes of the hypothesized relationships in some cases.

Although self-regulation at work generally did not moderate the relationships between stressors (i.e., hindrance and challenge stressors) and job tension or vigor, the results of the supplementary analyses revealed that self-regulation at work was strongly associated with vigor

(i.e., the motivational component of the stress process). Thus, self-regulation at work likely is more appropriately conceptualized as an antecedent of the health impairment (i.e., job tension) and motivational (i.e., vigor) processes within the overall stress process than as a boundary condition that modifies the direction and/or magnitude of the effects of hindrance and challenge stressors on the health impairment and motivational components of the stress process. Meta-analytic evidence (Crawford et al., 2010) suggests that resources (e.g., self-regulation at work) are antecedents to the motivational component of the stress process, rather than moderators of the effects of stressors on the health impairment and motivational components of the stress process.

Further, the results of primary and supplementary analyses revealed that Veterans and non-Veterans reported similar stress processes, but that individual components of the stress process varied in some cases (e.g., hindrance stressors, job tension). This research contributes to stress research by demonstrating that even when sub-groups of employees (e.g., Veterans, retirees who return to work, former homemakers) report experiencing the stress process similarly, they may vary in how they report experiencing the magnitude or intensity of the individual components of the job stress process. More research is needed to examine if, how, and to what extent sub-groups of employees differ in how they experience job stress.

Contributions to Theory and Research

Overall, this study makes at least two key contributions to stress research. First, this study empirically measures self-regulation at work in a field setting within a job stress framework and explores the potential role self-regulation at work may play as a resource for employees during their stress processes. Although self-regulation at work may not have a strong association with the direction and/or magnitude of relationships between stressors and strain in the present study,

it may play an important role in how resources are procured, protected, and utilized with regards to the motivational component of the stress process.

Second, this study extends the limited research examining if, how, and to what extent different sub-groups of employees (i.e., Veterans, non-Veterans) experience the stress process differently. Ultimately, I found that the hypothesized model operated very similarly across samples with regards to theoretical predictions, but that Veterans and non-Veterans differed in their mean reports for some of the variables included in the examined model. Thus, this research illustrates the importance of considering sub-groups of employees' shared experiences outside the workplace and the role these shared experiences may play in influencing how sub-groups of employees evaluate and use their resources during the job stress process.

Strengths and Limitations

This study had several strengths. First, the two-sample constructive replication study design was a strength of this study because I was able to examine the hypothesized model across multiple samples. Further, the respondents in both samples represented two distinct groups of employees (i.e., Veterans and non-Veterans), which helped facilitate comparisons between sub-groups of employees with similar shared experiences prior to their current employment. Further, Veterans are an important sub-group of employees to examine because civilian organizations can benefit from tax credits if they are able to hire and gainfully employ some of the millions of Veterans currently seeking work (Stone & Stone, 2015). Also, the time-separated nature of the data and procedural remedies used to address CMB concerns (i.e., various number of anchor scale point numbers, various response formats among constructs, respondents' anonymity, quality check items; Desimone et al., in press; Johnson et al., 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012, 2013) are important strengths of this study, despite the data being self-reported.

The main limitations of this study result from the nature of the data collected for sample 1. First, sample 1 likely lacked adequate power to detect relationships if they existed, according to Reinartz et al.'s (2009) recommendations. Next, Veterans were recruited from various sources, which presented concerns about generalizability and representativeness when creating an overall data set with Veterans' responses. Although independent samples t-tests demonstrated that Veterans' mean scores for most variables were not significantly different across sampling sources, concerns remain over the inclusion of multiple sources of sampling and different compensation for Veterans by source.

Further, sample 1 included responses from Veterans of the Air Force (14.7%), Army (55.9%), Coast Guard (2.9%), Marines (8.8%), and Navy (17.6%), but may not be representative of the overall sample of Veterans working in civilian organizations. The issue of representativeness of the sample may become problematic when trying to compare Veterans' overall results with non-Veterans' results. Also, the Veterans included in sample 1 reported an average of 17.0 years of separation from service, suggesting that the majority of the Veterans included in the sample likely had ample time to assimilate into the civilian workforce. Veterans who are transitioning from working in the military to working in civilian jobs may experience the overall stress process differently than Veterans who have had ample time to assimilate into the civilian workforce.

Next, measurement invariance tests (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998) revealed that respondents across the samples of Veterans and non-Veterans likely had systematic differences in how they responded to the surveys used in this study despite the surveys being identical, with the exception of Veterans' demographic items at the end of the surveys designed for Veterans. Also, independent samples t-tests used to test nonrespondent bias (Schwab, 1999) indicated that

nonrespondent bias likely did not pose a threat to the validity of the results obtained from sample 1, but may have affected the validity of results obtained from sample 2. Thus, the results of this study should be interpreted cautiously.

Finally, I did not measure actual or perceived losses and gains in resources over time, as recommended by the COR theory. However, I was able to utilize the essential theoretical premises of COR theory to develop the hypothesized model. The COR theory is a motivational, goal-directed theory of job stress that incorporates the role of resources into how employees perceive and respond to stressors. Regardless, future research would benefit from examining the actual or perceived loss of self-regulatory abilities at work over time.

Directions for Future Research

Much research is still needed to understand the role of how Veterans' characteristics, Veterans' coworkers' characteristics, the nature of Veterans' jobs in civilian organizations, Veterans' perceptions of the transferability of their military skills to their civilian jobs, and Veterans' perceptions of differences between their military and civilian working environments differ affect civilian organizations' abilities to successfully hire and gainfully employ Veterans (Stone & Stone, 2015). The results of this study could be extended by incorporating various resources into models of workplace stress that address Veterans' perceptions and use of resources. Further, future research could examine how unemployed Veterans' prior and current stress experiences affect their job search processes and early stress processes as they secure and begin employment in civilian organizations. The Veterans who participated in this study had been separated from service for an average of approximately 17.0 years and likely already had adapted to civilian life, so this study provides important information about transitioned Veterans' stress experiences in the civilian workplace, but future research would benefit from examining

the stress processes of Veterans who are organizational newcomers or are still unemployed but seeking work.

Also, future research could benefit from examining actual and perceived gains and losses of these resources over time, especially when preparing stress and transitional interventions (Richardson & Rothstein, 2008) for Veterans. There is a great deal of heterogeneity of Veterans' experiences in terms of branch of service, time spent in the military, time spent in combat zones while in the military, occupation during military service, geographic location during military service, and length of time separated from service. Thus, future research could examine how reintegration experiences and transition programs designed for Veterans affect their evaluation of their military experiences (e.g., Edge & Ivey, 2012; Williams, Hagerty, Brasington, Clem, & Williams, 2010) and the extent to which military experiences are associated with personal and organizational outcomes in civilian organizations (e.g., Currie, Day, & Kelloway, 2011; Vinokur, Pierce, Lewandowski-Romps, Hobfoll, & Galea, 2011).

For example, Gati, Ryzhik, and Vertsberger (2013) found that a five-day workshop on transitioning to civilian life was able to reduce Veterans' career decision-making difficulties and increase Veterans' levels of career decision self-efficacy. Future research could benefit from examining how similar workshops could help Veterans and other subpopulations of employees (e.g., retirees who return to work, former homemakers) build and value their resources (e.g., self-regulation at work).

Also, the results of some of the supplementary analyses revealed that Veterans who were enlisted may differ from former officers in their reports of stress and strain variables (i.e., negative affectivity, vigor, psychological well-being at work, problem drinking) and the magnitudes of the associations between stress and strain variables (i.e., as demonstrated by the

effect sizes for the hypothesized relationships). Thus, future research could explore differences between Veterans who were enlisted versus officers, as well as how these differences influence the stress process. Research has started to explore some of these differences (e.g., McAllister et al., in press), but there is still much work to be done in this area.

The hypothesized model in this study examined the indirect effects of hindrance and challenge stressors on job strain, workplace well-being, and general health. Future research could benefit from examining the indirect effects of hindrance and challenge stressors on various types of job performance (e.g., counterproductive work behavior, creativity, helping, task performance, voice; Zhang, LePine, Buckman, & Wei, 2014) in the context of self-regulation. Meta-analytic evidence demonstrates that self-control has considerable effects on several behavioral domains (e.g., school and work, well-being and adjustment; de Ridder, Lensvelt-Mulders, Finkenauer, Stok, & Baumeister, 2012), but little is known about how self-control and self-regulation are associated with stress in the workplace. This study is an important initial attempt at examining self-regulation at work in the context of job stress, but more research is needed.

Practical Implications

The primary practical implication of this study is that sub-groups of employees with shared experiences prior to employment (e.g., Veterans, former homemakers, retirees returning to work) may experience similar stress processes in organizations, but that some sub-groups of employees may experience the magnitude of the components of the stress process differently. Specifically, there may be mean differences for how sub-groups of employees report experiencing various stress and strain variables. Thus, organizations could benefit from structuring their stress management and intervention programs (Richardson & Rothstein, 2008) in a manner that addresses potential differences between sub-groups of their employees. For

example, organizations that intend to hire large sub-groups of employees with shared experiences may benefit from offering supplementary stress management and intervention programs for these groups.

During the recruitment and selection processes, organizations would benefit from considering that enlisted Veterans and officers may be subsets of Veterans that experience workplace stress differently. This study found that enlisted Veterans reported significantly higher mean levels of negative affectivity and problem drinking than officers, as well as significantly lower vigor and psychological well-being at work than officers. Overall, the response patterns and mean reports for variables for officers were much more similar to the response patterns and mean reports for variables of non-Veterans than enlisted Veterans' response patterns and mean reports for variables. Thus, organizations that want to hire Veterans but are not equipped or are unwilling to consider Veteran status during stress management and intervention programs would benefit from hiring officers rather than enlisted Veterans.

Finally, successfully hiring and gainfully employing Veterans is an important corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiative (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012) that can build organizations' reputational capital (Petrick, Scherer, Brodzinski, Quinn, & Ainina, 1999) and help organizations benefit society (Porter & Kramer, 2006). The benefits of supporting CSR initiatives can send positive signals about organizations' socioeconomic and moral status to stakeholders (Petrick et al., 1999). Many organizations have already embarked on supporting Veterans' CSR initiatives by pledging to hire Veterans in upcoming years (e.g., 100,000 Jobs Mission; http://www.100000jobsmission.com/). Thus, organizations can benefit from Veterans' skills and education (Beauchesne, 2012), local, state, and/or federal tax credits available (Stone & Stone, 2015), and by building reputational capital through engaging in CSR initiatives (Aguinis &

Glavas, 2012) that support hiring from a large and underutilized pool of former service members seeking employment in civilian organizations.

Conclusion

This study examined the role of self-regulation at work in the job stress process and examined if, how, and to what extent Veterans and non-Veterans differed in their reports of self-regulation at work and their experienced stress. Self-regulation at work was conceptualized as a personal characteristic type of resource that could alter the direction and/or magnitude of how employees' perceptions of hindrance and challenge stressors indirectly affected their somatic complaints at work, psychological well-being at work, and problem drinking through job tension and vigor. Although the hypothesized model was only partially supported, the secondary analyses revealed that self-regulation at work may be associated with the motivational process captured by vigor. Thus, self-regulation at work may be more appropriately conceptualized as an individual difference antecedent of job tension and vigor rather than a moderator of the relationships between stressors (i.e., hindrance and challenge stressors) and job tension and vigor.

The results of this study provided initial evidence that sub-groups of employees with shared experiences prior to current employment (e.g., Veterans, retirees who return to work, former homemakers) may differ with regards to how they report mean levels of stress variables, but that the overall job stress process likely remains similar across sub-groups. I encourage organizations to try to hire and gainfully employ Veterans so they can benefit from Veterans' skills, tax credits available, and reputational capital derived from engaging in CSR initiatives that support former service members. Finally, I encourage researchers to continue to explore the stress processes of Veterans and other sub-groups of employees in the future.

Table 7
Characteristics of Respondents for Veterans Samples

	Veterans (Overall) *n* = 102		Veterans (Qualtrics) *n* = 45		Veterans (Essay 2) *n* = 39		Veterans (MTurk) *n* = 18	
	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses
Age								
18-19	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
20-29	8	7.84%	2	4.44%	1	2.56%	5	27.78%
30-39	14	13.73%	4	8.89%	5	12.82%	5	27.78%
40-49	19	18.63%	5	11.11%	11	28.21%	3	16.67%
50-59	47	46.08%	29	64.44%	14	35.90%	4	22.22%
60-69	12	11.76%	5	11.11%	6	15.38%	1	5.56%
70-79	2	1.96%	0	0.00%	2	5.13%	0	0.00%
Gender								
Male	87	85.29%	37	82.22%	35	89.74%	15	83.33%
Female	15	14.71%	8	17.78%	4	10.26%	3	16.67%
Organizational Tenure								
0-5 years	52	50.98%	15	33.33%	25	64.10%	12	66.67%
6-10 years	19	18.63%	11	24.44%	4	10.26%	4	22.22%
11-15 years	10	9.80%	4	8.89%	4	10.26%	2	11.11%
16-20 years	8	7.84%	6	13.33%	2	5.13%	0	0.00%
> 20 years	13	12.75%	9	20.00%	4	10.26%	0	0.00%
Hours Worked Per Week								
20-29	4	3.92%	1	2.22%	1	2.56%	2	11.11%
30-39	4	3.92%	3	6.67%	0	0.00%	1	5.56%
40-49	77	75.49%	37	82.22%	27	69.23%	13	72.22%
50-59	10	9.80%	3	6.67%	6	15.38%	1	5.56%
60-69	5	4.90%	1	2.22%	3	7.69%	1	5.56%
70-79	1	0.98%	0	0.00%	1	2.56%	0	0.00%
80-89	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
90-100	1	0.98%	0	0.00%	1	2.56%	0	0.00%

Table 7 (Continued)

	Veterans (Overall) *n* = 102		Veterans (Qualtrics) *n* = 45		Veterans (Essay 2) *n* = 39		Veterans (MTurk) *n* = 18	
	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses
Part-Time/Full-Time								
Part-Time	7	6.86%	1	2.22%	4	10.26%	2	11.11%
Full-Time	95	93.14%	44	97.78%	35	89.74%	16	88.89%
Primary Job Function								
Accounting/Finance	4	3.92%	0	0.00%	1	2.56%	3	16.67%
Administration	7	6.86%	4	8.89%	0	0.00%	3	16.67%
Advertising/Marketing	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Human Resources	3	2.94%	2	4.44%	1	2.56%	0	0.00%
Management	23	22.55%	6	13.33%	14	35.90%	3	16.67%
Research & Development	2	1.96%	1	2.22%	0	0.00%	1	5.56%
Sales	4	3.92%	1	2.22%	3	7.69%	0	0.00%
Transportation/Logistics	11	10.78%	5	11.11%	4	10.26%	2	11.11%
Other	48	47.06%	26	57.78%	16	41.03%	6	33.33%
Approximate Level in Organization								
Top Management	6	5.88%	2	4.44%	4	10.26%	0	0.00%
Upper Management	6	5.88%	3	6.67%	3	7.69%	0	0.00%
Middle Management	27	26.47%	7	15.56%	13	33.33%	7	38.89%
Staff/Associate Level	39	38.24%	19	42.22%	10	25.64%	10	55.56%
Entry Level	5	4.90%	4	8.89%	1	2.56%	0	0.00%
Professional (Accountant, Lawyer, Doctor, etc.)	7	6.86%	2	4.44%	4	10.26%	1	5.56%
Other	12	11.76%	8	17.78%	4	10.26%	0	0.00%

Table 7 (Continued)

	Veterans (Overall) *n* = 102		Veterans (Qualtrics) *n* = 45		Veterans (Essay 2) *n* = 39		Veterans (MTurk) *n* = 18	
	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses
Highest Level of Education								
Some High School	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
High School	8	7.84%	7	15.56%	0	0.00%	1	5.56%
Some College	24	23.53%	14	31.11%	6	15.38%	4	22.22%
Associate's Degree	16	15.69%	8	17.78%	5	12.82%	3	16.67%
Bachelor's Degree	33	32.35%	8	17.78%	16	41.03%	9	50.00%
Master's Degree	18	17.65%	5	11.11%	12	30.77%	1	5.56%
Doctoral Degree	3	2.94%	3	6.67%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Industry								
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting, and Mining	2	1.96%	1	2.22%	1	2.56%	0	0.00%
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation, Accommodation, and Food Services	2	1.96%	1	2.22%	1	2.56%	0	0.00%
Construction	6	5.88%	3	6.67%	2	5.13%	1	5.56%
Educational, Health, and Social Services	11	10.78%	6	13.33%	4	10.26%	1	5.56%
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate, and Rental and Leasing	6	5.88%	0	0.00%	2	5.13%	4	22.22%
Information	3	2.94%	2	4.44%	1	2.56%	0	0.00%
Manufacturing	11	10.78%	4	8.89%	6	15.38%	1	5.56%
Professional, Scientific, Management, Administrative, and Waste Management Services	11	10.78%	4	8.89%	4	10.26%	3	16.67%
Public Administration	7	6.86%	1	2.22%	4	10.26%	2	11.11%

Table 7 (Continued)

	Veterans (Overall) *n* = 102		Veterans (Qualtrics) *n* = 45		Veterans (Essay 2) *n* = 39		Veterans (MTurk) *n* = 18	
	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses
Industry (Continued)								
Public Administration	7	6.86%	1	2.22%	4	10.26%	2	11.11%
Retail Trade	6	5.88%	4	8.89%	2	5.13%	0	0.00%
Transportation, Warehousing, and Utilities	9	8.82%	3	6.67%	4	10.26%	2	11.11%
Wholesale Trade	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Other	28	27.45%	16	35.56%	8	20.51%	4	22.22%

Table 8

Results of T-Tests for Mean Differences between Sources of Veterans Respondents

	Veterans (Overall) n = 102	Veterans (Qualtrics) n = 45	Veterans (Essay 2) n = 39	Veterans (MTurk) n = 18	T-Statistic for Qualtrics and Essay 2 Samples	T-Statistic for Qualtrics and Mturk Samples	T-Statistic for Essay 2 and Mturk Samples
Age	49.08	51.53	50.51	39.83	.46	3.50	3.16
Gender	.15	.18	.10	.17	.99	.10	-.68
Organizational Tenure	114.60	151.29	95.87	63.44	2.01	4.26	1.35
Negative Affectivity	1.66	1.66	1.65	1.69	.01	-.17	-.21
Positive Affectivity	3.09	2.89	3.31	3.08	-1.67	-.61	.75
Hindrance Stressors	4.21	4.03	4.43	4.18	-1.30	-.37	.68
Challenge Stressors	4.85	5.05	4.47	5.19	1.73	-.38	-1.79
Self-Regulation at Work	5.44	5.57	5.42	5.18	.67	1.40	.84
Job Tension	3.84	3.71	4.01	3.79	-1.08	-.23	.58
Vigor	4.74	4.57	5.09	4.43	-2.26	.51	2.40
Somatic Complaints at Work	1.70	1.68	1.70	1.74	-.10	-.21	-.12
Psychological Well-Being at Work	5.09	4.84	5.45	4.93	-1.97	-.22	1.41
Problem Drinking	1.75	1.71	1.60	2.15	.40	-1.24	-1.85

Notes: Means were calculated using all of the items for each measure, not parcels. T-statistics greater than 1.96 are statistically significant ($\alpha = .05$). Statistical tests were based on two-tailed tests.

Table 9
Characteristics of Respondents across Samples

	Sample 1 (Veterans; *n* = 102)		Sample 2 (Non-Veterans; *n* = 532)	
	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses
Age				
18-19	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
20-29	8	7.84%	43	8.08%
30-39	14	13.73%	91	17.11%
40-49	19	18.63%	132	24.81%
50-59	47	46.08%	200	37.59%
60-69	12	11.76%	65	12.22%
70-79	2	1.96%	1	0.19%
Gender				
Male	87	85.29%	212	39.85%
Female	15	14.71%	320	60.15%
Organizational Tenure				
0-5 years	52	50.98%	180	33.83%
6-10 years	19	18.63%	127	23.87%
11-15 years	10	9.80%	82	15.41%
16-20 years	8	7.84%	59	11.09%
> 20 years	13	12.75%	84	15.79%
Hours Worked Per Week				
20-29	4	3.92%	14	2.63%
30-39	4	3.92%	92	17.29%
40-49	77	75.49%	369	69.36%
50-59	10	9.80%	37	6.95%
60-69	5	4.90%	12	2.26%
70-79	1	0.98%	6	1.13%
80-89	0	0.00%	1	0.19%
90-100	1	0.98%	1	0.19%
Part-Time/Full-Time				
Part-Time	7	6.86%	24	4.51%
Full-Time	95	93.14%	508	95.49%

Table 9 (Continued)

	Sample 1 (Veterans; *n* = 102)		Sample 2 (Non-Veterans; *n* = 532)	
	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses
Primary Job Function				
Accounting/Finance	4	3.92%	44	8.27%
Administration	7	6.86%	75	14.10%
Advertising/Marketing	0	0.00%	2	0.38%
Human Resources	3	2.94%	15	2.82%
Management	23	22.55%	75	14.10%
Research & Development	2	1.96%	15	2.82%
Sales	4	3.92%	46	8.65%
Transportation/Logistics	11	10.78%	19	3.57%
Other	48	47.06%	241	45.30%
Approximate Level in Organization				
Top Management	6	5.88%	23	4.32%
Upper Management	6	5.88%	36	6.77%
Middle Management	27	26.47%	112	21.05%
Staff/Associate Level	39	38.24%	230	43.23%
Entry Level	5	4.90%	38	7.14%
Professional (Accountant, Lawyer, Doctor, etc.)	7	6.86%	50	9.40%
Other	12	11.76%	43	8.08%
Highest Level of Education				
Some High School	0	0.00%	1	0.19%
High School	8	7.84%	85	15.98%
Some College	24	23.53%	109	20.49%
Associate's Degree	16	15.69%	79	14.85%
Bachelor's Degree	33	32.35%	164	30.83%
Master's Degree	18	17.65%	86	16.17%
Doctoral Degree	3	2.94%	8	1.50%

Table 9 (Continued)

	Sample 1 (Veterans; *n* = 102)		Sample 2 (Non-Veterans; *n* = 532)	
	Number of Responses	% of Responses	Number of Responses	% of Responses
Industry				
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting, and Mining	2	1.96%	3	0.56%
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation, Accommodation, and Food Services	2	1.96%	18	3.38%
Construction	6	5.88%	15	2.82%
Educational, Health, and Social Services	11	10.78%	109	20.49%
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate, and Rental and Leasing	6	5.88%	43	8.08%
Information	3	2.94%	24	4.51%
Manufacturing	11	10.78%	52	9.77%
Professional, Scientific, Management, Administrative, and Waste Management Services	11	10.78%	45	8.46%
Public Administration	7	6.86%	23	4.32%
Retail Trade	6	5.88%	64	12.03%
Transportation, Warehousing, and Utilities	9	8.82%	22	4.14%
Wholesale Trade	0	0.00%	19	3.57%
Other	28	27.45%	95	17.86%

Table 10

Measures, Standardized Item Loadings, and Composite Reliabilities

Construct	Measure	Sample 1 (Veterans)	Sample 2 (Non-Veterans)
Hindrance Stressors	Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree that each of the demands below contributes to your stress at work. (1 = "Strongly disagree," 7 = "Strongly agree")	(.781)	(.817)
	Parcel 1	0.75	0.644
	The degree to which my career seems "stalled."		
	Parcel 2	0.78	0.878
	The lack of job security I have.		
	The amount of red tape I need to go through to get my job done.		
	Parcel 3	0.678	0.787
	The degree to which politics rather than performance affects organizational decisions.		
	The inability to clearly understand what is expected of me on the job.		
Challenge Stressors	Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree that each of the demands below contributes to your stress at work. (1 = "Strongly disagree," 7 = "Strongly agree")	(.948)	(.944)
	Parcel 1	0.842	0.837
	The number of projects and/or assignments I have.		
	The amount of time I spend at work.		
	Parcel 2	0.974	0.978
	The volume of work that must be accomplished in the allotted time.		
	The scope of responsibility my position entails.		
	Parcel 3	0.959	0.943
	The amount of responsibility I have.		
	Time pressures I experience.		

Table 10 (Continued)

Construct	Measure	Sample 1 (Veterans)	Sample 2 (Non-Veterans)
Self-Regulation at Work	Please indicate how often you have felt this way about your work by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Not at all like me," 7 = "Exactly like me")	(.888)	(.913)
	Parcel 1	0.798	0.875
	I have self-discipline at work.		
	I refuse things that are bad for me at work.		
	I am able to work effectively toward long-term goals at work.		
	I can stop myself from doing something at work, if I know it is wrong.		
	I often act after thinking through all the alternatives at work.		
	Parcel 2	0.889	0.882
	People would say that I have iron self-discipline at work.		
	I do not have a hard time breaking bad habits at work.		
	I do not have trouble concentrating at work.		
	I do not say inappropriate things at work.		
	Parcel 3	0.866	0.89
	I am good at resisting temptation at work.		
	I am not lazy at work.		
	Pleasure and fun do not keep me from getting work done at work.		
	I do not do certain things that are bad for me at work, even if they are fun.		

Table 10 (Continued)

Construct	Measure	Sample 1 (Veterans)	Sample 2 (Non-Veterans)
Job Tension	Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Strongly disagree," 7 = "Strongly agree")	(.841)	(.891)
	Parcel 1	0.875	0.881
	Problems associated with my job have kept me awake at night.		
	If I had a different job, my health would probably improve.		
	My job tends to directly affect my health.		
	Parcel 2	0.726	0.869
	I work under a great deal of tension.		
	I often "take my job home with me" in the sense that I think about it when doing other things.		
	Parcel 3	0.79	0.816
	I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.		
	I have felt nervous before attending meetings in my company.		
Vigor	Please indicate how often you have felt this way about your work by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Never," 7 = "Always")	(.916)	(.918)
	Parcel 1	0.868	0.894
	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.		
	At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well.		
	Parcel 2	0.882	0.87
	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.		
	I can continue working for very long periods of time.		
	Parcel 3	0.908	0.899
	At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.		
	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.		

Table 10 (Continued)

Construct	Measure	Sample 1 (Veterans)	Sample 2 (Non-Veterans)
Somatic Complaints at Work	Please indicate the frequency with which you experience each of the following statements at work by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Never," 7 = "Always")	(.964)	(.928)
	Parcel 1	0.942	0.909
	I felt shaky or I had shivers at work.		
	I felt dizzy or lightheaded at work.		
	I was short of breath with minimal exertion at work.		
	Parcel 2	0.946	0.909
	I was shaking or trembling at work.		
	I felt chest pain (or pressure) at work.		
	Parcel 3	0.956	0.882
	I felt palpitations at work.		
	I felt a tingling, for example in my hands at work.		
Psychological Well-Being at Work	Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Strongly disagree," 7 = "Strongly agree")	(.947)	(.915)
	Parcel 1	0.942	0.896
	I have been fresh and rested at work.		
	Parcel 2	0.9	0.869
	I have a lot of energy at work.		
	I have been interested in things at work.		
	Parcel 3	0.935	0.886
	I have been calm and peaceful at work.		
	I have been a happy person at work.		

Table 10 (Continued)

Construct	Measure	Sample 1 (Veterans)	Sample 2 (Non-Veterans)
Problem Drinking	Please indicate the frequency with which you experience each of the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice. (1 = "Never," 7 = "Always")	(.911)	(.899)
	Parcel 1	0.979	0.927
	Have you ever felt bad or guilty about your drinking?		
	Parcel 2	0.829	0.883
	Have you ever felt you ought to cut down on your drinking?		
	Parcel 3	0.822	0.779
	Have people annoyed you by criticizing your drinking?		
	Have you ever had a drink first thing in the morning to steady your nerves or get rid of a hangover?		
Negative Affectivity			
	Please read each item and then mark the appropriate answer. Indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past week. (1 = "Very Slightly or Not at All," 5 = "Extremely")	(.819)	(.864)
	Parcel 1	0.939	0.892
	Distressed.		
	Parcel 2	0.791	0.885
	Upset.		
	Parcel 3	0.57	0.684
	Afraid.		
	Jittery.		

Table 10 (Continued)

Construct	Measure	Sample 1 (Veterans)	Sample 2 (Non-Veterans)
Positive Affectivity	Please read each item and then mark the appropriate answer. Indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past week. (1 = "Very Slightly or Not at All," 5 = "Extremely")	(.911)	(.911)
	Parcel 1	0.944	0.915
	Excited.		
	Parcel 2	0.906	0.899
	Inspired.		
	Parcel 3	0.78	0.821
	Strong.		
	Active		
CFA Model Goodness-of-Fit Indices (Sample 1: Veterans/Sample 2: Non-Veterans)			
$\chi 2$ = 286.717 (224 *df*) / 582.865 (224 df)			
CFI = .969 / .965			
TLI = .962 / .957			
RMSEA = .053 / .055			
SRMR = .057 / .042			

Notes: CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean residual. The CFA model goodness-of-fit indices include all substantive study variables (i.e., the CFA results exclude negative affectivity and positive affectivity). Sample 1 (Veterans; *N* = 102) results/sample 2 (non-Veterans; *N* = 532) results. Standardized item loadings for both samples are presented in columns. Construct reliabilities are presented in parentheses.

Table 11

Zero-Order Correlations and Descriptive Statistics among Study Variables in Samples 1 and 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Age	-	-.04	.40**	-.11*	-.06	.00	-.05	.11**	-.05	.06	-.02	-.01	-.12**
2. Gender	-.06	-	-.13**	.08	-.01	-.04	-.03	.02	.07	-.01	.08	.00	-.10*
3. Organizational Tenure	.35**	-.08	-	-.06	.00	-.01	.09*	.04	.05	.01	.02	-.06	-.03
4. Negative Affectivity	-.18	-.03	-.07	-	-.33**	.30**	.26**	-.20**	.59**	-.35**	.57**	.49**	.17**
5. Positive Affectivity	.07	-.11	-.14	-.37**	-	-.22**	-.03	.40**	-.31**	.73**	-.23**	.68**	.07
6. Hindrance Stressors	-.22*	-.17	-.10	.25*	-.18	-	.45**	-.12**	.44**	-.28**	.27**	-.30**	.14**
7. Challenge Stressors	-.11	-.04	-.02	.05	-.19	.33**	-	-.01	.48**	-.08	.20**	-.18**	.11*
8. Self-Regulation at Work	.24*	.02	.07	-.15	.38**	-.11	-.14	-	-.16**	.43**	-.15**	.42**	-.07
9. Job Tension	-.13	.07	-.02	.61**	-.36**	.31**	.18	-.09	-	-.33**	.51**	-.48**	.15**
10. Vigor	.24*	-.03	-.04	-.20*	.59**	-.37**	-.37**	.49**	-.29**	-	-.26**	.76**	.02
11. Somatic Complaints at Work	-.04	.03	-.01	.71**	-.20*	.16	.06	-.13	.47**	-.17	-	-.36**	.33**
12. Psychological Well-Being at Work	.16	.01	-.10	-.36**	.62**	-.27**	-.31**	.55**	-.31**	.77**	-.23*	-	.00
13. Problem Drinking	-.41**	-.01	-.13	.32**	-.14	-.06	.14	-.14	.28**	-.03	.45**	-.12	-
Sample 1 - Mean (μ)	49.08	.15	114.60	1.66	3.09	4.21	4.85	5.44	3.84	4.74	1.70	5.09	1.75
Sample 1 - *SD* (σ)	11.44	.36	120.17	.75	1.12	1.38	1.47	1.00	1.31	1.04	1.07	1.41	1.19
Sample 1 – Cronbach's Alpha (α)	-	-	-	.81	.92	.75	.93	.89	.87	.88	.95	.94	.89
Sample 1 - Construct Reliability	-	-	-	.82	.91	.78	.95	.89	.84	.92	.96	.95	.91
Sample 1 – AVE	-	-	-	.61	.77	.54	.86	.73	.64	.79	.90	.86	.77
Sample 2 - Mean (μ)	47.63	.60	143.07	1.61	3.14	3.58	4.61	5.49	3.44	4.66	1.52	5.27	1.38
Sample 2 - *SD* (σ)	11.01	.49	120.66	.74	1.06	1.43	1.48	1.05	1.47	1.01	.78	1.18	.87
Sample 2 – Cronbach's Alpha (α)	-	-	-	.86	.92	.81	.93	.92	.91	.88	.91	.93	.89
Sample 2 - Construct Reliability	-	-	-	.86	.91	.82	.94	.91	.89	.92	.93	.91	.90
Sample 2 - AVE	-	-	-	.68	.77	.60	.85	.78	.73	.79	.81	.78	.75

Notes: Correlations for sample 1 (Veterans; $N = 102$) shown below the diagonal. Correlations for sample 2 (non-Veterans; $N = 532$) shown above the diagonal. Means (μ), standard deviations (SD; σ), Cronbach's alphas (α), and zero-order correlations were calculated using all of the individual items in each measure. Construct reliabilities, and AVE (average variance extracted) values were calculated using parcels. Gender: male = 0, female = 1. Organizational tenure was measured in months. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 12
Assessment of Common Method Bias for Sample 1 (Veterans; *n* = 102)

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
M1: Null model	3113.218	435	.000	n/a	n/a	n/a
M2: Trait only model	587.375	360	.000	.915	.897	.079
M3: Method only model	2185.702	405	.000	.335	.286	.209
M4: Trait and method model	487.169	330	.000	.941	.923	.069

Model Comparison	χ^2	Δ*df*	*p*	Conclusion
Testing for the presence of trait factors				
M1-M2	2525.843	75	<.01	M1>M2
M3-M4	1698.533	75	<.01	M3>M4
Testing for the presence of a method factor				
M1-M3	927.516	30	<.01	M1>M3
M2-M4	100.206	30	<.01	M2>M4

Notes: CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

Table 13
Assessment of Common Method Bias for Sample 2 (Non-Veterans; n = 532)

Model	χ^2	df	p	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
M1: Null model	13581.840	435	.000	n/a	n/a	n/a
M2: Trait only model	941.801	360	.000	.956	.947	.055
M3: Method only model	8632.034	405	.000	.374	.328	.196
M4: Trait and method model	723.570	330	.000	.970	.961	.047

Model Comparison	χ^2	Δdf	p	Conclusion
Testing for the presence of trait factors				
M1-M2	12640.040	75	<.01	M1>M2
M3-M4	7908.464	75	<.01	M3>M4
Testing for the presence of a method factor				
M1-M3	4949.805	30	<.01	M1>M3
M2-M4	218.231	30	<.01	M2>M4

Notes: CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

Table 14

Results of Testing Alternative CFA Models

Model #	Model Description	# of Factors	*N*	χ2	*df*	Δχ2	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Sample 1 (Veterans)										
1	Single Factor	1	102	2185.702	405	1598.327	.335	.286	.209	.187
2	NA/PA Combined	9	102	752.164	369	164.789	.857	.831	.101	.113
3	Stressors Combined	9	102	683.598	369	96.223	.883	.862	.092	.094
4	Mediators Combined	9	102	753.914	369	166.539	.856	.831	.102	.114
5	Outcomes Combined	8	102	1171.793	377	584.418	.703	.658	.144	.173
6	Full Model w/o NA & PA	8	102	286.717	224	-300.658	.969	.962	.053	.057
7	Full Model	10	102	587.375	360	-	.915	.897	.079	.068
Sample 2 (Non-Veterans)										
1	Single Factor	1	532	8632.034	405	7690.233	.374	.328	.196	.175
2	NA/PA Combined	9	532	1863.170	369	921.369	.886	.866	.087	.104
3	Stressors Combined	9	532	1444.755	369	502.954	.918	.904	.074	.081
4	Mediators Combined	9	532	2058.499	369	1116.698	.871	.849	.093	.110
5	Outcomes Combined	8	532	3328.838	377	2387.037	.775	.741	.121	.144
6	Full Model w/o NA & PA	8	532	582.865	224	-358.936	.965	.957	.055	.042
7	Full Model	10	532	941.801	360	-	.956	.947	.055	.046

Notes: Results for sample 1 (Veterans; $N = 102$) and sample 2 (non-Veterans; $N = 532$) shown. All $\Delta\chi^2$ calculations use Model 7 as a baseline. CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; CV = critical value for the associated change (Δ) in degrees of freedom; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean residual; w/o = without; NA = negative affectivity; PA = positive affectivity.

Table 15
Summary of Direct Effects and Hypothesis Testing

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$	Finding
Hindrance Stressors	→	Job Tension	.17	.19**	H1 Partially Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Job Tension	.11	.28**	H2 Partially Supported
Hindrance Stressors	→	Vigor	-.29**	-.13**	H3 Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Vigor	-.15	.03	H4 Not Supported
Job Tension	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	-.08	.29**	H5 Partially Supported
Vigor	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	-.21	-.13	H6 Not Supported
Job Tension	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	.19	-.15**	H7 Partially Supported
Vigor	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	.72**	.60**	H8 Supported
Job Tension	→	Problem Drinking	.32	.16*	H9 Partially Supported
Vigor	→	Problem Drinking	.20	-.05	H10 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	.07	.02	H11 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	-.02	-.02	H12 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	.29**	.01	H13 Partially Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	.25*	-.05	H14 Partially Supported

Notes: Sample 1 (Veterans; $N = 102$) results / sample 2 (non-Veterans; $N = 532$) results. All estimates reflect standardized effect sizes. Self-Regulation = Self-Regulation at Work. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 16

Results of Sobel Tests for the Indirect Effects of Hindrance and Challenge Stressors on Strain, Well-Being, and Health

IV	Mediator	DV	$Z_{\text{Sample 1}}$	$Z_{\text{Sample 1 Interaction}}$	$Z_{\text{Sample 2}}$	$Z_{\text{Sample 2 Interaction}}$
Hindrance Stressors	Job Tension	Somatic Complaints at Work	-.447	-.249	3.227	.573
Hindrance Stressors	Job Tension	Psychological Well-Being at Work	1.079	.493	-2.833	-.570
Hindrance Stressors	Job Tension	Problem Drinking	1.158	.494	2.046	.560
Hindrance Stressors	Vigor	Somatic Complaints at Work	1.516	-1.396	1.585	-.367
Hindrance Stressors	Vigor	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-2.443	2.163	-3.063	.375
Hindrance Stressors	Vigor	Problem Drinking	-1.334	1.236	.611	-.330
Challenge Stressors	Job Tension	Somatic Complaints at Work	-.435	.180	4.076	-.405
Challenge Stressors	Job Tension	Psychological Well-Being at Work	.938	-.211	-3.356	.404
Challenge Stressors	Job Tension	Problem Drinking	.989	-.211	2.219	-.400
Challenge Stressors	Vigor	Somatic Complaints at Work	1.236	-.164	-.802	1.111
Challenge Stressors	Vigor	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-1.608	1.392	.890	-1.397
Challenge Stressors	Vigor	Problem Drinking	-1.132	1.401	-.510	.621

Notes: N = 102 for sample 1 (Veterans). N = 532 for sample 2 (Non-Veterans). The first set of results presented reflect direct effects for IVs on mediators, whereas the second set of results presented reflect the direct effects of the interaction between IVs and IV = independent variable. DV = dependent variable. Z scores above 1.96 indicate statistical significance, based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$).

Table 17

Results of T-Tests for Study Variables across Samples

	Sample 1 (Veterans)		Sample 2 (Non-Veterans)			
Variables	Mean (μ)	SD (σ)	Mean (μ)	SD (σ)	T Statistic	*p*-value
Age	49.08	11.44	47.63	11.01	1.21	.23
Gender	.15	.36	.60	.49	-11.04	< .01
Organizational Tenure	114.60	120.17	143.07	120.66	-2.19	.03
Negative Affectivity	1.66	.75	1.61	.74	.59	.55
Positive Affectivity	3.09	1.12	3.14	1.06	-.46	.65
Hindrance Stressors	4.21	1.38	3.58	1.43	4.13	< .01
Challenge Stressors	4.85	1.47	4.61	1.48	1.54	.12
Self-Regulation at Work	5.44	1.00	5.49	1.05	-.43	.67
Job Tension	3.84	1.31	3.44	1.47	2.54	.01
Vigor	4.74	1.04	4.66	1.01	.73	.47
Somatic Complaints at Work	1.70	1.07	1.52	.78	1.59	.12
Psychological Well-Being at Work	5.09	1.41	5.27	1.18	-1.22	.22
Problem Drinking	1.75	1.19	1.38	.87	2.93	< .01

Notes: N = 102 for sample 1 (Veterans). N = 532 for sample 2 (Non-Veterans). Gender: male = 0, female = 1. Organizational tenure was measured in months. Means and standard deviations were calculated using all items for each measure, not parcels. Independent samples t-tests were used to report results. Statistical tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$).

Table 18
Assessment of Common Method Bias for Sample 1 without NA and PA

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
M1: Null model	2330.584	276	.000	n/a	n/a	n/a
M2: Trait only model	286.717	224	.003	.969	.962	.053
M3: Method only model	1589.258	252	.000	.349	.287	.229
M4: Trait and method model	237.623	200	.035	.982	.975	.043

Model Comparison	χ^2	Δ*df*	*p*	Conclusion
Testing for the presence of trait factors				
M1-M2	2043.867	52	<.01	M1>M2
M3-M4	1351.635	52	<.01	M3>M4
Testing for the presence of a method factor				
M1-M3	741.326	24	<.01	M1>M3
M2-M4	49.094	24	<.01	M2>M4

Notes: Sample 1 = Veterans. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; NA = negative affectivity; PA = positive affectivity.

Table 19
Assessment of Common Method Bias for Sample 2 without NA and PA

Model	χ^2	*df*	*p*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
M1: Null model	10586.28	276	.000	n/a	n/a	n/a
M2: Trait only model	582.865	224	.000	.965	.957	.055
M3: Method only model	7067.552	252	.000	.339	.276	.226
M4: Trait and method model	373.445	200	.000	.983	.977	.040

Model Comparison	χ^2	Δ*df*	*p*	Conclusion
Testing for the presence of trait factors				
M1-M2	10003.41	52	<.01	M1>M2
M3-M4	6694.107	52	<.01	M3>M4
Testing for the presence of a method factor				
M1-M3	3518.724	24	<.01	M1>M3
M2-M4	209.420	24	<.01	M2>M4

Notes: Sample 2 = Non-Veterans. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; NA = negative affectivity; PA = positive affectivity.

Table 20
Summary of Direct Effects and Hypothesis Testing Examining Results without the Inclusion of Negative Affectivity and Positive Affectivity

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$	Finding
Hindrance Stressors	→	Job Tension	.42**	.36**	H1 Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Job Tension	.02	.32**	H2 Partially Supported
Hindrance Stressors	→	Vigor	-.37**	-.38**	H3 Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Vigor	-.22*	.12*	H4 Partially Supported
Job Tension	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	.54**	.50**	H5 Supported
Vigor	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	-.03	-.12**	H6 Partially Supported
Job Tension	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-.11	-.28**	H7 Partially Supported
Vigor	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	.80**	.77**	H8 Supported
Job Tension	→	Problem Drinking	.33**	.20**	H9 Supported
Vigor	→	Problem Drinking	.15	.08	H10 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	-.03	-.03	H11 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	-.20	-.07	H12 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	.25	.00	H13 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	.25*	-.05	H14 Partially Supported

Notes: Sample 1 (Veterans; $N = 102$) results / sample 2 (non-Veterans; $N = 532$) results. All estimates reflect standardized effect sizes. Self-Regulation = Self-Regulation at Work. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 21
Results of Sobel Tests for the Indirect Effects of Hindrance and Challenge Stressors on Strain, Well-Being, and Health without NA and PA

IV	Mediator	DV	$Z_{\text{Sample 1}}$	$Z_{\text{Sample 1 Interaction}}$	$Z_{\text{Sample 2}}$	$Z_{\text{Sample 2 Interaction}}$
Hindrance Stressors	Job Tension	Somatic Complaints at Work	2.609	-.195	5.765	-.736
Hindrance Stressors	Job Tension	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-1.363	.194	-5.298	.735
Hindrance Stressors	Job Tension	Problem Drinking	2.227	-.195	3.509	-.726
Hindrance Stressors	Vigor	Somatic Complaints at Work	.280	-.326	2.702	.024
Hindrance Stressors	Vigor	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-2.825	1.902	-5.935	-.024
Hindrance Stressors	Vigor	Problem Drinking	-1.340	1.141	-1.622	-.024
Challenge Stressors	Job Tension	Somatic Complaints at Work	.175	-1.438	5.720	-1.592
Challenge Stressors	Job Tension	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-.174	1.095	-5.263	1.581
Challenge Stressors	Job Tension	Problem Drinking	.175	-1.364	3.499	-1.500
Challenge Stressors	Vigor	Somatic Complaints at Work	.279	-.336	-1.807	.973
Challenge Stressors	Vigor	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-2.049	2.410	2.249	-1.026
Challenge Stressors	Vigor	Problem Drinking	-1.222	1.215	1.349	-.862

Notes: N = 102 for sample 1 (Veterans). N = 532 for sample 2 (Non-Veterans). The first set of results presented reflect direct effects for IVs on mediators, whereas the second set of results presented reflect the direct effects of the interaction between IVs and IV = independent variable. DV = dependent variable. NA = negative affectivity. PA = positive affectivity. Z scores above 1.96 indicate statistical significance, based on two-tailed tests (α = .05).

Table 22

Summary of Direct Effects and Hypothesis Testing Examining Secondary Data

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable	$B_{Sample\ 1}$	$B_{Sample\ 2}$	Finding
Hindrance Stressors	→	Job Tension	-	.24	H1 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Job Tension	-	.47**	H2 Supported
Hindrance Stressors	→	Vigor	-	-.10	H3 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Vigor	-	-.47**	H4 Supported
Job Tension	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	-	.07	H5 Not Supported
Vigor	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	-	-.19	H6 Not Supported
Job Tension	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-	-.37**	H7 Supported
Vigor	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-	.59**	H8 Supported
Job Tension	→	Problem Drinking	-	-.07	H9 Not Supported
Vigor	→	Problem Drinking	-	-.18	H10 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	-	.59	H11 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	-	.06	H12 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	-	-.02	H13 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	-	.06	H14 Not Supported

Notes: Sample 1 (Veterans; $N = 0$) results / sample 2 (non-Veterans; $N = 53$) results. All estimates reflect standardized effect sizes. Self-Regulation = Self-Regulation at Work. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 23
Summary of Direct Effects and Hypothesis Testing Examining the Subsample of Veterans Recruited Via Qualtrics's Panel Services

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable	$B_{Sample\ 1}$	$B_{Sample\ 2}$	Finding
Hindrance Stressors	→	Job Tension	.54**	.36**	H1 Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Job Tension	-.11	.32**	H2 Partially Supported
Hindrance Stressors	→	Vigor	-.38	-.38**	H3 Partially Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Vigor	-.21	.12*	H4 Partially Supported
Job Tension	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	.56**	.50**	H5 Supported
Vigor	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	.00	-.12**	H6 Partially Supported
Job Tension	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-.12	-.28**	H7 Partially Supported
Vigor	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	.89**	.77**	H8 Supported
Job Tension	→	Problem Drinking	.23	.20**	H9 Partially Supported
Vigor	→	Problem Drinking	.24	.08	H10 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	-.05	-.03	H11 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	-.38	-.07	H12 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	.14	.00	H13 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	-.03	-.05	H14 Not Supported

Notes: Sample 1 (Veterans; $N = 45$) results / sample 2 (non-Veterans; $N = 532$) results. All estimates reflect standardized effect sizes. Self-Regulation = Self-Regulation at Work. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 24

Results of T-Tests for Study Variables across the Veterans Sample and the Subsample of Non-Veterans

	Sample 1 (Veterans)		Sample 2 (non-Veterans)			
Variables	Mean (μ)	SD (σ)	Mean (μ)	SD (σ)	T Statistic	*p*-value
Age	49.08	11.44	48.98	11.11	.06	.95
Gender	.15	.36	.15	.36	.00	1.00
Organizational Tenure	114.60	120.17	115.39	104.23	-.05	.96
Negative Affectivity	1.66	.75	1.60	.66	.64	.52
Positive Affectivity	3.09	1.12	3.16	1.03	-.49	.63
Hindrance Stressors	4.21	1.38	3.66	1.36	2.89	< .01
Challenge Stressors	4.85	1.47	4.54	1.43	1.57	.12
Self-Regulation at Work	5.44	1.00	5.53	1.02	-.63	.53
Job Tension	3.84	1.31	3.33	1.41	2.68	< .01
Vigor	4.74	1.04	4.72	.98	.16	.87
Somatic Complaints at Work	1.70	1.07	1.58	.78	.87	.38
Psychological Well-Being at Work	5.09	1.41	5.35	1.14	-1.42	.16
Problem Drinking	1.75	1.19	1.49	.96	1.67	.10

Notes: N = 102 for sample 1 (Veterans). N = 102 for sample 2 (Non-Veterans). Gender: male = 0, female = 1. Organizational tenure was measured in months. Means and standard deviations were calculated using all items for each measure, not parcels. Independent samples t-tests were used to report results. Statistical tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$).

Table 25
Results of Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) for Study Variables across the Veterans and Subsample of Non-Veterans Samples

Variables	Levene's Test *F*-statistic	Levene's Test *p*-value	Partial Eta-Squared (η^2)	Partial Eta-Squared (η^2) *p*-value
Negative Affectivity	1.69	.20	.04	.11
Positive Affectivity	1.31	.26	.03	.17
Hindrance Stressors	.08	.78	.08	< .01
Challenge Stressors	.31	.58	.03	.21
Self-Regulation at Work	.36	.55	.04	.10
Job Tension	1.48	.23	.04	.09
Vigor	.16	.69	.04	.10
Somatic Complaints at Work	2.85	.09	.01	.61
Psychological Well-Being at Work	3.23	.07	.05	.05
Problem Drinking	1.89	.17	.15	< .01

Notes: N = 102 for Sample 1 (Veterans). N = 102 for Sample 2 (subsample of Non-Veterans). Covariates included age, gender, and organizational tenure. Gender: male = 0, female = 1. Organizational tenure was measured in months. Levene's Test of equality of error variances tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups. The *p*-value for Levene's Test was associated with the F test. Reported results reflect the corrected model results. Statistical tests were based on two-tailed tests (α = .05).

Table 26

Summary of Direct Effects and Hypothesis Testing Examining the Subsample of Non-Veterans

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable	$B_{Sample\ 1}$	$B_{Sample\ 2}$	Finding
Hindrance Stressors	→	Job Tension	.42**	.28*	H1 Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Job Tension	.02	.37**	H2 Partially Supported
Hindrance Stressors	→	Vigor	-.37**	-.35*	H3 Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Vigor	-.22*	.27*	H4 Partially Supported
Job Tension	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	.54**	.42**	H5 Supported
Vigor	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	-.03	-.17	H6 Not Supported
Job Tension	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-.11	-.30**	H7 Partially Supported
Vigor	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	.80**	.74**	H8 Supported
Job Tension	→	Problem Drinking	.33**	.06	H9 Partially Supported
Vigor	→	Problem Drinking	.15	.11	H10 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	-.03	.01	H11 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	-.20	-.19	H12 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	.25	-.04	H13 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	.25*	.04	H14 Partially Supported

Notes: Sample 1 (Veterans; $N = 102$) results / sample 2 (non-Veterans; $N = 102$) results. All estimates reflect standardized effect sizes. Self-Regulation = Self-Regulation at Work. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 27

Results of T-Tests for Study Variables across Enlisted and Officer Veterans

	Enlisted		Officers			
Variables	Mean (μ)	SD (σ)	Mean (μ)	SD (σ)	T Statistic	*p*-value
Age	47.00	11.17	53.84	10.76	-2.88	< .01
Gender	.14	.35	.16	.37	-.27	.79
Organizational Tenure	111.07	108.87	122.68	144.45	-.45	.66
Negative Affectivity	1.75	.82	1.47	.53	2.04	.04
Positive Affectivity	2.96	1.14	3.37	1.04	-1.69	.09
Hindrance Stressors	4.26	1.37	4.10	1.41	.55	.59
Challenge Stressors	5.00	1.48	4.53	1.41	1.50	.14
Self-Regulation at Work	5.44	.98	5.46	1.08	-.10	.92
Job Tension	3.83	1.33	3.86	1.29	-.09	.93
Vigor	4.52	1.07	5.26	.76	-3.51	< .01
Somatic Complaints at Work	1.77	1.18	1.53	.75	1.19	.24
Psychological Well-Being at Work	4.82	1.50	5.72	.91	-3.70	< .01
Problem Drinking	1.87	1.35	1.46	.62	2.10	.04

Notes: $N = 71$ for enlisted. $N = 31$ for officers. Gender: male = 0, female = 1. Organizational tenure was measured in months. Means and standard deviations were calculated using all items for each measure, not parcels. Independent samples t-tests were used to report results. Statistical tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$).

Table 28

Summary of Direct Effects and Hypothesis Testing Examining Enlisted and Officer Veterans

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable	$B_{Enlisted}$	$B_{Officers}$	Finding
Hindrance Stressors	→	Job Tension	.44*	.23	H1 Partially Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Job Tension	.11	-.17	H2 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors	→	Vigor	-.39*	-.37	H3 Partially Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Vigor	-.21	-.10	H4 Not Supported
Job Tension	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	.57**	.42**	H5 Supported
Vigor	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	.01	-.06	H6 Not Supported
Job Tension	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-.12	-.04	H7 Not Supported
Vigor	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	.80**	.65**	H8 Supported
Job Tension	→	Problem Drinking	.40**	.21	H9 Partially Supported
Vigor	→	Problem Drinking	.18	.19	H10 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	-.08	.33	H11 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Job Tension	-.15	-.69	H12 Not Supported
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	.30	-.45	H13 Not Supported
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation	→	Vigor	-.01	1.022	H14 Not Supported

Notes: Sample 1 (enlisted; $N = 71$) results / sample 2 (officers; $N = 31$) results. All estimates reflect standardized effect sizes. Self-Regulation = Self-Regulation at Work. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 29

Zero-Order Correlations, Descriptive Statistics, and T-Tests for Veterans who Responded to Essays 2 and 3

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Essay 2 Hindrance Stressors	-							
2. Essay 3 Hindrance Stressors	.74**	-						
3. Essay 2 Challenge Stressors	.41*	.16	-					
4. Essay 3 Challenge Stressors	.35*	.20	.62**	-				
5. Essay 2 Job Tension	.44**	.32	.50**	.25	-			
6. Essay 3 Job Tension	.31	.15	.42**	.16	.75**	-		
7. Essay 2 Vigor	-.39*	-.33*	-.04	-.17	-.34*	-.20	-	
8. Essay 3 Vigor	-.59**	-.48**	-.16	-.32	-.33*	-.27	.69**	-
Mean (μ)	4.58	4.43	4.55	4.44	4.08	4.04	5.25	5.07
SD (σ)	1.44	1.35	1.46	1.55	1.40	1.25	.90	.99
Cronbach's Alpha (α)	.74	.72	.93	.94	.90	.84	.86	.87
T-Test Results	-	-.70	-	-.30	-	-.32	-	-1.02

Notes: Correlations for Essay 2 (N = 38) and Essay 3 (N = 38) respondents shown. One Veteran who responded to data collection efforts for Essays 2 and 3 could not be matched, resulting in a sample size (n) of 38 instead of 39. One-sample t-tests were used to examine mean differences between samples. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests (α = .05). *p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 30
Results of Hierarchical Moderated Multiple Regression Analyses with Curvilinear Effects

	Job Tension		Vigor		Somatic Complaints at Work		Psychological Well-Being at Work		Problem Drinking	
	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$
Step 1:										
Age	-.14	-.09	.29**	.07	-.04	-.03	.23*	.02	-.42**	-.13**
Gender	.07	.07	-.03	.00	.03	.09*	.01	-.01	-.03	-.10*
Organizational Tenure	.04	.09	-.15	-.01	.01	.05	-.18	-.07	.02	.01
ΔR^2	.02	.01	.08*	.00	.00	.01	.06	.00	.17**	.03**
Step 2:										
Hindrance Stressors	.29**	.27**	-.26**	-.25**	.17	.22**	-.17	-.22**	-.22*	.11*
Challenge Stressors	.08	.35**	-.22*	.03	-.01	.10*	-.18*	-.08	.16	.05
Self-Regulation at Work	-.04	-.13**	.41**	.40**	-.12	-.12**	.51**	.40**	-.04	-.04
ΔR^2	.10*	.30**	.33**	.24**	.04	.10**	.35**	.24**	.05	.02**
Step 3:										
Hindrance Stressors^2	-1.08	.11	-.08	.27	-.37	.29	-.48	.20	-.21	.60**
Challenge Stressors^2	.87	.35	.00	.13	-.05	.42	-.32	-.32	.19	.10
Self-Regulation at Work^2	-.66	-.47	.63	.33	-.14	-.75*	.74	.15	-.68	-.41
ΔR^2	.06	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02**	.02	.00	.01	.02*
Step 4:										
Hindrance Stressors × Self-Regulation at Work	.00	.01	.10	.03	.00	-.07	.11	.03	-.01	.05
Challenge Stressors × Self-Regulation at Work	-.13	-.04	.21*	-.06	-.13	-.01	.21*	-.01	-.06	-.05
ΔR^2	.01	.00	.04*	.00	.01	.01	.05*	.00	.00	.00

Table 30 (Continued)

	Job Tension		Vigor		Somatic Complaints at Work		Psychological Well-Being at Work		Problem Drinking	
	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$
Step 5:										
Job Tension	-	-	-	-	.48**	.46**	-.12	-.25**	.32**	.12*
Vigor	-	-	-	-	.01	-.08	.58**	.64**	.22	.12*
ΔR^2	-	-	-	-	.18**	.16**	.20**	40**	.10**	.02*
Step 6:										
Job Tension^2	-	-	-	-	1.21*	.64**	.57	-.23	.44	.14
Vigor^2	-	-	-	-	-.14	1.05**	-.84	-.38*	-.43	.40
ΔR^2	-	-	-	-	.04	.05**	.02	.01**	.01	.01

Notes: Results for sample 1 (Veterans; $N = 102$) and sample 2 (non-Veterans; $N = 532$) shown. Gender: male = 0, female = 1. Organizational tenure was measured in months. All statistical significance tests based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$). Statistical significance testing for ΔR^2 was conducted using significance testing associated with omnibus F changes between steps in the regression equation. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Table 31

Summary of Direct Effects and Hypothesis Testing when Examining Self-Regulation as an Antecedent

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable	$\beta_{Sample\ 1}$	$\beta_{Sample\ 2}$	Finding
Hindrance Stressors	→	Job Tension	.42**	.33**	H1 Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Job Tension	.00	.34**	H2 Partially Supported
Self-Regulation at Work	→	Job Tension	-.17	-.14**	-
Hindrance Stressors	→	Vigor	-.37**	-.29**	H3 Supported
Challenge Stressors	→	Vigor	-.16	.07	H4 Not Supported
Self-Regulation at Work	→	Vigor	.56**	.45**	-
Job Tension	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	.54**	.51**	H5 Supported
Vigor	→	Somatic Complaints at Work	-.02	-.12**	H6 Partially Supported
Job Tension	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	-.10	-.28**	H7 Partially Supported
Vigor	→	Psychological Well-Being at Work	.81**	.76**	H8 Supported
Job Tension	→	Problem Drinking	.34**	.20**	H9 Supported
Vigor	→	Problem Drinking	.15	.08	H10 Not Supported

Notes: Sample 1 (Veterans; $N = 102$) results / sample 2 (non-Veterans; $N = 532$) results. All estimates reflect standardized effect sizes. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$). *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

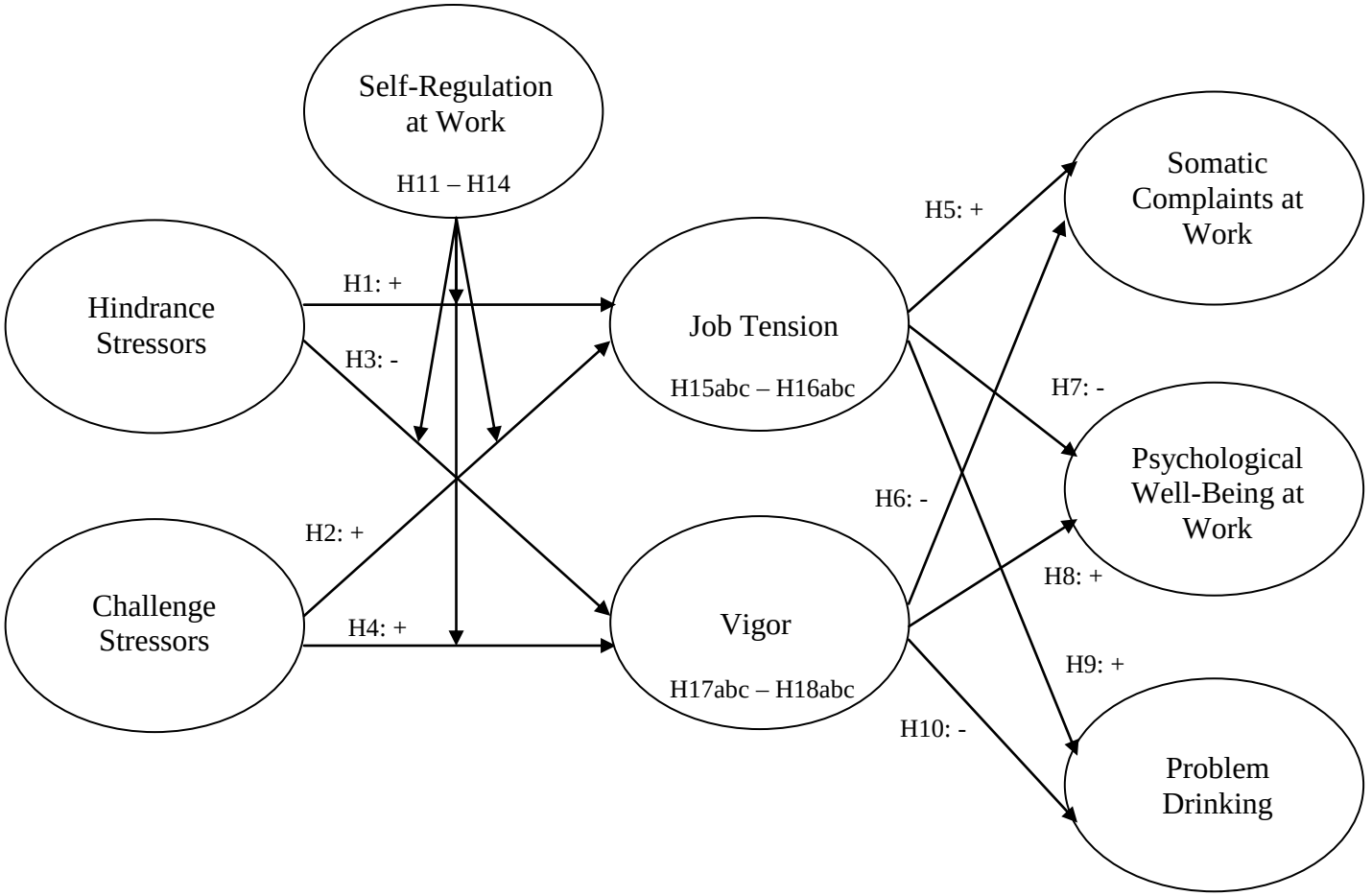

Figure 4. Operational model and hypotheses for Essay 3.

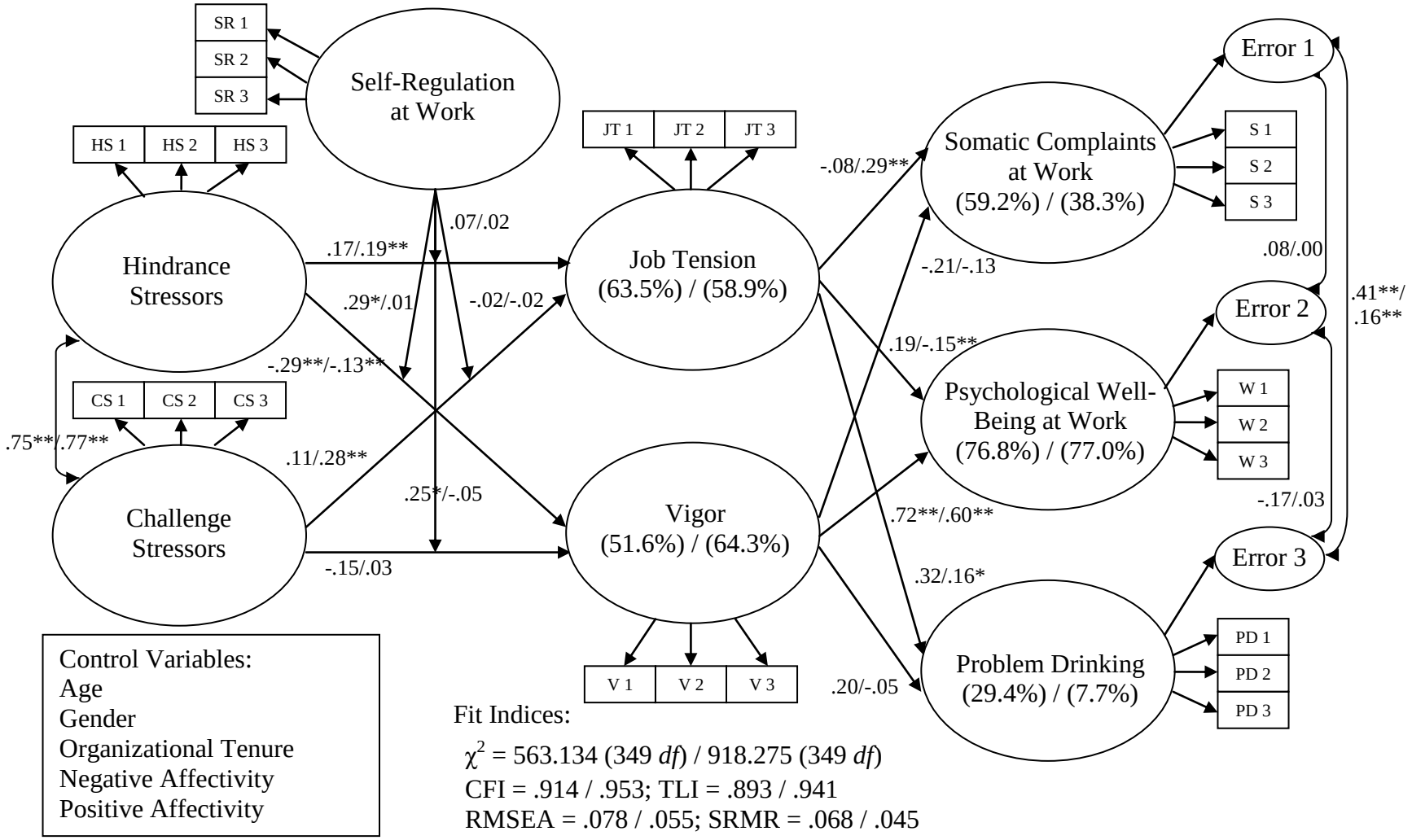

Figure 5. Results of full model estimation for Essay 3.
Notes: Sample 1 (Veterans; N = 102) results / sample 2 (non-Veterans; N = 532) results. Effect sizes for control variables were omitted for clarity. Parameter estimates reflect standardized effect sizes without the presence of self-regulation or any interaction, except for the values for interactions. Variance explained (R^2) is included below the construct name. The fit indices reflect the fit indices for the model without self-regulation. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests (α = .05). * p < .05, ** p < .01.

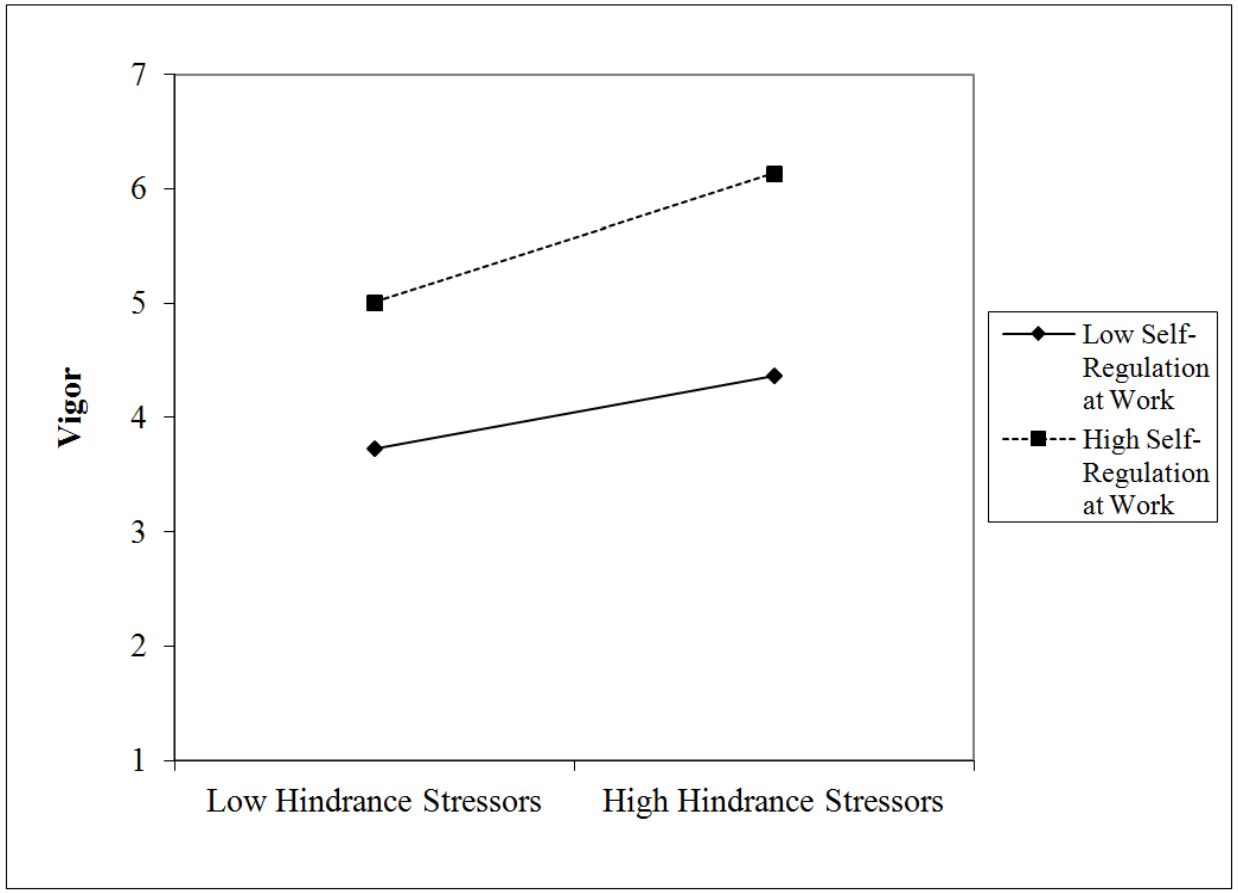

Figure 6. The hindrance stressors × self-regulation at work interaction effect on vigor in sample 1.

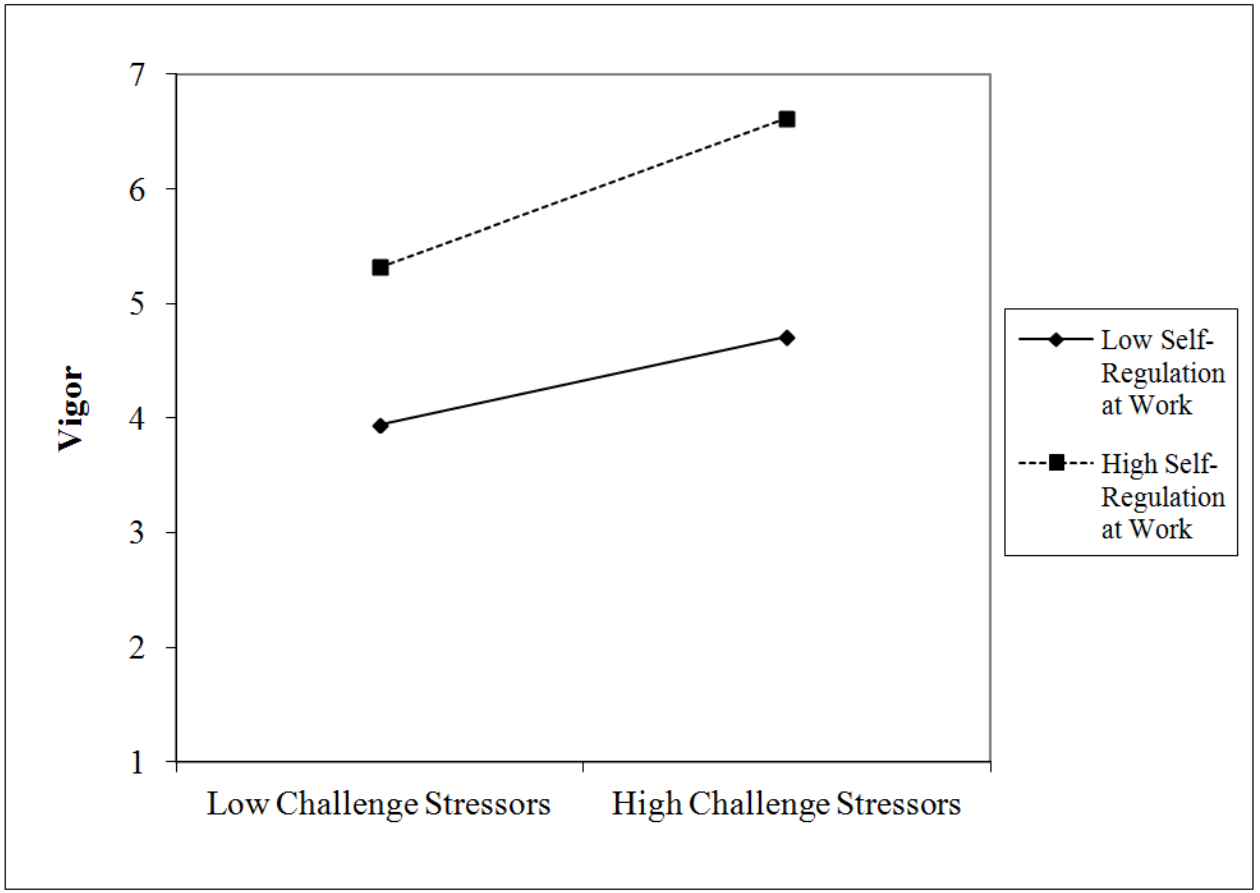

Figure 7. The challenge stressors × self-regulation at work interaction effect on vigor in sample 1.

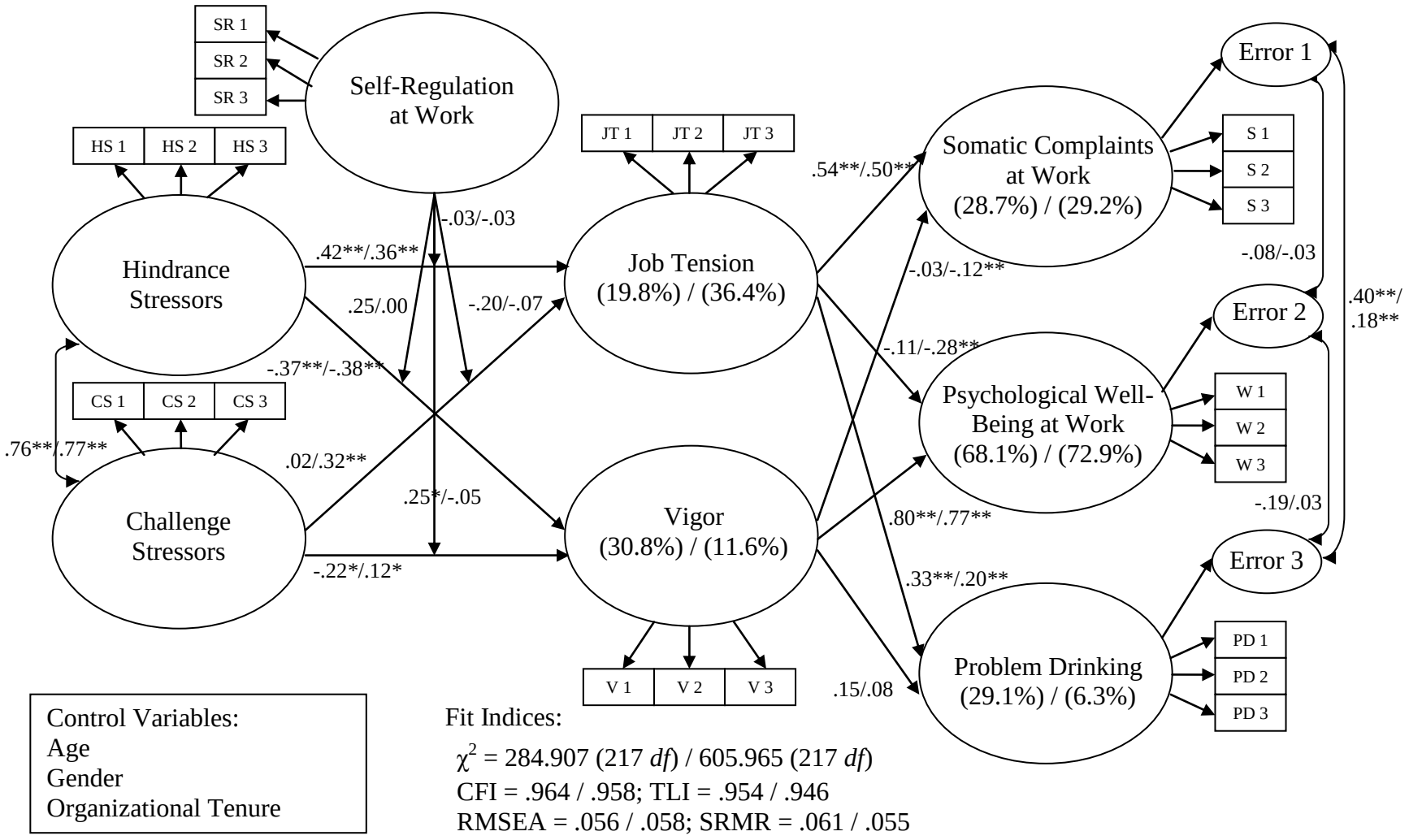

Figure 8. Results of model estimation without negative affectivity and positive affectivity.
Notes: Sample 1 (Veterans; N = 102) results / sample 2 (non-Veterans; N = 532) results. Effect sizes for control variables were omitted for clarity. Parameter estimates reflect standardized effect sizes without the presence of self-regulation or any interaction, except for the values for interactions. Variance explained (R^2) is included below the construct name. The fit indices reflect the fit indices for the model without self-regulation. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests (α = .05). * p < .05, ** p < .01.

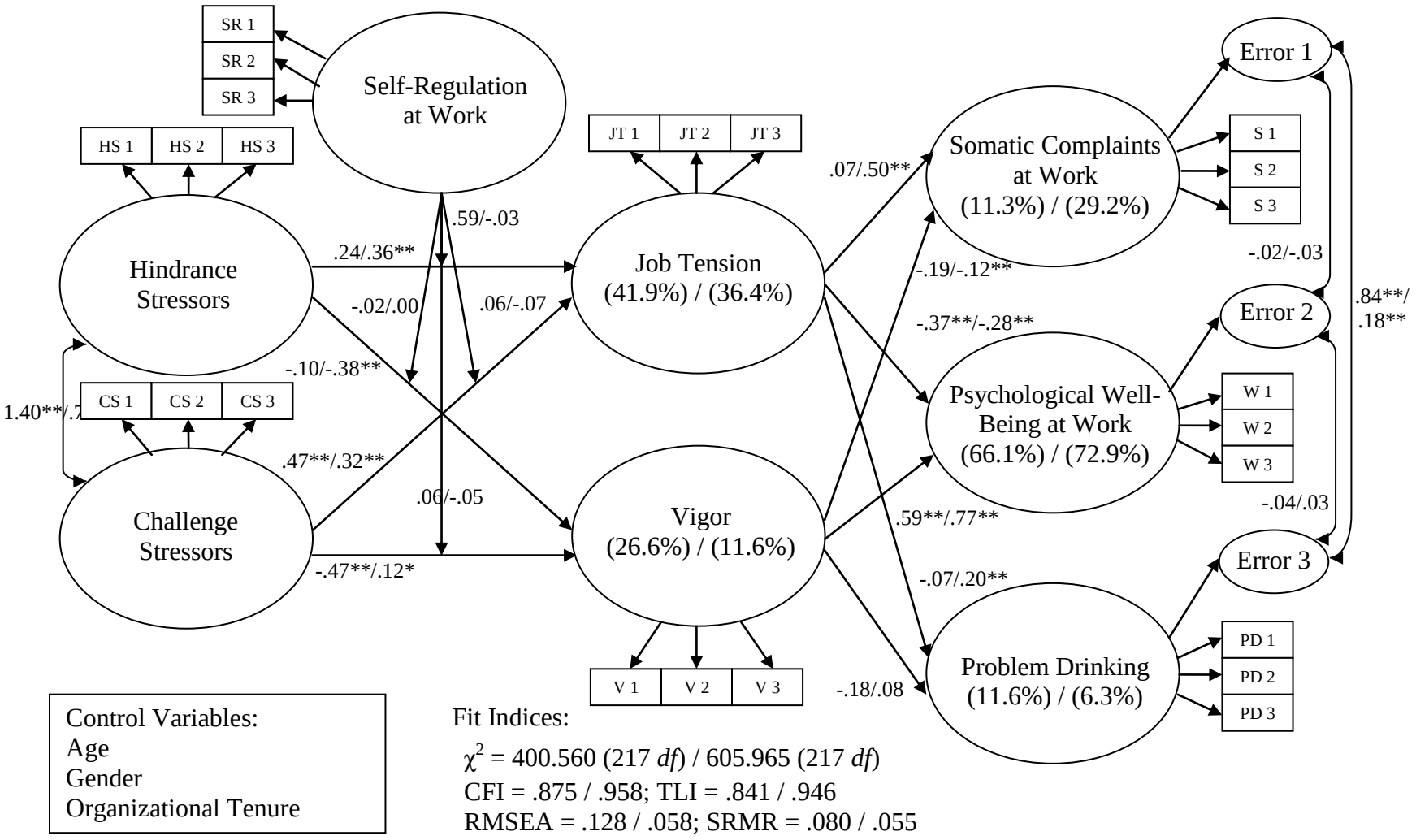

Figure 9. Results of model estimation with secondary respondent data.
Notes: Sample 1 (secondary respondents; N = 53) results / sample 2 (self-reports; N = 532) results. Effect sizes for control variables were omitted for clarity. Parameter estimates reflect standardized effect sizes without the presence of self-regulation or any interaction. The fit indices reflect the fit indices for the base model without self-regulation. Variance explained (R^2) is included below the construct name. All statistical significance tests based on two-tailed tests (α = .05). * p < .05, ** p < .01.

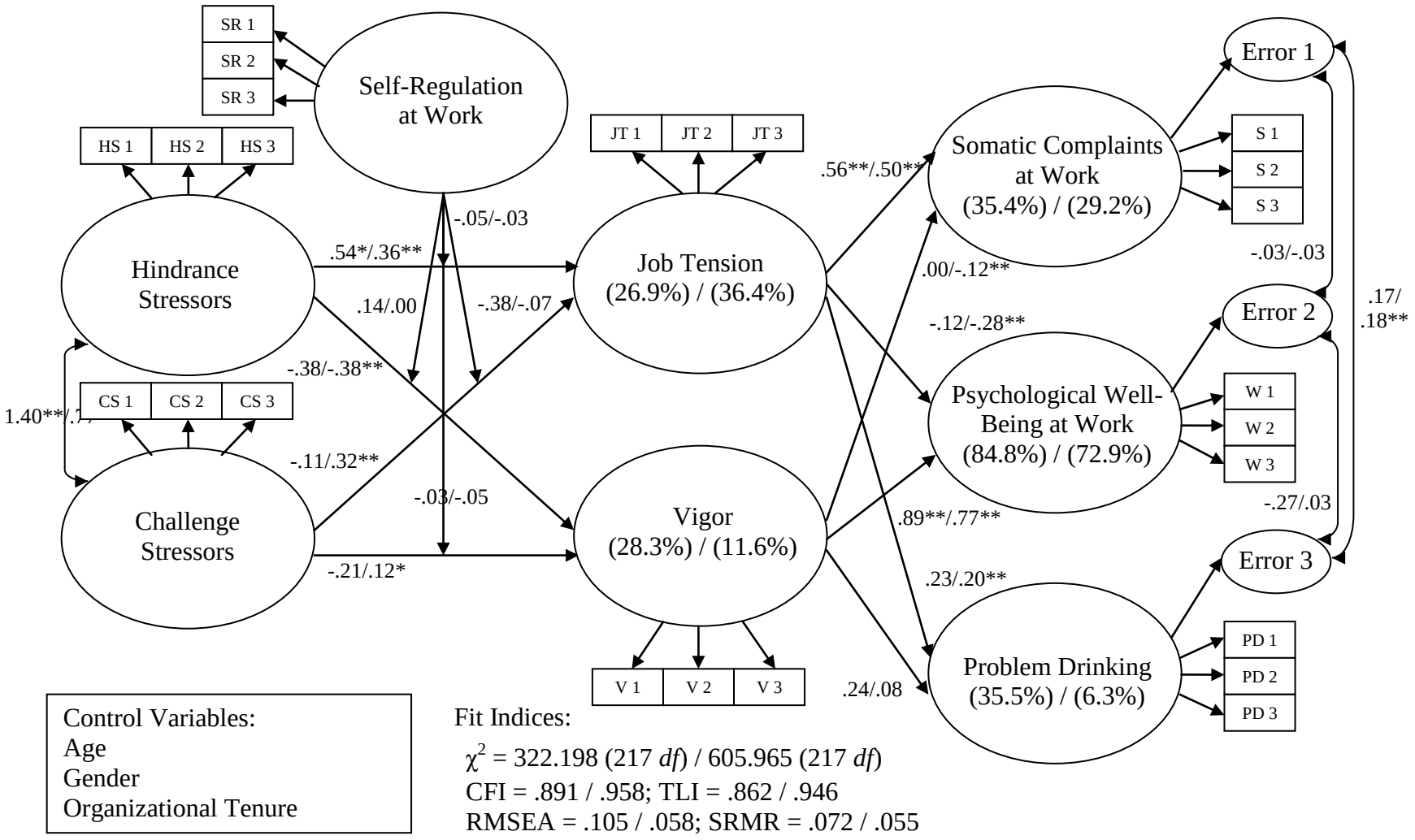

Figure 10. Results of model estimation with Veterans who responded via Qualtrics.
Notes: Sample 1 (Qualtrics Veterans; N = 45) results / sample 2 (Qualtrics non-Veterans; N = 532) results. Effect sizes for control variables were omitted for clarity. Parameter estimates reflect standardized effect sizes without the presence of self-regulation or any interaction. The fit indices reflect the fit indices for the base model without self-regulation. Variance explained (R^2) is included below the construct name. All statistical significance tests based on two-tailed tests (α = .05). * p < .05, ** p < .01.

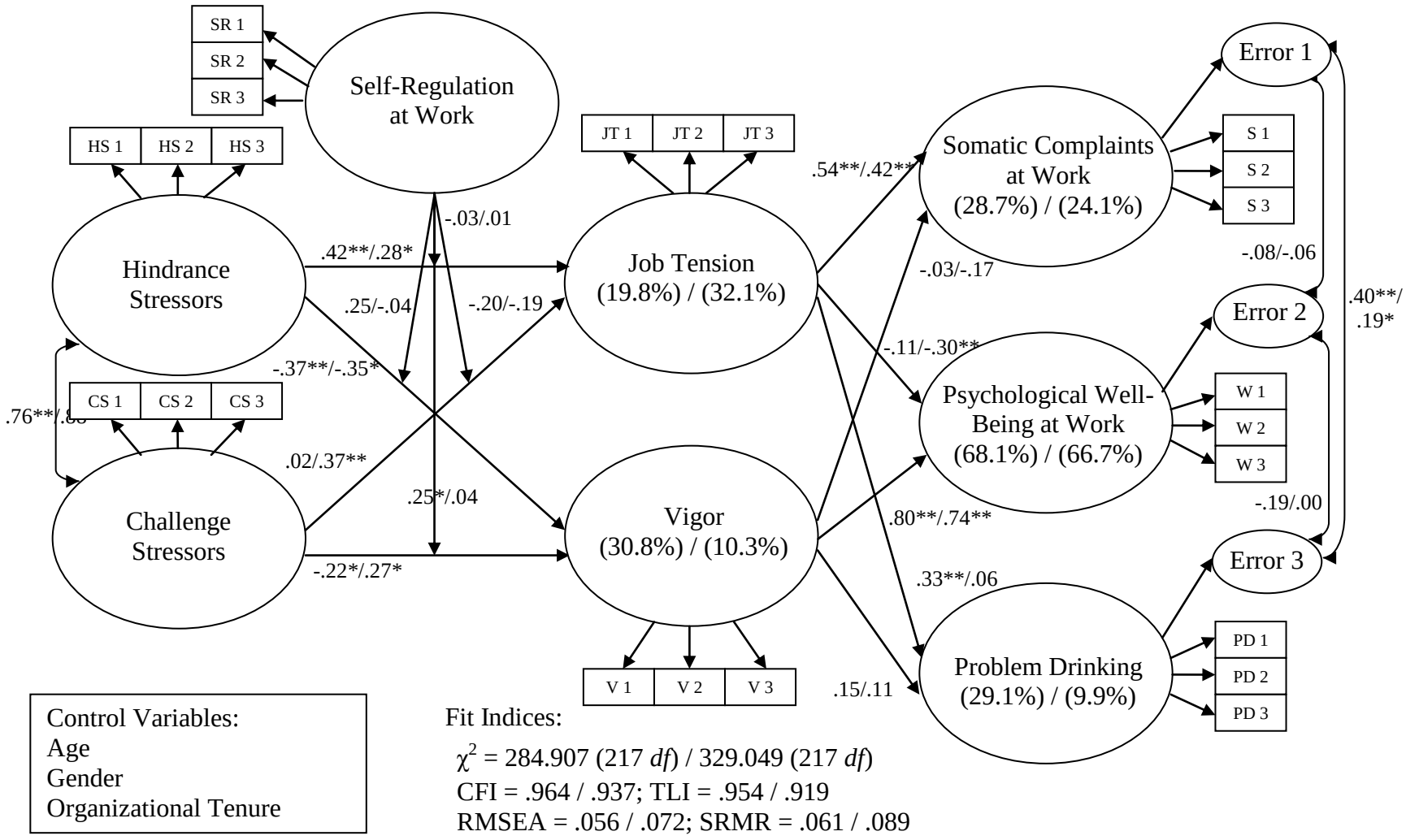

Figure 11. Results of model estimation for the subsample of non-Veterans with similar demographics as Veterans.
Notes: Sample 1 (Veterans; N = 102) results / sample 2 (non-Veterans; N = 102) results. Effect sizes for control variables were omitted for clarity. Parameter estimates reflect standardized effect sizes without the presence of self-regulation or any interaction, except for the values for interactions. Variance explained (R^2) is included below the construct name. The fit indices reflect the fit indices for the model without self-regulation. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests (α = .05). * p < .05, ** p < .01.

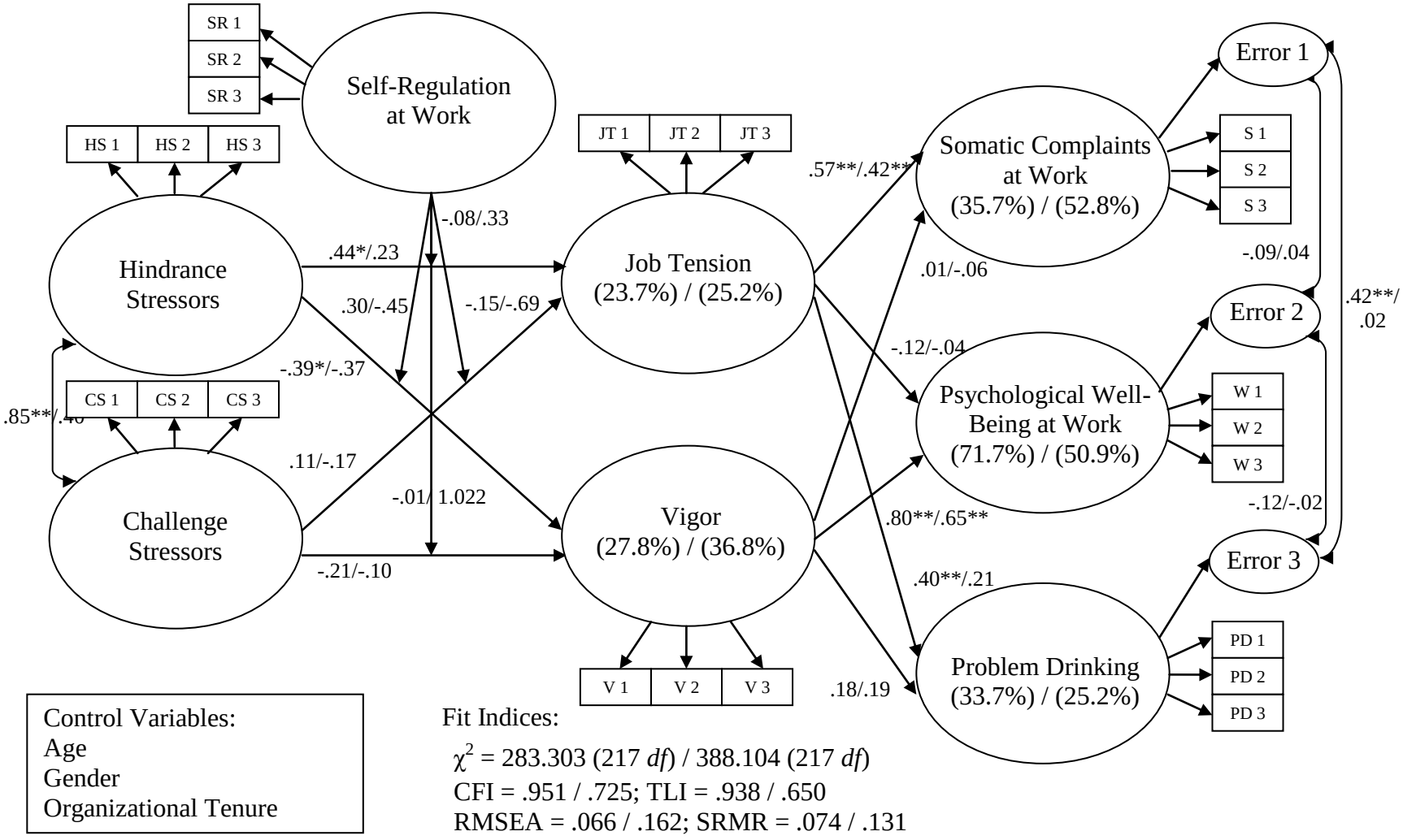

Figure 12. Results of model estimation for enlisted and officer Veterans.
Notes: Sample 1 (enlisted; $N = 71$) results / sample 2 (officers; $N = 31$) results. Effect sizes for control variables were omitted for clarity. Parameter estimates reflect standardized effect sizes without the presence of self-regulation or any interaction, except for the values for interactions. Variance explained (R^2) is included below the construct name. The fit indices reflect the fit indices for the model without self-regulation. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests ($\alpha = .05$). * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

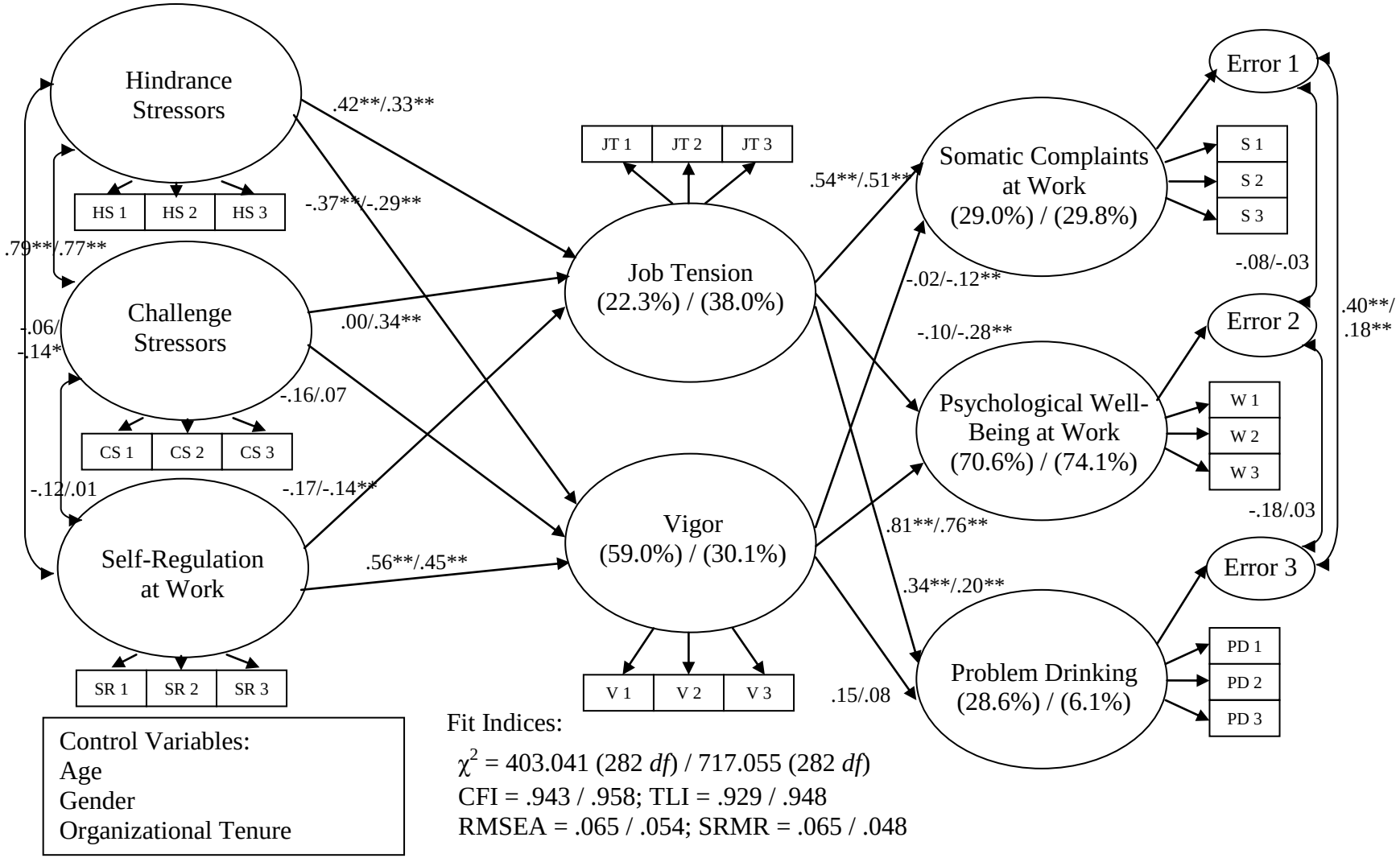

Figure 13. Results of model estimation with self-regulation at work as an antecedent.
Notes: Sample 1 (Veterans; N = 102) results / sample 2 (Qualtrics non-Veterans; N = 532) results. Effect sizes for control variables were omitted for clarity. Parameter estimates reflect standardized effect sizes without the presence of self-regulation or any interaction. The fit indices reflect the fit indices for the base model without self-regulation. Variance explained (R^2) is included below the construct name. All statistical significance tests were based on two-tailed tests (α = .05). * p < .05, ** p < .01.

APPENDIX A

TIME 1 QUESTIONNAIRE KEY FOR PRIMARY RESPONDENT

Thank you so much for participating in this research effort. In order to ensure your anonymity, we will not ask for your name at any time. However, for record keeping purposes, we must have some way to track our survey responses. Therefore, you will create a personal identification code. The code will consist of the following: your first name initial, your last name initial, and the last 4 digits of your cell phone number. If you don't have a cell phone number, please use your home telephone number. If you have no cell phone and no landline phone, please use the last 4 digits of your US Social Security number. For example, if John Smith were taking this survey and his cell phone number is 821-546-0102, his personal identification code would be "JS0102."

Please enter your personal identification code here, which is your first name initial, your last name initial, and the last 4 digits of your cell phone number. _____

***Section 1*.** **Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree that each of the demands below contributes to your stress at work.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Challenge Stressors (6 items; Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000)

The number of projects and/or assignments I have.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The amount of time I spend at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The volume of work that must be accomplished in the allotted time.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Time pressures I experience.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The amount of responsibility I have.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The scope of responsibility my position entails.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Hindrance Stressors (5 items; Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000)

The degree to which politics rather than performance affects organizational decisions.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The inability to clearly understand what is expected of me on the job.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The amount of red tape I need to go through to get my job done.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The lack of job security I have.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The degree to which my career seems "stalled."	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Section 2*.** **Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree that each of the demands below contributes to your stress at work.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Hindrance Stressors (7 items; Zhang, LePine, Buckman, & Wei, 2014)

Administrative hassles.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Bureaucratic constraints to completing work (red tape).	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Conflicting instructions and expectations from your boss or bosses.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Unclear job tasks.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Conflicting requests from your supervisor(s).	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Disputes with coworkers.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Office politics.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Section 3. **Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Perceived organizational obstruction (Gibney, Zagenczyk, & Masters, 2009)

My organization obstructs the realization of my professional goals.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
My organization is a detriment to my well-being.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The organization gets in the way of my performance.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The company blocks my personal goals.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
My goal attainment is thwarted by the organization.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Supervisor Organizational Embodiment (Eisenberger, Karagonlar, Stinglhamber, Neves, Becker, Gonzlaes-Morales, & Steiger-Mueller, 2010)

When my supervisor encourages me, I believe that my organization is encouraging me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
When my supervisor is pleased with my work, I feel that my organization is pleased.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
When my supervisor compliments me, it is the same as my organization complimenting me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
When my supervisor pays attention to my efforts, I believe that my organization is paying attention to my efforts.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
My supervisor is characteristic of my organization.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Section 4. **Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Supervisor Organizational Embodiment (Continued)

My supervisor and my organization have a lot in common.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
When I am evaluated by my supervisor, it is the same as being evaluated by my organization.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
My supervisor is representative of my organization.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
My supervisor is typical of my organization.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Section 5. **Please indicate how often you have felt this way about your work by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Not at All Like Me	A Little Bit Like Me	Somewhat Like Me	Moderately Like Me	Quite a Bit Like Me	Very Much Like Me	Exactly Like Me
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Self-Regulation at Work (13 items; Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004)

I am good at resisting temptation at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I do not have a hard time breaking bad habits at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I am not lazy at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I do not say inappropriate things at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I do not do certain things that are bad for me at work, even if they are fun.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I refuse things that are bad for me at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I have self-discipline at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Self-Regulation at Work (continued);
1 item for quality control ("Please mark exactly like me for this response")

People would say that I have iron self-discipline at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Pleasure and fun do not keep me from getting work done at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Please mark exactly like me for this response.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I do not have trouble concentrating at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I am able to work effectively toward long-term goals at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I can stop myself from doing something at work, if I know it is wrong.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I often act after thinking through all the alternatives at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Section 6. **Please read each item and then mark the appropriate answer. Indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past week.**

Very Slightly or Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Quite a Bit	Extremely
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

***Positive Affectivity (4 items; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)

Inspired.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Excited.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Strong.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Active.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

***Negative Affectivity (4 items; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)

Distressed.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Upset.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Afraid.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Jittery.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Section 7. **Please provide some demographic information. These questions are <u>for statistical purposes only</u>. We assure you that you will not be identified using this data. We are simply looking for patterns in the data and comparisons of our sample to the U.S. population.**

1. Do you speak English? Yes No
2. Do you live in the United States? Yes No
3. What is your gender? Male Female
4. What is your age (in years)? _____
5. How many years and months have you worked at the same organization? Years _____ Months _____
6. On average, how many hours do you work per week? _____
7. What is the highest level of education you have attained?
    a. Some high school
    b. High school
    c. Some college
    d. Associate's degree
    e. Bachelor's degree
    f. Master's degree
    g. Doctoral degree
8. Are you a Veteran of the United States military? Yes No

*****If respondents indicate they are Veterans, then they will be directed to section 8a. If respondents indicate that they are not Veterans, then they will be directed to section 8b.**

******Veterans******

Section 8a. **Please provide some demographic information about your experiences serving in the military.**

1. What was your branch of service?
    a. Air Force
    b. Army
    c. Marine Corps
    d. Navy
    e. Coast Guard
    f. Multiple branches

2. What was the highest rank you achieved while in the service?
    _____

3. How many years and months were you in the military? Years _____ Months _____

4. How long has it been since you were last considered on full-time active duty? Years ____ Months ____

5. How much time (if any) did you spend in a combat zone while you were on active duty in the military?
    Years _____ Months _____

Thank you so much for your taking the time to fill out this survey!

You will be contacted in approximately 3 weeks regarding the second survey.

******Civilians******

***Section 8b*.** **Please indicate the frequency with which your supervisor engages in these behaviors directed toward you by selecting the appropriate choice. My boss...**

	I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me	He/she very seldom uses this behavior with me	He/she occasionally uses this behavior with me	He/she uses this behavior moderately often with me	He/she uses this behavior very often with me
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
***Abusive supervision (5 items; Tepper, 2000)					
Ridicules me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Puts me down in front of others.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Makes negative comments about me to others.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Tells me I'm incompetent.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Thank you so much for your taking the time to fill out this survey!

You will be contacted in approximately 3 weeks regarding the second survey.

APPENDIX B

TIME 2 QUESTIONNAIRE KEY FOR PRIMARY RESPONDENT

Thank you so much for participating in this research effort. In order to ensure your anonymity, we will not ask for your name at any time. However, for record keeping purposes, we must have some way to track our survey responses. Therefore, you will create a personal identification code. The code will consist of the following: your first name initial, your last name initial, and the last 4 digits of your cell phone number. If you don't have a cell phone number, please use your home telephone number. If you have no cell phone and no landline phone, please use the last 4 digits of your US Social Security number. For example, if John Smith were taking this survey and his cell phone number is 821-546-0102, his personal identification code would be "JS0102."

Please enter your personal identification code here, which is your first name initial, your last name initial, and the last 4 digits of your cell phone number. _____

***Section 1*.** **Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Job tension (7 items; House & Rizzo, 1972)

My job tends to directly affect my health.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I work under a great deal of tension.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
If I had a different job, my health would probably improve.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Problems associated with my job have kept me awake at night.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I have felt nervous before attending meetings in my company.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I often "take my job home with me" in the sense that I think about it when doing other things.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Section 2. **Please indicate how often you have felt this way about your work by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Vigor (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003)

At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I can continue working for very long periods of time.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Section 3. **Please indicate the frequency with which you experience each of the following statements at work by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Somatic Complaints at Work (7 items; Carlier, Schulte-Van Maaren, Wardenaar, Giltay, Van Noorden, Vergeer, & Zitman, 2012)

I was short of breath with minimal exertion at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I felt palpitations at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I felt chest pain (or pressure) at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I felt dizzy or lightheaded at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I felt a tingling, for example in my hands at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I was shaking or trembling at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I felt shaky or I had shivers at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Section 4*.** **Please indicate how often you have felt this way about your work by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Not at All Like Me	A Little Bit Like Me	Somewhat Like Me	Moderately Like Me	Quite a Bit Like Me	Very Much Like Me	Exactly Like Me
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Self-Regulation at Work (4 items restraint dimension of Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone's, 2004 13-item self-control measure); 1 item for quality control ("Please very much like me for this response")

I am good at resisting temptation at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I do not have a hard time breaking bad habits at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Please mark very much like me for this response.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
People would say that I have iron self-discipline at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I have self-discipline at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Section 5*.** **Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Psychological Well-Being at Work (5 items; Bech, Olsen, Kjoller, & Rasmussen, 2003)

I have been a happy person at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I have been calm and peaceful at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I have been fresh and rested at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I have a lot of energy at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I have been interested in things at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Section 6. **Please indicate the frequency with which you experience each of the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Problem Drinking (4 items; Ewing, 1984)

Have you ever felt you ought to cut down on your drinking?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Have people annoyed you by criticizing your drinking?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Have you ever felt bad or guilty about your drinking?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Have you ever had a drink first thing in the morning to steady your nerves or get rid of a hangover?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Section 7. **Please read each item and then mark the appropriate answer. Indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past week.**

Very Slightly or Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Quite a Bit	Extremely
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

***Positive Affectivity (4 items; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)

Inspired.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Excited.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Strong.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Active.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

***Negative Affectivity (4 items; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)

Distressed.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Upset.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Afraid.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Jittery.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

***Section 8*.** **Please provide some demographic information. These questions are <u>for statistical purposes only</u>. We assure you that you will not be identified using this data. We are simply looking for patterns in the data and comparisons of our sample to the U.S. population.**

1. What is your gender? Male Female

2. What is your age (in years)? _____

3. At your primary place of employment, are you considered full-time or part-time?
   Full-time Part-time

4. What would you say is your **primary** job function?
   a. Accounting/Finance
   b. Administration
   c. Advertising/Marketing
   d. Human Resources
   e. Management
   f. Research & Development
   g. Sales
   h. Transportation/Logistics
   i. Other

5. What is your approximate level in your organization?
   a. Top management
   b. Upper management
   c. Middle management
   d. Staff/Associate level
   e. Entry level
   f. Professional (accountant, lawyer, doctor, etc.)
   g. Other

6. How would you classify your industry?
    a. Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting, and mining
    b. Arts, entertainment, recreation, accommodation, and food services
    c. Construction
    d. Educational, health, and social services
    e. Finance, insurance, real estate, and rental and leasing
    f. Information
    g. Manufacturing
    h. Professional, scientific, management, administrative, and waste management services
    i. Public administration
    j. Retail trade
    k. Transportation, warehousing, and utilities
    l. Wholesale trade
    m. Other

***Career interruptions (Hoobler, Wayne, & Lemmon, 2009)

7. In the past year, have you taken time off to care for children, elderly parents, other dependents, your own health issue, or to obtain education? Yes No

8. Are you a Veteran of the United States military? Yes No

*****If respondents indicate they are Veterans, then they will be directed to section 9a. If respondents indicate that they are not Veterans, then they will be directed to section 9b.**

******Veterans******

Section 9a. **Please provide some demographic information about your experiences serving in the military.**

1. Did you sustain any physical disabilities while on active duty in the military? Yes No

2. Do you have a disability rating? If so, what is it? Yes _____% No

3. Did you terminate your military service prior to your term being up? Yes No

4. Do you believe your organization has a Veteran-friendly culture? Yes No

Section 10a. **Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Veteran transition stress (5 items adapted from Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, & Ren, 2012)

After transitioning from my military assignment, I have been having trouble defining who I am at my company.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Sometimes, I feel like my military experience doesn't fit my current job.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
There are times when there seems to be a conflict between what I am asked to do now and what I had learned as a member of the military.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
There is a tension between who I am on my current job and who I was while in the military.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I feel that my role as a former member of the military is not compatible with my current role as a member of this organization.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Veterans demographic-style questions (3 items)

I miss the structure of the military environment.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I miss the camaraderie I had with my comrades in the military.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
I identify myself as a Veteran of the U.S. military.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Section 11a. **Please provide an e-mail address for somebody who knows you who might be willing to answer a brief survey about your work experiences.**

Thank you so much for your taking the time to fill out this survey!

******Civilians******

***Section 9b*.** **Please indicate the frequency with which your supervisor engages in these behaviors directed toward you by selecting the appropriate choice. My boss...**

I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me	He/she very seldom uses this behavior with me	He/she occasionally uses this behavior with me	He/she uses this behavior moderately often with me	He/she uses this behavior very often with me
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

***Abusive Supervision (Tepper, 2000)

Ridicules me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Puts me down in front of others.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Makes negative comments about me to others.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Tells me I'm incompetent.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

***Section 10b*.** **Please indicate the frequency with which you have voluntarily engaged in the following behaviors within the <u>LAST YEAR</u> by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Several Times a Year	Monthly	Weekly	Daily
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Supervisor-directed Deviance (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007)

Made fun of my supervisor at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Played a mean prank on my supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Made an obscene comment or gesture toward my supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Acted rudely toward my supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Gossiped about my supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark against my supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Publicly embarrassed my supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Swore at my supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Refused to talk to my supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Said something hurtful to my supervisor at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Section 10c. **Please provide an e-mail address for somebody who knows you who might be willing to answer a brief survey about your work experiences.**

Thank you so much for your taking the time to fill out this survey!

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE KEY FOR SECONDARY RESPONDENT

Section 1. **Please think about the person who asked you to participate in this research and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about his or her perceptions of his or her work by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Psychological Well-Being at Work (5 items; Bech, Olsen, Kjoller, & Rasmussen, 2003)

He or she has been a happy person at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she has been calm and peaceful at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she been fresh and rested at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she has a lot of energy at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she has been interested in things at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Work-family conflict (5 items; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996)

The demands of his or her work interfere with his or her home and family life.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The amount of time his or her job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Things he or she wants to do at home do not get done because of the demands his or her job puts on him or her.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
His or her job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Due to work-related duties, he or she has to make changes to his or her plans for family activities.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Performance (7 items; in-role behaviors; Williams & Anderson, 1991)

He or she adequately completes assigned duties.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she meets formal performance requirements of the job.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she does not neglect aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform. (originally reverse-worded)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she does not fail to perform essential duties. (originally reverse-worded)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Section 2*.** **Please think about the person who asked you to participate in this research and indicate the frequency with which he or she experienced each of the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Somatic Complaints at Work (7 items; Carlier, Schulte-Van Maaren, Wardenaar, Giltay, Van Noorden, Vergeer, & Zitman, 2012)

He or she was short of breath with minimal exertion at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she felt palpitations at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she felt chest pain (or pressure) at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she felt dizzy or lightheaded at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she felt a tingling, for example in my hands at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she was shaking or trembling at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
He or she felt shaky or I had shivers at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Problem Drinking (4 items; Ewing, 1984)

The frequency with which he or she has ever felt he or she ought to cut down on his or her drinking.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The frequency with which people annoyed him or her by criticizing his or her drinking.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The frequency with which he or she ever felt bad or guilty about his or her drinking.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The frequency with which he or she had a drink first thing in the morning to steady his or her nerves or get rid of a hangover.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Section 3*.** **Please indicate the frequency with which he or she has voluntarily engaged in the following behaviors within the <u>LAST YEAR</u> by selecting the appropriate choice.**

Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Several Times a Year	Monthly	Weekly	Daily
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

***Supervisor-directed Deviance (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007)

Made fun of his or her supervisor at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Played a mean prank on his or her supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Made an obscene comment or gesture toward his or her supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Acted rudely toward his or her supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Gossiped about his or her supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark against his or her supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Publicly embarrassed his or her supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Please mark twice a year for this response.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Swore at his or her supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Refused to talk to his or her supervisor.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Said something hurtful to his or her supervisor at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Section 4. **Please read each item and then mark the appropriate answer. Indicate to what extent you have felt this way during the past week.**

	Very Slightly or Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Quite a Bit	Extremely
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
***Positive Affectivity (4 items; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)					
Inspired.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Excited.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Strong.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Active.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
***Negative Affectivity (4 items; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988)					
Distressed.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Upset.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Afraid.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Jittery.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Section 5. **Please provide some demographic information. These questions are <u>for statistical purposes only</u>. We assure you that you will not be identified using this data. We are simply looking for patterns in the data and comparisons of our sample to the U.S. population.**

1. What is your relation to the individual who asked you to participate in this research?
    a. Spouse
    b. Significant other
    c. Family member
    d. Friend
    e. Co-worker
    f. Other

2. What is your gender? Male Female

3. What is your age (in years)? _____

Section 6. **Please provide your email address below so your responses can be matched with the responses of the individual who asked you to help with this research.**

Section 7. **Please provide the first name initial, last name initial, and the last 4 digits of the cell phone number for the person who asked you to help with this research so your responses can be matched with his or her responses.**

Thank you so much for your taking the time to fill out this survey!

APPENDIX D

HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL FORMS

Florida State UNIVERSITY

Office of the Vice President for Research
Human Subjects Committee
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2742
(850) 644-8673 · FAX (850) 644-4392

APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Date: 02/07/2014

To: Jeremy Mackey

Address:

Dept.: COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

From: Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair

Re: Use of Human Subjects in Research
Veterans' Stress in the Workplace Follow-Up Study

The application that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and two members of the Human Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be Expedited per 45 CFR § 46.110(7) and has been approved by an expedited review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If you submitted a proposed consent form with your application, the approved stamped consent form is attached to this approval notice. Only the stamped version of the consent form may be used in recruiting research subjects.

If the project has not been completed by 02/06/2015 you must request a renewal of approval for continuation of the project. As a courtesy, a renewal notice will be sent to you prior to your expiration date; however, it is your responsibility as the Principal Investigator to timely request renewal of your approval from the Committee.

You are advised that any change in protocol for this project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee prior to implementation of the proposed change in the protocol. A protocol change/amendment form is required to be submitted for approval by the Committee. In addition, federal regulations require that the Principal Investigator promptly report, in writing any unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risks to research subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the chairman of your department and/or your major professor is reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in the department, and should review protocols as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Human Research Protection. The Assurance Number is IRB00000446.

Cc: Randy Blass
HSC No. 2013.11965

Dear Participant,

I am conducting a study examining employees' stress in the workplace. Please read the following details about this research study. At the end of this page, you will be asked to decide whether or not you willingly volunteer to participate in this study.

- The survey is an electronic survey that will likely take approximately 15 minutes to complete. The survey consists of questions focused on your attitudes and behaviors at work.

- It is not uncommon to suspect that a survey may contain tricky or suspicious questions. We guarantee that this is not the case with this survey. Please address each statement carefully, but do not spend considerable time on any particular question.

- Please respond as honestly as possible, even if the information you provide is not favorable. A danger is for respondents to select what they *want to do* or what they think is ideal to do and not what they actually do. Please answer questions based on your actual attitudes and behaviors.

- Your responses will remain completely confidential. There is no way of connecting you with your employer and we will not attempt to contact your employer.

- Your participation in this study is voluntary. There is no penalty for not participating.

- You are at minor risk of minor psychological discomfort while filling out the questionnaire.

- Information gathered during this study will be combined with the responses of others for research purposes only. The results of the research study may be published, but neither your name nor any other type of identifiable information will ever be used.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please feel free to contact me or my research advisor, Dr. Randy Blass. You may also contact the Human Subjects Committee at The Florida State University if you have additional concerns about this study.

Do you, as an adult, give your consent to participate in this study? By checking 'yes' below, you indicate that you understand the information above and agree to participate in the study.

YES ☐ NO ☐

Sincerely,
Jeremy Mackey, Ph.D. Candidate
Department of Management, FSU College of Business

Florida State
UNIVERSITY

Office of the Vice President for Research
Human Subjects Committee
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2742
(850) 644-8673 · FAX (850) 644-4392

APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Date: 05/05/2014

To: Jeremy Mackey

Address:

Dept.: COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

From: Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair

Re: Use of Human Subjects in Research
Stress MTurk Spring 2014

The application that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and two members of the Human Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be Expedited per 45 CFR § 46.110(7) and has been approved by an expedited review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If you submitted a proposed consent form with your application, the approved stamped consent form is attached to this approval notice. Only the stamped version of the consent form may be used in recruiting research subjects.

If the project has not been completed by 05/04/2015 you must request a renewal of approval for continuation of the project. As a courtesy, a renewal notice will be sent to you prior to your expiration date; however, it is your responsibility as the Principal Investigator to timely request renewal of your approval from the Committee.

You are advised that any change in protocol for this project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee prior to implementation of the proposed change in the protocol. A protocol change/amendment form is required to be submitted for approval by the Committee. In addition, federal regulations require that the Principal Investigator promptly report, in writing any unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risks to research subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the chairman of your department and/or your major professor is reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in the department, and should review protocols as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Human Research Protection. The Assurance Number is IRB00000446.

Cc: Randy Blass
HSC No. 2014.12636

Dear Participant,

I am a graduate student under the direction of Professor Blass in the College of Business at Florida State University. I am conducting a research study to examine employees' stress in the workplace.

Your participation will involve completing an electronic survey that will likely take approximately 15 minutes to complete. The survey consists of questions about your attitudes and behaviors at work. Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. The results of the research study may be published, but your name will not be used.

There are foreseeable risks or discomforts to me if I agree to participate in the study. The possible risks are minor psychological discomfort while filling out the questionnaire.

Although there may be no direct benefit to you, the possible benefit of your participation is supporting research examining how stress in the civilian workplace affects Veterans of the United States military.

If you have any questions concerning this research study, please email me, Jeremy Mackey.

Sincerely,

Jeremy Mackey, Ph.D. Candidate
Department of Management, FSU College of Business

I give my consent to participate in the above study.

YES ☐ NO ☐

Florida State
UNIVERSITY

Office of the Vice President for Research
Human Subjects Committee
Tallahassee, Florida 32306-2742
(850) 644-8673 · FAX (850) 644-4392

APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Date: 01/02/2014

To: Jeremy Mackey

Address:

Dept.: COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

From: Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair

Re: Use of Human Subjects in Research
The Effects of Self-Regulation on Stress

The application that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and two members of the Human Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be Expedited per 45 CFR § 46.110(7) and has been approved by an expedited review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If you submitted a proposed consent form with your application, the approved stamped consent form is attached to this approval notice. Only the stamped version of the consent form may be used in recruiting research subjects.

If the project has not been completed by 12/29/2014 you must request a renewal of approval for continuation of the project. As a courtesy, a renewal notice will be sent to you prior to your expiration date; however, it is your responsibility as the Principal Investigator to timely request renewal of your approval from the Committee.

You are advised that any change in protocol for this project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee prior to implementation of the proposed change in the protocol. A protocol change/amendment form is required to be submitted for approval by the Committee. In addition, federal regulations require that the Principal Investigator promptly report, in writing any unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risks to research subjects or others.

By copy of this memorandum, the chairman of your department and/or your major professor is reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in the department, and should review protocols as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Human Research Protection. The Assurance Number is IRB00000446.

Cc: Randy Blass
HSC No. 2013.11385

Dear Participant,

I am conducting a study examining employees' stress in the workplace. I ask a variety of questions relating to the topics listed above. Please read the following details about this research study. At the end of this page, you will be asked to decide whether or not you willingly volunteer to participate in this study.

- The survey is an electronic survey that will likely take approximately 15 minutes to complete. The survey consists of questions focused on your attitudes and behaviors at work.

- It is not uncommon to suspect that a survey may contain tricky or suspicious questions. We guarantee that this is not the case with this survey. Please address each statement carefully, but do not spend considerable time on any particular question.

- Please respond as honestly as possible, even if the information you provide is not favorable. A danger is for respondents to select what they *want to do* or what they think is ideal to do and not what they actually do. Please answer questions based on your actual attitudes and behaviors.

- Your responses will remain completely confidential. There is no way of connecting you with your employer and we will not attempt to contact your employer.

- Your participation in this study is voluntary. There is no penalty for not participating, and you will be compensated even if you withdraw participation.

- You are at minor risk of minor psychological discomfort while filling out the questionnaire.

- Information gathered during this study will be combined with the responses of others for research purposes only. The results of the research study may be published, but neither your name nor any other type of identifiable information will ever be used.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please feel free to contact me or my research advisor, Dr. Randy Blass. You may also contact the Human Subjects Committee at The Florida State University if you have additional concerns about this study.

Do you, as an adult, give your consent to participate in this study? By checking 'yes' below, you indicate that you understand the information above and agree to participate in the study.

YES ☐ NO ☐

Sincerely,
Jeremy Mackey, Ph.D. Candidate
Department of Management, FSU College of Business

APPENDIX E

MATHIEU ET AL.'S (1992) FORMULAE FOR CONTINUOUS MODERATION IN SEM ANALYSES

Reliability of the Interaction Term

$$r_{\xi1,\xi2 \cdot \xi1,\xi2} = \left[\left(\left(r_{\xi1 \cdot \xi1} * r_{\xi2 \cdot \xi2}\right) + r_{\xi1\xi2}{}^{2}\right)/\left(1 + r_{\xi1\xi2}{}^{2}\right)\right]$$

Standardized Loading of the Single Item Used as an Indicator of the Interaction Term

$$\lambda_{\xi1,\xi2 \cdot \xi1,\xi2} = \sqrt{r_{\xi1,\xi2 \cdot \xi1,\xi2}} = \sqrt{reliability\ of\ int.term}$$

Theta Delta Value

$$\theta\delta_{\xi1,\xi2 \cdot \xi1,\xi2} = \left[\left(1 - r_{\xi1,\xi2 \cdot \xi1,\xi2}\right) * r_{\xi1,\xi2 \cdot \xi1,\xi2}\right]$$
$$= (1 - reliability\ of\ int.term) * variance\ of\ the\ scale$$

REFERENCES

Abramson, L. Y., Seligman, M. E. P., & Teasdale, J. D. (1978). Learned helplessness in humans: Critique and reformulation. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 87*(1), 49-74.

Adler, A. B., Bliese, P. D., McGurk, D., Hoge, C. W., & Castro, C. A. (2009). Battlemind debriefing and battlemind training as early interventions with soldiers returning from Iraq: Randomization by platoon. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 77*(5), 928-940.

Aguinis, H., & Glavas, A. (2012). What we know and don't know about corporate social responsibility: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management, 38*(4), 932-968.

Aguinis, H., & Lawal, S. O. (2012). Conducting field experiments using eLancing's natural environment. *Journal of Business Venturing, 27*, 493-505.

Aguinis, H., & Vandenberg, R. J. (2014). An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure: Improving research quality before data collection. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 1*, 569-595.

Ahearn, K. K., Ferris, G. R., Hochwarter, W. A., Douglas, C., & Ammeter, A. P. (2004). Leader political skill and team performance. *Journal of Management, 30*, 309-327.

Aldwin, C. M., & Revenson, T. A. (1987). Does coping help? A reexamination of the relation between coping and mental health. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53*, 337-348.

American Psychiatric Association. (1994). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (4th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*(3), 411-423.

Arbuckle, J. L. (2005). *Amos 6.0 user's guide*. Chicago, IL: SPSS, Inc.

Arthur, M. B., Khapova, S. N., & Wilderom, C. P. (2005). Career success in a boundaryless career world. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*, 177-202.

Arthur, M. B., & Rousseau, D. M. (1996). *The boundaryless career: A new employment principle for a new organizational era*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Ashforth, B. E. (2001). *Role transitions in organizational life: An identity-based perspective.* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Ashkanasy, N. M. (2010). Publishing today is more difficult than ever. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*, 1-3.

Ashmore, R. D., Deaux, K., & McLaughlin-Volpe, T. (2004). An organizing framework for collective identity: Articulation and significance of multidimensionality. *Psychological Bulletin, 130*(1), 80-114.

Bacharach, S. B., Bamberger, P. A., & Sonnenstuhl, W. J. (2002). Driven to drink: Managerial control, work-related risk factors, and employee problem drinking. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*(4), 637-658.

Bagozzi, R. P., Yi, Y., & Singh, S. (1991). On the use of structural equation models in experimental designs: Two extensions. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 8*, 125-140.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22*(3), 309-328.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Euwema, M. C. (2005). Job resources buffer the impact of job demands on burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10,* 170-180.

Bakker, A. B., ten Brummelhuis, L. L., Prins, J. T., & van der Heijden, F. M. M. A. (2011). Applying the job demands-resources model to the work-home interface: A study among medical residents and their partners. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 79*, 170-180.

Bamberger, P. A., & Bacharach, S. B. (2006). Abusive supervision and subordinate problem drinking: Taking resistance, stress, and subordinate personality into account. *Human Relations, 59*, 723-752.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*, 248-287.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1173-1182.

Baron, R. A., & Richardson, D. R. (1994). *Human aggression* (2nd ed.). New York: Plenum Press.

Bauer, T. N., Morrison, E. W., & Callister, R. R. (1998). Organizational socialization: A review and directions for future research. *Research in personnel and human resource management, 16*, 149-214.

Baumeister, R., & Heatherton, T. (1996). Self-regulation failure: An overview. *Psychological Inquiry, 7*(1), 1-15.

Baumeister, R. F., Heatherton, T. F., & Tice, D. M. (1994). *Losing control: How and why people fail at self-regulation*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 117*(3), 497-529.

Baumeister, R. F., & Tierney, J. (2011). *Willpower: Rediscovering the greatest human strength*. New York: The Penguin Press.

Baumeister, R. F., Vohs, K. D., & Tice, D. M. (2007). The strength model of self-control. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 16*(6), 351-355.

Beauchesne, K. O. (2012). *Gulf War Vets: The richest of resources*. Parker, CO: Outskirts Press, Inc.

Bech, P., Olsen, L. R., Kjoller, M., & Rasmussen, N. K. (2003). Measuring well-being rather than the absence of distress symptoms: A comparison of the SF-36 mental health subscale and the WHO-Five well-being scale. *International Journal of Methods in Psychiatric Research, 12*(2), 85-91.

Becker, T. E. (2005). Potential problems in the statistical control of variables in organizational research: A qualitative analysis with recommendations. *Organizational Research Methods, 8*(3), 274-289.

Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(3), 349-360.

Brees, J. R., Mackey, J., & Martinko, M. J. (2013). An attributional perspective of aggression in organizations. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 28*(3), 252-272.

Brown, S., & Leigh, T. (1996). A new look at psychological climate and its relationship to job involvement, effort, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*, 358-368.

Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk: A new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality, data? *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 6*(1), 3-5.

Byrne, A., Dionisi, A. M., Barling, J., Akers, A., Robertson, J., Lys, R., Wylie, J., & Dupré, K. (2014). The depleted leader: The influence of leaders' diminished psychological resources on leadership behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly, 35*(2), 344-357.

Beehr, T. A., & Glazer, S. (2001). A cultural perspective of social support in relation to occupational stress. In P. L. Perrewé & D. C. Ganster (Eds.), *Research in occupational stress and well being* (Vol. 1, pp. 97-102). Oxford, UK: Elsevier Science Ltd.

Berkowitz, L. (1988). Frustrations, appraisals, and aversively stimulated aggression. *Aggressive Behavior, 14*(1), 3-11.

Bies, R. J., & Tripp, T. M. (1996). Revenge in organizations: The good, the bad, and the ugly. In R. W. Griffin, A. O'Leary-Kelly & J. M. Collins (Eds.), *Dysfunctional behavior in organizations: Violent and deviant behavior*. Stamford, CT: JAI Press.

Bischoff, S. J., & Terborg, J. R. (1995). *Job strain and PAQ job dimensions: Effects on employee heart disease risk*. Paper presented at the annual Academy of Management Meeting, Vacouver, BC, Canada.

Brief, A. P., & Weiss, H. M. (2002). Organizational behavior: Affect in the workplace. *Annual Review of Psychology, 53*, 279-307.

Cable, D. M., & Parsons, C. K. (2001). Socialization tactics and person-organization fit. *Personnel Psychology, 54*(1), 1-23.

Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, D., & Klesh, J. (1979). *The Michigan organizational assessment questionnaire*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan.

Cannon, W. B. (1932). *The wisdom of the body* (2nd ed.). New York: Norton.

Carlier, I., Schulte-Van Maaren, Y., Wardenaar, K., Giltay, E., Van Noorden, M., Vergeer, P., & Zitman, F. (2012). Development and validation of the 48-item Symptom Questionnaire (SQ-48) in patients with depressive, anxiety and somatoform disorders. *Psychiatry Research, 200*, 904-910.

Carlson, K. D., & Wu, J. (2012). The illusion of statistical control: Control variable practice in management research. *Organizational Research Methods, 15*(3), 413-435.

Carrigan, M. H., & Randall, C. L. (2003). Self-medication in social phobia: A review of the alcohol literature. *Addictive Behaviors, 28*, 269-284.

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1981). Attention and self-regulation: A control-theory approach to human behavior. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Cavanaugh, M. A., Boswell, W. R., Roehling, M. V., & Boudreau, J. W. (2000). An empirical examination of self-reported work stress among U.S. managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*, 65-74.

Chang, C.-H., Rosen, C. C., & Levy, P. E. (2009). The relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and employee attitudes, strain, and behavior: A meta-analytic examination. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*(4), 779-801.

Chase, V., Neild, R., Sadler, C. W., & Batey, R. G. (2005). The medical complications of alcohol use: Understanding mechanisms to improve management. *Drug and Alcohol Review, 24*, 253-265.

Cherpitel, C. J. (2007). Alcohol and injuries: A review of international emergency room studies since 1995. *Drug and Alcohol Review, 26*, 201-214.

Chisholm, R. F., Kasl, S. V., & Eskenazi, B. (1983). The nature and predictors of job related tension in a crisis situation: Reactions of nuclear workers to the Three Mile Island accident. *Academy of Management Journal, 26*(3), 385-405.

Chua, R. (2013). The costs of ambient cultural disharmony: Indirect intercultural conflicts in social environment undermine creativity. *Academy of Management Journal, 56*(6), 1545-1577.

Clore, G. L., & Centerbar, D. B. (2004). Analyzing anger: How to make people mad. *Emotion, 4*(2), 139-144.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S., & Aiken, L. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cohen, S., & Wills, T. A. (1985). Stress, social support, and buffering hypothesis. *Psychological Review, 98*, 310-357.

Cooper, C. L., Dewe, P. J., & O'Driscoll, M. P. (2001). *Organizational stress: A review and critique of theory, research, and applications*. Thousands Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cooper, M. L., Russell, M., & George, W. H. (1988). Coping, expectancies, and alcohol abuse: A test of social learning formulations. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 97*(2), 218-230.

Cortina, J. M., Chen, G., & Dunlap, W. P. (2001). Testing interaction effects in LISREL: Examination and illustration of available procedures. *Organizational Research Methods, 4*(4), 324-360.

Cote, J. A., & Buckley, M. R. (1987). Estimating trait, method, and error variance: Generalizing across 70 construct validation studies. *Journal of Marketing Research, 24*, 315-318.

Crawford, E. R., LePine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. (2010). Linking job demands and resources to employee engagement and burnout: A theoretical extension and meta-analytic test. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(5), 834-848.

Currie, S. L., Day, A., & Kelloway, E. K. (2011). Bringing the troops back home: Modeling the postdeployment reintegration experience. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 16*(1), 38-47.

de Ridder, D. T. D., Lensvelt-Mulders, G., Finkenauer, C., Stok, F. M., & Baumeister, R. F. (2012). Taking stock of self-control: A meta-analysis of how trait self-control relates to a wide range of behaviors. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 16*(1), 76-99.

Demerouti, E., & Bakker, A. B. (2011). The job demands-resources model: Challenges for future research. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology/SA Tydskrif vir Bedryfsielkunde, 37*(2), 1-9.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 499-512.

Department of Veterans Affairs. (March 2010). Fact sheet: VHA suicide prevention program: Facts about veteran suicide [Electronic Version].

Desimone, J. A., Harms, P. D., & Desimone, A. J. (in press). Best practice recommendations for data screening. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*.

Dhillon, K., & Boyd, K. C. (2010). The effect of war stressors and life events on Gulf War Veterans with chronic fatigue syndrome symptoms. *Military Psychology, 22*, 87-97.

Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*(2), 276-302.

Disner, S. G., Beevers, C. G., Lee, H.-J., Ferrell, R. E., Hariri, A. R., & Telch, M. J. (2013). War zone stress interacts with the 5-HTTLPR polymorphism to predict the development of sustained attention for negative emotion stimuli in soldiers returning from Iraq. *Clinical Psychological Science, 1*(4), 413-425.

Dolan, C. A., & Ender, M. G. (2008). The coping paradox: Work, stress, and coping in the U.S. Army. *Military Psychology, 20*, 151-169.

Douglas, S. C., & Martinko, M. J. (2001). Exploring the role of individual differences in the prediction of workplace aggression. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(4), 547-559.

Eden, D. (2002). From the editors. *Academy of Management Review, 11*, 618-634.

Edge, H. J. M., & Ivey, G. W. (2012). Mediation of cognitive appraisal on combat exposure and psychological distress. *Military Psychology, 24*, 71-85.

Edwards, J. R. (2008). Person-environment fit in organizations: An assessment of theoretical progress. *The Academy of Management Annals, 2*(1), 167-230.

Eisenberger, R., Karagonlar, G., Stinglhamber, F., Neves, P., Becker, T. E., Gonzalez-Morales, M. G., et al. (2010). Leader-member exchange and affective organizational commitment: The contribution of supervisor's organizational embodiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(6), 1085-1103.

Ewing, J. A. (1984). Detecting alcoholism: The CAGE questionnaire. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 252*(14), 1905-1907.

Ferris, G. R., Bowen, M. G., Treadway, D. C., Hochwarter, W. A., Hall, A. T., & Perrewé, P. L. (2006). The assumed linearity of organizational phenomena: Implications for occupational stress and well-being. In P. L. Perrewé & D. C. Ganster (Eds.), *Employee health, coping and methodologies (Research in occupational stress and well being)* (Vol. 5, pp. 203-232). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier Ltd.

Ferris, G. R., Treadway, D. C., Perrewé, P. L., Brouer, R. L., Douglas, C., & Lux, S. (2007). Political skill in organizations. *Journal of Management, 33*(3), 290-320.

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (Second ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Field, A., & Hole, G. (2003). *How to design and report experiments*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications Inc.

Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1985). If it changes it must be a process: Study of emotion and coping during three stages of a college examination. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 48*, 150-170.

Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1990). Coping and emotion. In N. L. Stein, B. Leventhal & T. Trabasso (Eds.), *Psychological and biological approaches to emotion* (pp. 313-332). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*(1), 39-50.

Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Miles, D. (2001). Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) in response to job stressors and organizational justice: Some mediator and moderator tests for autonomy and emotions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 59*, 291-309.

Freking, K. (2012, February 3). Obama plans push for veterans jobs programs. *Associated Press (Online).* Retrieved from http://news.yahoo.com/obama-plans-push-veterans-jobs-programs-050920043.html

Frese, M., & Zapf, D. (1988). Methodological issues in the study of work stress: Objective versus subjective measurement of work stress and the question of longitudinal studies. In C. L. Cooper & R. Payne (Eds.), *Causes, coping, and consequences of stress at work* (pp. 375-412). Chichester: St. Edmunsbury Press, John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Frone, M. R. (2013). Alcohol and illicit drug use in the workforce and workplace. In. Washington D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Fuller, J. A., Stanton, J. M., Fisher, G. G., Spitzmüller, C., Russell, S. S., & Smith, P. C. (2003). A lengthy look at the daily grind: Time series analysis of events, mood, stress, and satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(6), 1019-1033.

Gaab, J., Rohleder, N., Nater, U. M., & Ehlert, U. (2005). Psychological determinants of the cortisol stress response: The role of anticipatory cognitive appraisal. *Psychoneuroendocrinology, 30*, 599-610.

Ganster, D. C., & Duffy, M. (1995). *The role of objective occupational demands in determining worker stress and well-being*. Paper presented at the annual Academy of Management Meeting, Vacouver, BC, Canada.

Ganster, D. C., & Rosen, C. C. (2013). Work stress and employee health: A multidisciplinary review. *Journal of Management, 39*(5), 1085-1122.

Gati, I., Ryzhik, T., & Vertsberger, D. (2013). Preparing young veterans for civilian life: The effects of a workshop on career decision-making difficulties and self-efficacy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 83*(3), 373-385.

Geurts, S. A. E., & Demerouti, E. (2003). Work/non-work interface: A review of theories and findings. In M. J. Schabracq, J. A. M. Winnubst & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *The handbook of work and health psychology* (pp. 279-312). Chichester, UK: Wiley.

Gibney, R., Zagenczyk, T. J., & Masters, M. F. (2009). The negative aspects of social exchange: An introduction to perceived organizational obstruction. *Group & Organization Management, 34*(6), 665-697.

Glazer, E. (2011, December 4). Resources to help veterans land a civilian job. *Wall Street Journal (Online)*. Retrieved from http://online.wsj.com/article/SB10001424052970203699404577044052223447854.html

Grant, A. M., & Schwartz, B. (2011). Too much of a good thing: The challenge and opportunity of the inverted U. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 6*(1), 61-76.

Greenberger, D. B., & Strasser, S. (1986). Developing and application of a model of personal control in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 11*, 164-177.

Griffin, M. A., & Clarke, S. (2011). Stress and well-being at work. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 3, pp. 359-397). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Griffin, R. W., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. M. (2004). *The dark side of organizational behavior*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Halbesleben, J. R. B. (2006). Sources of social support and burnout: A meta-analytic test of the conservation of resources model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(5), 1134-1145.

Halbesleben, J. R. B., Neveu, J.-P., Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., & Westman, M. (2014). Getting to the "COR": Understanding the role of resources in conservation of resources theory. *Journal of Management, 40*(5), 1334-1364.

Hamel, G., & Välikangas, L. (2003). The quest for resilience. *Harvard Business Review, 81*(9), 52-65.

Harms, P. D., Krasikova, D. V., Vanhove, A. J., Herian, M. N., & Lester, P. B. (2013). Stress and emotional well-being in military organizations. In P. L. Perrewé, C. C. Rosen & J. Halbesleben (Eds.), *The role of emotion and emotion regulation in job stress and well being (Research in occupational stress and well being)* (Vol. 11, pp. 105-135). Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Harrell, M. C., & Berglass, N. (2011). Losing the battle: The challenge of military suicide [Electronic Version], 1-12.

Harvey, P., Summers, J. K., & Martinko, M. J. (2010). Attributional influences on the outcome-aggression relationship: A review and extension of past research. *International Journal of Organization Theory and Behavior, 13*(2), 174-201.

Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. New York: Wiley.

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44*(3), 513-524.

Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 50*, 337-370.

Hochwarter, W. A., Ferris, G. R., & Hanes, T. J. (2011). Multi-study packages in organizational science research. In D. Ketchen Jr. & D. Bergh (Eds.), *Building methodological bridges: Research methodology in strategy and management* (Vol. 6, pp. 163-199). Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.

Hochwarter, W. A., Laird, M. D., & Brouer, R. L. (2008). Board up the windows: The interactive effects of hurricane-induced job stress and perceived resources on work outcomes. *Journal of Management, 34*(2), 263-289.

Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. J. (2001). *Social identity process in organizational contexts*. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

Hoobler, J. M., Wayne, S. J., & Lemmon, G. (2009). Bosses' perceptions of family-work conflict and women's promotability: Glass ceiling effects. *Academy of Management Journal, 52*(5), 939-957.

House, R. J., & Rizzo, J. R. (1972). Toward the measurement of organizational practices: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 56*(5), 388-396.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling, 6*(1), 1-55.

Hughes, E. C. (1958). *Men and their work*. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.

Janssen, P. P. M., Peeters, M. C. W., de Jonge, J., Houkes, I., & Tummers, G. E. R. (2004). Specific relationships between job demands, job resources and psychological outcomes and the mediating role of negative work-home interference. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 65,* 411-429.

Jex, S. M. (1998). *Stress and job performance: Theory, research, and implications for managerial practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Johnson, R. E., Rosen, C. C., & Djurdjevic, E. (2011). Assessing the impact of common method variance on higher order multidimensional constructs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(4), 744-761.

Judge, T. A., Erez, A., & Thoresen, C. J. (2000). Why negative affectivity (and self-deception) should be included in job stress research: Bathing the baby with the bath water. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21,* 101-111.

Kanfer, R. (2012). Work motivation: Theory, practice, and future directions. In S. W. J. Kozlowski (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational psychology* (pp. 455-495). New York: Oxford University Press.

Kanfer, R., & Heggestad, E. D. (1997). Motivational traits and skills: A person-centered approach to work motivation. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 19, pp. 1-56). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Kang, H. K. (2008). Risk of suicide among US Veterans after returning from the Iraq and Afghanistan war zones. *The Journal of the American Medical Association, 300*(6), 652-653.

Karasek, R. A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain: Implications for job redesign *Administrative Science Quarterly, 24*(2), 285-308.

Katz, L. S., Cojucar, G., Davenport, C., Clarke, S., & Williams, J. C. (2012). War experiences inventory: Initial psychometric and structural properties. *Military Psychology, 24,* 48-70.

Kazemi, D. M., Berry-Cabán, C. S., Becker, C., & Hiebert, J. (2013). Review of interventions designed to address drinking among soldiers. *Military Psychology, 25*(4), 365-380.

Khantzian, E. J. (1997). The self-medication hypothesis of substance use disorders: A reconsideration and recent applications. *Harvard Review of Psychiatry, 4*(5), 231-244.

Kleim, B., Graham, B., Fihosy, S., Stott, R., & Ehlers, A. (2014). Reduced specificity in episodic future thinking in posttraumatic stress disorder. *Clinical Psychological Science, 2*(2), 165-173.

Klein, H. J., & Weaver, N. A. (2000). The effectiveness of an organizational-level orientation training program in the socialization of new hires. *Personnel Psychology, 53*, 47-66.

Kopp, M. S., Thege, B. K., Balog, P., Stauder, A., Salavecz, G., Rózsa, S., Purebl, G., & Ádám, S. (2010). Measures of stress in epidemiological research. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 69*, 211-225.

Kraimer, M. L., Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., & Ren, H. (2012). No place like home? An identity strain perspective on repatriate turnover. *Academy of Management Journal, 55*(2), 399-420.

Kreiner, G. E., Hollensbe, E. C., & Sheep, M. L. (2006). Where is the "me" among the "we"? Identity work and the search for optimal balance. *Academy of Management Journal, 49*, 1031-1057.

Lanivich, S. E., Brees, J. R., Hochwarter, W. A., & Ferris, G. R. (2010). P-E fit as moderator of the accountability - employee reactions relationships: Convergent results across two samples. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 77*, 425-436.

Lazarus, R. S. (1966). *Psychological stress and the coping process*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Lazarus, R. S. (1968). Emotions and adaptation: Conceptual and empirical relations. In W. J. Arnold (Ed.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation* (pp. 175-266). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

Lazarus, R. S. (1984). On the primacy of cognition. *American Psychologist, 39*(2), 124-129.

Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Psychological stress in the workplace. In P. L. Perrewé (Ed.), *Handbook on Job Stress [Special Issue], Journal of Social Behavior and Personality* (Vol. 6, pp. 1-13).

Lazarus, R. S. (1993). From psychological stress to the emotions: A history of changing outlooks. *Annual Review of Psychology, 44*, 1-21.

Lazarus, R. S. (1994). Psychological stress in the workplace. In R. Crandall & P. L. Perrewé (Eds.), *Occupational Stress: A Handbook*. New York: Taylor and Francis.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York: Springer.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1987). Transactional theory and research on emotions and coping. *European Journal of Personality, 1*, 141-169.

Lengnick-Hall, C. A., & Beck, T. E. (2005). Adaptive fit versus robust transformation: How organizations respond to environmental change. *Journal of Management, 31*(5), 738-757.

LePine, J. A., LePine, M. A., & Jackson, C. L. (2004). Challenge and hindrance stress: Relationships with exhaustion, motivation to learn, and learning performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(5), 883-891.

LePine, J. A., LePine, M. A., & Saul, J. R. (2007). Relationships among work and non-work challenge and hindrance stressors and non-work and work criteria: A model of cross-domain stressor effects. In P. L. Perrewé & D. C. Ganster (Eds.), *Exploring the work and non-work interface (Research in occupational stress and well being)* (pp. 35-72). Oxford, UK: Elsevier Ltd.

LePine, J. A., Podsakoff, N. P., & LePine, M. A. (2005). A meta-analytic test of the challenge stressor-hindrance stressor framework: An explanation for inconsistent relationships among stressors and performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 48*(5), 764-775.

Leymann, H. (1990). Mobbing and psychological terror at workplaces. *Violence and Victims, 5*(2), 119-126.

Little, T. D., Cunningham, W. A., Shahar, G., & Widaman, K. F. (2002). To parcel or not to parcel: Exploring the question, weighing the merits. *Structural Equation Modeling, 9*(2), 151-173.

Liu, S., Wang, M., Bamberger, P., Shi, J., & Bacharach, S. B. (in press). The dark side of socialization: A longitudinal investigation of newcomer alcohol use. *Academy of Management Journal*.

Locke, E. A. (1969). What is job satisfaction? *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 4*, 309-336.

Lu, S. (2012, March 28). Veterans battle PTSD stigma - even if they don't have it. *Today (Online)*. Retrieved from http://todayhealth.today.msnbc.msn.com/_news/2012/03/28/10890087-veterans-battle-ptsd-stigma-even-if-they-dont-have-it?chromedomain=Hiringourheroes

Luthar, S. A., Cicchetti, D., & Becker, B. (2000). The construct of resilience: A critical evaluation and guidelines for future work. *Child Development, 74*, 543-562.

Lykken, D. (1968). Statistical significance in psychological research. *Psychological Bulletin, 70*, 151-159.

Mackey, J. D., & Perrewé, P. L. (2014). The AAA (appraisals, attributions, adaptation) model of job stress: The critical role of self-regulation. *Organizational Psychology Review, 4*(3), 258-278.

Martinko, M. J., Douglas, S. C., Harvey, P., & Joseph, C. (2005). Managing organizational aggression. In R. Kidwell & C. Martin (Eds.), *Managing organizational deviance* (pp. 237-260). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Martinko, M. J., & Gardner, W. L. (1982). Learned helplessness: An alternative explanation for performance deficits. *Academy of Management Review, 7*(2), 195-204.

Martinko, M. J., Gundlach, M. J., & Douglas, S. C. (2002). Toward an integrative theory of counterproductive workplace behavior: A causal reasoning perspective. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 10*(1-2), 36-50.

Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., & Mackey, J. D. (2014). Conceptual and empirical confounds in the organizational sciences: An explication and discussion. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 35*(8), 1052-1063.

Martinko, M. J., & Zellars, K. L. (1998). Toward a theory of workplace violence: A cognitive appraisal perspective. In R. W. Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly A, Collins J. M. (Ed.), *Dysfunctional behavior in organizations: Violent and deviant behavior* (pp. 1-42). Stamford, CT: JAI Press.

Mason, W., & Suri, S. (2012). Conducting behavioral research on Amazon's Mechanical Turk. *Behavior Research Methods, 44*(1), 1-23.

Masten, A. (1994). Resilience in individual development: Successful adaptation despite risk and adversity. In M. C. Wang & E. W. Gordon (Eds.), *Educational resilience in inner-city America: Challenges and prospects* (pp. 3-25). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Masten, A. (2001). Ordinary magic: Resilience processes in development. *American Psychologist, 56*(3), 227-238.

Mathieu, J. E., Tannenbaum, S. I., & Salas, E. (1992). Influences of individual and situational characteristics on measures of training effectiveness. *Academy of Management Journal, 35*(4), 828-847.

McAllister, C. P., Mackey, J. D., Hackney, K. J., & Perrewé, P. L. (in press). From combat to khakis: An exploratory examination of job stress with Veterans. *Military Psychology*.

McDowell, I. (2010). Measures of self-perceived well-being. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 69*, 69-79.

McGrath, J. E. (1976). Stress and behavior in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1351-1396). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

McQuitty, S. (2004). Statistical power and structural equation models in business research. *Journal of Business Research, 57,* 175-183.

Meijman, T. F., & Mulder, G. (1998). Psychological aspects of workload. In P. J. Drenth, H. Thierry & C. J. de Wolff (Eds.), *Handbook of work and organisational psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 5-33). Hove, UK: Erlbaum.

Melin, B., Lundberg, U., Söderlund, J., & Granqvist, M. (1999). Psychological and physiological stress reactions of male and female assembly workers: A comparison between two different forms of work organization. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20,* 47-62.

Meurs, J. A., & Perrewé, P. L. (2011). Cognitive activation theory of stress: An integrative theoretical approach to work stress. *Journal of Management, 37,* 1043-1066.

Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2007). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance and the moderating effects of negative reciprocity beliefs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(4), 1159-1168.

Muraven, M., & Baumeister, R. F. (2000). Self-regulation and depletion of limited resources: Does self-control resemble a muscle? *Psychological Bulletin, 126*(2), 247-259.

Muraven, M., Baumeister, R. F., & Tice, D. M. (1999). Longitudinal improvement of self-regulation through practice: Building self-control strength through repeated exercise. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 139*(4), 446-457.

Neale, M. C. (2000). Individual fit, heterogeneity, and missing data in multigroup structural equation modeling. In T. D. Little, K. U. Schnabel & J. Baumert (Eds.), *Modeling longitudinal and multilevel data: Practical issues, applied approaches, and specific examples* (pp. 224-242). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Netemeyer, R. G., Boles, J. S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work-family conflict and family-work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(4), 400-410.

Nicholson, N. (1984). A theory of work role transitions. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 29,* 172-191.

O'Mahony, S., & Bechky, B. A. (2006). Stretchwork: Managing the career progression paradox in external labor markets. *Academy of Management Journal, 49,* 918-941.

Park, A. (2011, December 5). The two faces of anxiety. Health Special. *Time (Online).* Retrieved from http://www.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,2100106,00.html

Peacock, E. J., Wong, P. T., & Reker, G. T. (1993). Relations between appraisals and coping schemas: Support for the congruence model. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 25*, 64-80.

Perrewé, P. L., Zellars, K. L., Ferris, G. R., Rossi, A. M., Kacmar, C. J., & Ralston, D. A. (2004). Neutralizing job stressors: Political skill as an antidote to the dysfunctional consequences of role conflict. *Academy of Management Journal, 47*(1), 141-152.

Perrewé, P. L., Zellars, K. L., Rossi, A. M., Ferris, G. R., Kacmar, C. J., Liu, Y., Zinko, R., & Hochwarter, W. A. (2005). Political skill: An antidote in the role overload-strain relationship. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10*(3), 239-250.

Perrewé, P. L., & Zellars, K. L. (1999). An examination of attributions and emotions in the transactional approach to the organizational stress process. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*, 739-752.

Petrick, J. A., Scherer, R. F., Brodzinski, J. D., Quinn, J. F., & Ainina, M. F. (1999). Global leadership skills and reputational capital: Intangible resources for sustainable competitive advantage. *Academy of Management Executive, 13*(1), 58-69.

Phillips, J. M., Gully, S. M., McCarthy, J. E., Castellano, W. G., & Kim, M. S. (2014). Recruiting global travelers: The role of global travel recruitment messages and individual differences in perceived fit, attraction, and job pursuit intentions. *Personnel Psychology, 67*(1), 153-201.

Pierce, J. R., & Aguinis, H. (2013). The too-much-of-a-good-thing effect in management. *Journal of Management, 39*(2), 313-338.

Podsakoff, N. P., LePine, J. A., & LePine, M. A. (2007). Differential challenge stressor-hindrance stressor relationships with job attitudes, turnover intentions, turnover and withdrawal behavior: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(2), 438-454.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(5), 879-903.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social science research and recommendations on how to control it. *Annual Review of Psychology, 63*, 539-569.

Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Welsh, D. T., & Mai, K. M. (2013). Surveying for "artifacts": The susceptibility of the OCB-performance evaluation relationship to common rater, item, and measurement context effects. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98*(5), 863-874.

Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M. R. (2006, December). Strategy and society: The link between competitive advantage and corporate social responsibility. *Harvard Business Review*, 78-93.

Reich, J. W., Zautra, A. J., & Hall, J. S. (2010). *Handbook of adult resilience*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Reinartz, W., Haenlein, M., & Henseler, J. (2009). An empirical comparison of the efficacy of covariance-based and variance-based SEM. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 26*, 332-344.

Richardson, K. M., & Rothstein, H. R. (2008). Effects of occupational stress management intervention programs: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 13*(1), 69-93.

Rigdon, E. E. (1994). Calculating degrees of freedom for a structural equation model. *Structural Equation Modeling, 1*(3), 274-278.

Ritsner, M., Modai, I., & Ponizovsky, A. (2002). Assessing psychological distress in psychiatric patients: Validation of the Talbieh Brief Distress Inventory. *Comprehensive Psychiatry, 43*(3), 229-234.

Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(2), 555-572.

Rodriguez-Muñoz, A., Sanz-Vergel, A. I., Demerouti, E., & Bakker, A. B. (2012). Reciprocal relationships between job demands, job resources, and recovery opportunities. *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 11*(2), 86-94.

Rogers, W. M., & Schmitt, N. (2004). Parameter recovery and model fit using multidimensional composites: A comparison of four empirical parceling algorithms. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 39*(3), 379-412.

Rutter, M. (1987). Psychosocial resilience and protective mechanisms. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 57*(3), 316-331.

Salanova, M., Agut, S., & Peiró, J. M. (2005). Linking organizational resources and work engagement to employee performance and customer loyalty: The mediation of service climate. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(6), 1217-1227.

Savickas, M. L. (2002). Career construction: A developmental theory of vocational behavior. In D. Brown (Ed.), *Career choice and development* (4th ed., pp. 149-205). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2003). *Test manual for the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale*. Unpublished manuscript, Utrecht University, the Netherlands. Retrieved from http://www.schaufeli.com

Schmidt, S. (2009). Shall we really do it again? The powerful concept of replication is neglected in the social sciences. *Review of General Psychology, 13*, 90-100.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology, 40*, 437-453.

Schwab, D. P. (1999). *Research methods for organizational studies*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Selye, H. (1956). *The stress of life*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Selye, H. (1976). *The stress of life*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Shirom, A. (2003). Feeling vigorous at work? The construct of vigor and the study of positive affect in organizations. In D. Ganster & P. L. Perrewé (Eds.), *Emotional and physiological processes and positive intervention strategies (Research in occupational stress and well-being)* (Vol. 3, pp. 135-165). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Shirom, A., Toker, S., Berliner, S., Shapira, I., & Melamed, S. (2008). The effects of physical fitness and feeling vigorous on self-rated health. *Health Psychology, 27*(5), 567-575.

Sinha, R., & Li, C.-S. R. (2007). Imaging stress- and cue-induced drug and alcohol craving: Association with relapse and clinical implications. *Drug and Alcohol Review, 26*, 25-31.

Siniscalchi, J. M., Kimmel, K. D., Couturier, L. E., & Murray, R. (2011). Stress management and the motives of restorative events at the United States Coast Guard Academy. *Military Psychology, 23*, 332-349.

Smith, A., Brice, C., Collins, A., Matthews, V., & McNamara, R. (2000). *The scale of occupational stress: A further analysis of the impact of demographic factors and type of job*. Cardiff, Wales: School of Psychology, Cardiff University.

Spector, P. E. (2006). Method variance in organizational research: Truth or urban legend? *Organizational Research Methods, 9*(2), 221-232.

Spector, P. E., Chen, P. Y., & O'Connell, B. J. (2000). A longitudinal study of relations between job stressors and job strains while controlling for prior negative affectivity and strains. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*, 211-218.

Spector, P. E., Zapf, D., Chen, P. Y., & Frese, M. (2000). Why negative affectivity should not be controlled in job stress research: Don't throw the baby out with the bath water. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*, 79-95.

Sprouse, J. (2011). A validation of Amazon Mechanical Turk for the collection of acceptability judgments in linguistic theory. *Behavior Research Methods, 43*(1), 155-167.

Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M., & Baumgartner, H. (1998). Assessing measurement invariance in cross-national consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 25*, 78-90.

Stone, E., & Hollenbeck, J. (1989). Clarifying some controversial issues surrounding statistical procedures for detecting moderator variables: Empirical evidence and related matters. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*, 3-10.

Stone, C., & Stone, D. L. (2015). Factors affecting hiring decisions about veterans. *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(1), 68-79.

Stone-Romero, E., & Liakhovitski, D. (2002). Strategies for detecting moderator variables: A review of theory and research. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 21*, 333-372.

Stoner, J., Perrewé, P. L., & Hofacker, C. (2011). The development and validation of the multi-dimensional identification scale (MDIS). *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 41*, 1632-1658.

Stryker, S., & Burke, P. J. (2000). The past, present, and future of an identity theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 63*, 284-297.

Sturm, R. (2002). The effects of obesity, smoking, and drinking on medical problems and costs. *Health Affairs, 21*(2), 245-253.

Taft, C. T., Kaloupek, D. G., Schumm, J. A., Marshall, A. D., Panuzio, J., King, D. W., & Keane, T. M. (2007). Posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms, physiological reactivity, alcohol problems, and aggression among military Veterans. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 116*(3), 498-507.

Tajfel, H. (1972). Social categorization (English translation of "La Catégoristion sociale"). In S. Moscovici (Ed.), *Introduction á la psychologie sociale* (Vol. 1, pp. 272-302). Paris, FR: Larousse.

Tangney, J. P., Baumeister, R. F., & Boone, A. L. (2004). High self-control predicts good adjustment, less pathology, better grades, and interpersonal success. *Journal of Personality, 72*(2), 271-324.

ten Brummelhuis, L. L., & Bakker, A. B. (2012). A resource perspective on the work-home interface: The work-home resources model. *American Psychologist, 67*(7), 545-556.

Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(2), 178-190.

Tepper, B. J., Carr, J. C., Breaux, D. M., Geider, S., Hu, C., & Hua, W. (2009). Abusive supervision, intentions to quit, and employees' workplace deviance: A power/dependence analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 109,* 156-167.

Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2012). Development and validation of the job crafting scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 80*, 173-186.

Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2013). The impact of job crafting on job demands, job resources, and well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 18*(2), 230-240.

Uhlmann, E. L., Heaphy, E., Ashford, S. J., Zhu, L., & Sanchez-Burks, J. (2013). Acting professional: An exploration of culturally bounded norms against nonwork role referencing. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 34*, 866-886.

Valcour, P. M., & Tolbert, P. S. (2003). Gender, family, and career in the era of boundarylessness: Determinants and effects of intra- and interorganizational mobility. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 14*, 768-787.

Van den Broeck, A., de Cuyper, N., de Witte, H., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2010). Not all job demands are equal: Differentiating job hindrances and job challenges in the job demands-resources model. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 19*(6), 735-759.

van den Heuvel, M., Demerouti, E., Schreurs, B. H. J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2009). Does meaning-making help during organizational change? Development and validation of a new scale. *Career Development International, 14*(6), 508-533.

Van Maanen, J., & Schein, E. (1979). Toward a theory of organizational socialization. In B. M. Staw (Ed.), *Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 1, pp. 209-264). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Vinokur, A. D., Pierce, P. F., Lewandowski-Romps, L., Hobfoll, S. E., & Galea, S. (2011). Effects of war exposure on Air Force personnel's mental health, job burnout and other organizational related outcomes. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 16*(1), 3-17.

Vohs, K. D., & Baumeister, R. F. (2011). *Handbook of self-regulation: Research, theory and applications* (Second ed.). New York: The Guilford Press.

Walker, J. A. (July, 2010). Employment and earnings of recent veterans: Data from the CPS. *Monthly Labor Review,* 3-9.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*(6), 1063-1070.

Watson, D., & Pennebaker, J. W. (1989). Health complaints, stress, and distress: Exploring the central role of negative affectivity. *Psychological Review, 96*, 234-254.

Webster, J. R., Beehr, T. A., & Christiansen, N. D. (2010). Toward a better understanding of the effects of hindrance and challenge stressors on work behavior. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 76*, 68-77.

Webster, J. R., Beehr, T. A., & Love, K. (2011). Extending the challenge-hindrance model of occupational stress: The role of appraisal. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 79*, 505-516.

Weiner, B. (1979). A theory of motivation for some classroom experiences. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 71*, 3-25.

Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review, 92*(4), 548-573.

Weiner, B. (1986). *An attributional theory of motivation and emotion*. New York: Springer.

Weiner, B. (1995). *Judgments of responsibility: A foundation of a theory of social conduct*. New York: Guilford Press.

Weiss, H. M. (2002). Deconstructing job satisfaction: Separating evaluations, beliefs and affective experiences. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*, 173-194.

Westat (2010, October 18). National survey of veterans, active duty service members, demobilized national guard and reserve members, family members, and surviving spouses. Retrieved from http://www.va.gov/vetdata/docs/SurveysAndStudies/NVSSurveyFinalWeightedReport.pdf

Wheeler, A. R., Buckley, M. R., Halbesleben, J. R. B., Brouer, R. L., & Ferris, G. R. (2005). "The elusive criterion of fit" revisited: Toward an integrative theory of multidimensional fit. In J. J. Martocchio (Ed.), *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management* (Vol. 24, pp. 265-304). Oxford, UK: Elsevier Ltd.

Wheeler, A. R., & Halbesleben, J. R. B. (2009). *A conservation of resources view of person-environment fit*. Paper presented at the 3rd Global e-Conference on Fit.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management, 17*(3), 601-617.

Williams, R. A., Hagerty, B. M., Brasington, S. J., Clem, J. B., & Williams, D. A. (2010). Stress gym: Feasibility of deploying a web-enhanced behavioral self-management program for stress in a military setting. *Military Medicine, 175*(7), 487-493.

Williams, L. J., Vandenberg, R. J., & Edwards, J. R. (2009). Structural equation modeling in management research: A guide for improved analysis. *The Academy of Management Annals, 3*(1), 543-604.

Wood, W., Wong, F. Y., & Chachere, J. G. (1991). Effects of media violence on viewers' aggression in unconstrained social interaction. *Psychological Bulletin, 109*(3), 371-383.

Wrzesniewski, A., & Dutton, J. E. (2001). Crafting a job: Revisioning employees as active crafters of their work. *Academy of Management Review, 26*, 179-201.

Xie, J. L., & Schaubroeck, J. (2001). Bridging approaches and findings across diverse disciplines to improve job stress research. In P. L. Perrewé & D. C. Ganster (Eds.), *Research in occupational stress and well being* (Vol. 1, pp. 1-53). Oxford, England: Elsevier Science.

Zajonc, E. (1984). On the primacy of affect. *American Psychologist, 39*(2), 117-123.

Zellars, K. L., Tepper, B. J., & Duffy, M. K. (2002). Abusive supervision and subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 1068-1076.

Zhang, Y., LePine, J. A., Buckman, B. R., & Wei, F. (2014). It's not fair...or is it? The role of justice and leadership in explaining work stressor-job performance relationships. *Academy of Management Journal, 57*(3), 675-697.

Zhao, X., Lynch, J. G., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research, 37*, 197-206.

Zijlema, W. L., Stolk, R. P., Löwe, B., Rief, W., BioSHaRE, White, P. D., & Rosmalen, J. G. M. (2013). How to assess common somatic symptoms in large-scale studies: A systematic review of questionnaires. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 74*, 459-468.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Jeremy David Mackey was born in Norfolk, Virginia in 1988. Jeremy received his B.S. in Finance in May 2010 from Virginia Tech. Prior to beginning the Ph.D. program in Organizational Behavior and Human Resources at Florida State University in August 2010, Jeremy interned as a research assistant at the Institute for Socio-Financial Studies in 2009 and tutored for Virginia Tech Student Athlete Academic Support Services in 2010.

Jeremy's research interests include interpersonal mistreatment, abusive supervision, job stress, and attribution theory. Some of his research has been published in the *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *Journal of Business Ethics*, *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Organizational Psychology Review*, and *The Leadership Quarterly*. Jeremy's research has been presented at the Academy of Management, Southern Management Association, Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, and Industrial & Organisational Psychology annual meetings, as well as at the Work, Stress, and Health semiannual meeting. His submission to the 2013 Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) Annual Conference (Houston) was Winner of the John Flanagan Award for the Outstanding Student Contribution to the 2013 SIOP Conference Program (shared with fellow Florida State University doctoral student B. Parker Ellen III) and was included in the Featured Top-Rated Posters Session at the All-Conference Reception.

Jeremy has received numerous scholarships and grants as a result of his academic success at Florida State University, including the Graduate Tuition Scholarship Fund Scholarship, College Teaching Fellowship, Florida State University Graduate Grant, and the Florida State University 5th Year Research Grant. Also, Jeremy has received several grants to support his

research, including grants funded by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) Pilot Research Project through the Sunshine Education and Research Center at the University of South Florida, a research grant jointly offered by The Graduate School, the Congress of Graduate Students (COGS), the Office of the Provost, and the Office of Research at Florida State University through the Dissertation Research Grant program, and a research grant offered by the Center for Veteran Outreach at Florida State University.

In his spare time, Jeremy enjoys spending time with his family and friends, playing soccer, riding his motorcycle, and driving his car.