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**EXPLORING THE MEDIATING MECHANISM BETWEEN
IDIOSYNCRATIC DEALS AND OCCUPATIONAL WELL-
BEING IN THE CHINESE HOTEL INDUSTRY**

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PhD

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

2020

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

School of Hotel and Tourism Management

**Exploring the Mediating Mechanism between Idiosyncratic Deals
and Occupational Well-Being in the Chinese Hotel Industry**

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**A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

March 2020

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ABSTRACT

This study evaluates the influence of idiosyncratic deals (i-deals) on knowledge workers' occupational well-being (OWB) via organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) and work-life balance (WLB) in the Chinese hotel industry. Although traditional human resource management (HRM) practices in the hotel industry maintain a fair workplace by providing employees with long-term standardized employment arrangements (e.g., fixed schedules or compensation plans), these common standard employment arrangements may not be effective in promoting knowledge workers' well-being in the workplace. In the knowledge economy, knowledge workers have become the core of an enterprise's competitiveness and the key to competition for talent. Their specific characteristics have challenged traditional HRM practices for recruiting, motivating, and retaining knowledge workers. In addition, the labor-intensive Chinese hotel industry is characterized by poor employee well-being, high staff turnover rates, and fierce competition for talent. This phenomenon has inspired researchers to rethink HRM strategies to promote knowledge workers' OWB. I-deals, as new HRM practices, have proven to be effective strategies to improve knowledge workers' work-related attitudes and behaviors and thus to help to recruit, motivate, and retain them in manufacturing and other industries. However, few researchers have discussed the application of i-deals in the hotel industry and the mechanism by which i-deals affect the OWB of knowledge workers.

To fill this research gap, this study uses a sample of 675 middle and senior managers from four- and five-star hotels in China to collect data on the characteristics of knowledge workers and the hotel industry. It introduces a measurement scale for i-deals in the hotel industry and tests a new conceptual model based on the job demands-resources (JD-R) model with i-deals as determinants, OBSE and WLB as mediators, and OWB as an outcome. Structural equation modeling is used to identify how i-deals influence OBSE, WLB, and OWB and to examine the mediating effects of OBSE and WLB on the relationship between i-deals and OWB. An independent-samples *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance are conducted to determine the

relations between i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB among various employee groups (e.g., according to age, tenure, gender, position).

The findings of Study 1 reveal three types of hospitality i-deals — (1) career and incentives i-deals, (2) task i-deals, and (3) flexibility i-deals — and confirm the reliability and validity of the hospitality i-deals scale. The results of Study 2 show that both task i-deals and career and incentives i-deals have positive effects on OBSE and WLB and indirect effects on OWB via OBSE and WLB, whereas flexibility i-deals have negative effects on OBSE and WLB and indirect effects on OWB via OBSE and WLB. In addition, the independent-samples *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance in Study 2 suggest that an individual's success in negotiation of i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB depend on both individual (e.g., marital status, children, age, education, job nature, tenure, position level) and organizational factors (e.g., hotel management contract).

By testing the hypothesized model, this study enriches our theoretical and empirical understanding of i-deals and helps psychology and organizational behavior researchers to understand the types of i-deals knowledge workers can obtain and the role played by i-deals in the formation mechanism of knowledge workers' OWB in the hotel industry. This will help employers in the Chinese hotel industry develop guidelines and recommendations on the issues of job burnout, turnover, and labor conflict. In addition, this study also offers a reference for hotel employers on knowledge workers' self-evaluations of their employment arrangements, value, competence, importance, role balance, and happiness in various hotels.

Keywords: idiosyncratic deals; occupational well-being; organization-based self-esteem; work-life balance; mediating effect; structural equation modeling

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to everyone who motivated and helped me during the writing of this thesis.

My deepest gratitude goes first and foremost to my chief supervisor, Prof. Haiyan Song, under whose careful guidance this thesis was completed. From the research proposal to the thesis, he provided me with patient guidance, insightful criticism, and professional guidance. He devoted much of his time to reading my manuscripts and providing suggestions for further revision. When I came across the problem of finding qualified participants for my in-depth interviews and questionnaire survey, he helped to contact many hotel executives and academic professionals for my research. I have also published several journal and conference papers under his careful guidance.

I am also deeply indebted to all the committee members and reviewers who spent their time reviewing my research proposal and thesis. Their valuable comments and suggestions are greatly appreciated. I also gratefully acknowledge the help of Prof. Haiyan Kong, who introduced me to some of the participants in my in-depth interviews. I also greatly appreciate the selfless help of my teachers and colleagues on my research ideas and methods.

Finally, I would like to express my gratitude to my family, who always believed in and encouraged me during my 3-year PhD study and throughout my life. Without my parents' continuous support and encouragement, the completion of my thesis would not have been possible.

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CHAPTER ONE

1 Introduction

1.1 Research Background

The hotel industry, as one of the three pillars of the travel and tourism industry, has shown extensive development in recent years. China's hotel industry is also economically important and has shown rapid growth. According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), China is the world's fourth-largest destination, with 60.7 million international arrivals in 2017 (UNWTO, 2018). Tourism undoubtedly has significant spillover effects on the hotel industry. At the end of 2018, China had 10,249 star-rated hotels, including 843 five-star hotels, 2527 four-star hotels, 4965 three-star hotels, 1844 two-star hotels, and 70 one-star hotels. According to the operating data of 8965 hotels that were verified by China's tourism authorities, Chinese star-rated hotels had about 1.37 million rooms, 2.32 million beds, 1.03 million employees, and ¥ 209.10 billion in total operating revenue (Ministry of Culture and Tourism of The People's Republic of China, 2019).

As a labor-intensive industry, the hotel industry has high rates of staff turnover (Chand & Katou, 2007; Luo et al., 2017). A Chinese hotel industry report found that 42.3% of graduates in the hotel industry in a 5-year period left their jobs after only 6 months of employment. The highest turnover rates were found in food and beverage (56.1%), front office (17.2%), and housekeeping departments (9.5%), and the main reasons given for leaving were dissatisfaction with the abilities and character of their supervisors, compensation and benefits, training and empowerment, and career planning (Very East, 2017). Some earlier studies stated that when an organization cannot fulfill its commitments to employees for compensation, promotion, and job security, its employees are more likely to show greater turnover intention (Collins, 2010; Sutton & Griffin, 2004). The hotel industry also faces fierce competition for labor from other fast-growing industries such as information technology and finance that can provide higher salaries. In 2018, the Chinese hotel and catering service industry had the second lowest average

annual wage of employees (¥ 48,260), lower than that in all industries (¥ 82,413) and much lower than that in information technology (¥ 147,678 per year) and finance (¥ 129,837) (National Bureau of Statistics China, 2019). These low salaries may lead to disadvantages in recruiting and retaining talent for the hotel and hospitality industry. Besides, it seems that many younger Chinese hotel talents consider the current job as a transition or gateway to secure another job with higher social status and income in other industries (Qiu Zhang & Wu, 2004). Another challenge for the hotel industry is demand has far outstripped supply of qualified talents. It was reported that more than 50% of the travel and tourism companies in a member survey of the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) were confronted with a shortage of professional employees with specific skills, such as engineering, cooking, bartending, and accounting (WTTC, 2015). The Chinese hotel industry is also in short reply of competent operational and administrative talents (Gu et al., 2006; Kong et al., 2011), which will undoubtedly seriously affect the sustainable development strategy of Chinese hotels. One early study suggested that low wages, low social status, and limited access to promotions and managerial training are major reasons for this serious issue (Qiu Zhang & Wu, 2004).

Studies have verified that well-being is an essential predictor of employees' performance and rates of turnover and absenteeism (Wright & Bonett, 2007; Fisher, 2010). In the knowledge economy, the employment relationship between employer and employee is becoming increasingly loose, so well-being is a vital contributor to retaining and motivating valued employees (Fisher, 2010). The loss of staff in the hotel industry is a clear indication of the true status of hotel employees' well-being. The unhappy mentality of employees at work makes them unable to endure and continue working in their hotels. To survive and develop in an increasingly competitive environment, employers in Chinese hotel companies should think about ways to promote the well-being of valued employees and thus build and maintain a higher skilled and more professional talent team with greater loyalty. In the 1940s, psychologists advocated the positive psychology movement, which not only caused heated discussions in psychological circles about how to make people happy, but also made organizational behavior

scholars pay much more attention to employees' well-being in the workplace (Zhang & Guo, 2011). According to the latest World Happiness Report, China ranked only 86th out of 156 countries (Helliwell et al., 2018). Some Chinese studies have stated that Chinese employees' occupational well-being (OWB) remain below average, resulting in job burnout, turnover, labor conflicts, and other challenges to employers (Huang & Peng, 2015; Xu & Li, 2013). Traditional human resource management (HRM) practices tend to provide standardized employment arrangements (e.g., fixed schedule, compensation plan) to employees to maintain a fair workplace (Kalleberg et al., 2000; Greenberg et al., 2004). A serious problem is the traditional long-term standardized employment arrangements may not be effective in promoting OWB of knowledge workers in the workplace. In the current hotel industry, the inflexible HRM practices regarding career training, professional development, and compensation and benefit packages have been found to be inefficient to satisfy those qualified managers and employees (Kong & Baum, 2006; Kong et al., 2011; Qiu Zhang & Wu, 2004; Zhang et al., 2002). It has been suggested that enhancement of knowledge workers' OWB should be enterprises' top priority. Under the condition of the knowledge economy, human capital has become an important factor in determining the survival and development of enterprises, and knowledge workers have undoubtedly become the core resource of an enterprise's key competitiveness and the key to talent competition (Feldman & Pentland, 2003; Huo et al., 2014).

Knowledge workers were first defined as those who master and use symbols, concepts, knowledge, and information as tools for their work (Drucker, 1959). According to his description, knowledge workers are mainly managerial or technical staff. Nevertheless, it is difficult to separate knowledge workers from manual workers by this simple definition. One recent study identified the roles played by knowledge workers in the workplace as controller, helper, learner, linker, networker, organizer, retriever, sharer, solver, and tracker (Reinhardt et al., 2011). A recent relevant research also selected departmental administrative staff or above as hotel knowledge workers (Wu & Chen, 2015), possibly because those administrative

personnels are more likely to play the roles of knowledge workers in the hotel industry. Based on the literature and the following descriptions of knowledge workers (Table 1-1), we identified middle and senior managers as the most likely to be typical hotel knowledge workers. As supervisors of other employees in the hotel industry, the abilities and characteristics of these knowledge workers have been shown to be among the most important predictors of junior employees' turnover behavior in the Chinese hotel industry (Very East, 2017). Therefore, improving the OWB of more skilled and more professional knowledge workers would be beneficial to the motivation and retention of both valued knowledge workers and junior employees.

Table 1-1 Roles of Knowledge Worker

Role	Description	Source
Controller	An employee who monitors organizational performance using raw information.	Geisler (2007); Moore & Rugullies (2005)
Helper	An employee who conveys information to other employees who encounter problems.	Davenport & Prusak (1998)
Learner	An employee who promotes individual skills and competence with information and practices.	Reinhardt et al. (2011)
Linker	An employee who generates new information by collecting and integrating a range of raw information.	Davenport & Prusak (1998); Geisler (2007); Nonaka & Takeushi (1995)
Networker	An employee who shares information and supports organizational members by building personal or project-related networks with professionals who specialize in the same type of job.	Davenport & Prusak (1998); Geisler (2007); Nonaka & Takeushi (1995)

Organizer	An employee who is responsible for individual or organizational planning of activities (e.g., making schedules and assigning tasks).	Moore & Rugullies (2005)
Retriever	An employee who searches for specific information.	Snyder-Halpern et al. (2001)
Sharer	An employee who shares information within a group or community.	Brown et al. (2002); Davenport & Prusak (1998); Geisler (2007)
Solver	An employee who is involved in providing solutions to problems.	Davenport & Prusak (1998); Moore & Rugullies (2005); Nonaka and Takeushi (1995)
Tracker	An employee who monitors and reacts to individual and organizational behaviors that may cause problems.	Moore & Rugullies (2005)

Source: Reinhardt et al. (2011)

Knowledge workers have some psychological characteristics and behavior patterns that distinguish them from other employees. First, knowledge workers have greater autonomy (Cortada, 1998; Drucker, 1999). As most knowledge workers maintain more knowledge capital and are involved in some creative tasks, they tend to pursue more flexibility, autonomy, and diversity in their employment arrangements. Second, knowledge workers have greater self-esteem, self-actualization, and achievement motivation (Alvesson, 2001; Heller, 2004). Knowledge workers have higher expectations for their own social and organizational status and tend to pursue more diverse and personalized employment arrangements, including personal returns and participation in decision making. Third, knowledge workers have better negotiating skills (Carleton, K. 2011). They have an advantage in negotiating personal work

arrangements with their employers that meet their expectations and preferences in employment conditions. These characteristics have challenged the long-term standardized employment arrangements and traditional HRM practices for recruiting, motivating, and retaining knowledge workers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Bal et al., 2012; Cappelli, 2000; Carleton, K. 2011; Lee et al., 2000; Rousseau, 2001). As most typical knowledge workers in the hotel industry, hotel managers have reported that their autonomy, flexibility, creativity, and OWB are hindered by a system of centralized authority in most chain hotels (Galbraith, 2014). In such a system, hotel managers' work arrangements and behaviors are strictly standardized and controlled by a few headquarters (Burgess, 2013; Elbanna, 2016; Galbraith, 2014). Besides, many hotel managers feel stressful for being required to report financial and operational issues to headquarters frequently, and claimed that this requirement hindered their job autonomy and flexibility (Haver et al., 2014; Haver et al., 2019). These problems have shown a severe effect on hotel managers' OWB (Haver et al., 2019; Humphrey et al., 2008). Therefore, some flexible and personalized work arrangements, such as idiosyncratic deals (i-deals), are necessary to be considered to improve hotel knowledge workers' OWB. Personalized work arrangements (e.g., i-deals) are becoming increasingly prevalent (Liao et al., 2016), and may help to address these issues. According to a survey of international MBA students, more than 30% had obtained personalized work arrangements via negotiation with their supervisors or employers. Another survey in a small hospital in the United States also showed that more than 25% of doctors and nurses had successfully sought customized work arrangements (i.e., i-deals) (Rousseau, 2005).

1.2 Research Gap and Problem Statement

1.2.1 Study of Idiosyncratic Deals in the Hotel Industry Context

First, hotel empirical research related to i-deals remains in its infancy. Rosen et al. (2008, 2013) identified four domains of i-deals that correspond to what, when, where, and why. Hospitality i-deals were the subject of a recent Indian study that tested the effects of task i-deals, career i-deals, and flexibility i-deals on employee reactions (i.e., motivation, commitment, work

engagement, and organizational citizenship behavior) (Dhiman et al., 2016). Nevertheless, that study focused on only two aspects of work arrangements — what (task i-deals and career i-deals) and when (flexibility i-deals) — without considering where (location flexibility i-deals) and why (financial incentives i-deals). There is still a lack of empirical research concerning a comprehensive scale for measuring hospitality i-deals by far. Therefore, studies of the applicability, popularity, measures, antecedents, and outcomes of various types of i-deals in the hotel industry remain rare, which suggests an extensive need to research i-deals in the hotel industry context.

1.2.2 Effect of Idiosyncratic Deals on Occupational Well-Being

The second research gap is related to the effectiveness of i-deals in promoting knowledge workers' OWB. The research into well-being and the characteristics of knowledge workers have caused researchers to rethink HRM strategies to promote knowledge workers' OWB. A hospitality research on Indian hotels has confirmed the vital roles of i-deals in enhancing of commitment and work engagement of management and frontline staff (Dhiman et al., 2016). Both commitment and work engagement are regarded as aspects of integrated well-being (Fisher, 2010). Based on the job demands-resources (JD-R) model, some researchers argued that job crafting helped to enhance employees' OWB through crafting job demands and resources. For example, two studies have shown that employees' OWB can be enhanced by strategies like job crafting and action plans (Laine et al., 2016; Perko et al., 2015). Another study also indicated that employees who crafted job demands and job resources had higher OWB (Tims et al., 2013). Rousseau (2001) advanced i-deals, which are effective in recruiting, motivating, and retaining knowledge workers in HRM practice (Rousseau, 2005). The negotiation of i-deals is actually a job crafting behavior benefit personal values, career aspirations, and WLB by crafting job resources and demands that (Hornung et al., 2010; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Rousseau, 2005; Rousseau et al., 2006). More recently, i-deals have been found to exhibit a positive influence on knowledge workers work-related attitudes and behaviors (e.g., job satisfaction, work-family conflict (WFC), organizational commitment, and organizational

citizenship behavior) (Anand et al., 2010; Hornung et al., 2008; Huo et al., 2014; Rosen, 2008; Sun & Kong, 2016; Vidhyarthi et al., 2012). Thus, the JD-R model provides the theoretical foundation for the relationship between i-deals and OWB, suggesting that knowledge workers' OWB could be promoted by allowing them to craft their own employment arrangements for job demands and job resources. Nevertheless, no systematic study has investigated the association between i-deals and OWB.

1.2.3 Mediating Mechanism between Idiosyncratic Deals and Occupational Well-Being

The third research gap is the mediating mechanism between i-deals and knowledge workers' OWB. Because knowledge workers have higher demands on self-esteem, autonomy, and flexibility than other employees (Alvesson, 2001; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Cappelli, 2000, Carleton, 2011; Cortada, 1998; Drucker, 1999; Heller, 2004; Lee et al., 2000; Rousseau, 2001), OBSE and WLB are considered in the formation mechanism of knowledge workers' OWB. The use of i-deals can influence employees' work-related attitude (i.e., affective organizational commitment) and behavior (i.e., proactive behavior) via OBSE (Liu et al., 2013). Several investigators have found that employees with higher OBSE are more likely to show greater organizational commitment (Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Tang et al., 2000; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004) and integrated well-being (Mauno et al., 2006; Fan et al., 2014; Pierce et al., 2016). As a kind of personal resources, OBSE is also beneficial to hotel employees' work engagement (Nasurdin & Suan, 2014). Both affective organizational commitment and work engagement are regarded as aspects of integrated well-being (Fisher, 2010). A hospitality research also suggests that OBSE contributes to hotel employees' subjective well-being (i.e., life satisfaction) (Lee et al., 2016). Hence, it is conceivable that OBSE could potentially mediate the association between i-deals and OWB.

As a labor-intensive service industry, the hotel industry always faces the problem of WLB. Therefore, WLB is also a research hotspot and a vital contributor to OWB in the hotel industry. As both workloads and work hours affect role conflicts (a form of hindrance job demand) (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Frone et al., 1997; Goh et al., 2015; Ilies et al., 2007; Milkie &

Peltola, 1999), the i-deals that crafting hindrance job demands are also beneficial to employees' WLB (Hornung et al., 2008, 2009). Employees who perceive their employers' support of their own role balance in the work and life domains are more likely to show greater job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Haar, 2013; Haar, 2014). Some hospitality studies have also verified WLB is a vital contributor to emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment have also been verified (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Hofmann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2017; Karatepe, 2013; O'Neill et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2011; Zhao & Namasiva-yam, 2012). Both job satisfaction and life satisfaction are regarded as aspects of well-being (Diener, 1984; Fisher, 2010). Therefore, WLB may also mediate the association between i-deals and OWB. Nevertheless, whether the association between i-deals and OWB is mediated by OBSE and WLB has not been confirmed by empirical research.

1.3 Research Objectives and Significance

1.3.1 Research Objectives

Responding to the research gaps outlined in the previous section, this study attempted to develop a mediation model in which i-deals exert effects on OWB via organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) and work-life balance (WLB). Hence, the main objectives of this study were as follows.

- 1) To develop and validate a scale for measuring i-deals in the context of the hotel industry.
- 2) To investigate the association between i-deals and OWB.
- 3) To test the mediating effects of OBSE and WLB on the association between i-deals and OWB.
- 4) To investigate whether differences in the success of negotiating a hospitality i-deal and individual OBSE, WLB, and OWB exist across various types of hotel executives and hotels.

This study's theoretical and practical contributions are outlined below.

1.3.2 Theoretical Contributions

In terms of theoretical significance, this study can provide the following four contributions. First, this study proposes and validates a comprehensive hospitality i-deals scale. Second, this study contributes to the conceptualization and content of i-deals in the hotel industry by identifying some new items or dimensions for measuring hospitality i-deals. Third, this study enriches both the theoretical and empirical understanding of i-deals by developing and examining a model of the effect of i-deals on WLB, OBSE, and OWB based on the job demands–resources (JD-R) model. Fourth, this study enriches our knowledge of the mediating mechanism between i-deals and OWB by exploring the mediating effect of OBSE and WLB on the association between i-deals and OWB. Fourth, this study may also offer some new insights into the factors that influence the success of negotiating a hospitality i-deal and individual OBSE, WLB, and OWB.

1.3.3 Practical Contributions

This study makes three practical contributions. First, this study facilitates an understanding of the types and extent of i-deals for knowledge workers in the hotel industry. The results may be used as a reference by hotel employers wondering about the applicability of various kinds of personalized employment arrangements in the hotel industry.

Second, improving employees' OBSE, WLB, and OWB is an essential topic in the hotel industry. As employees' work-related attitudes, OBSE, WLB, and OWB play vital roles in predicting employees' organizational behaviors and performance, this study proposes a new perspective for researchers and hotel employers to understand how to properly apply i-deals to HRM practices to improve knowledge workers' OBSE, WLB, and OWB. On this basis, this study also provides guidelines and recommendations to employers in the hotel industry regarding how to attract, motivate, and retain knowledge workers.

Third, this study uses an independent-samples *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance to identify differences in i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB between various employee groups (e.g., according to age, tenure, gender, position). This study may not only help hotel employers to understand which kinds of employees have a greater likelihood of success in negotiating i-deals and thereby have higher OBSE, WLB, and OWB, but also may provide evidence for which kinds of hotels are more likely to adopt i-deals for managing knowledge workers. These findings may be a reference for hotel employers on various employees' self-evaluations of their employment arrangements, value, competence, importance, role balance, and happiness in various hotels.

CHAPTER TWO

This chapter describes the content analysis conducted for a comprehensive review of the literature on i-deals, OBSE, WLB, OWB, and the JD-R model.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Idiosyncratic Deals

2.1.1 Concepts

I-deals were first described by Rousseau (2001), who regarded them as voluntary, individualized, and nonstandard arrangements established between valued workers and their employers via negotiation. She further defined i-deals as personalized, mutually beneficial employment agreements negotiated between employees and their employers regarding employment conditions (Rousseau, 2005). Academia has reached a consensus on this definition. I-deals represent a new way to balance the exchange relationship between employee and employer. According to Rousseau (2005), i-deals have several features. First, all i-deals are individually negotiated, which means that the subject under negotiation involves only the employer and employee, and either party can directly initiate an i-deal (Rousseau et al., 2006; Rosen et al., 2013). Benefiting from the rapid development of the knowledge economy, valued employees with greater power are more likely to obtain customized employment conditions during the negotiation process (Bartol & Martin, 1989). Second, i-deals are heterogeneous. Some employees can obtain customized employment arrangements different from their co-workers because of their exceptional skills or outstanding contribution to the organization (Rousseau et al., 2006). Third, i-deals are mutually beneficial. Both the employee's personal desires and the employer's interests are considered. On the one hand, i-deals can satisfy some employees' special needs in employment arrangements. On the other hand, a successful i-deal can help an employer attract, motivate, and retain more valued employees (Rousseau et al., 2006). Fourth, the scope of an i-deal varies with each individual. As they vary with employees'

needs, the scope of an i-deal can include only one aspect or cover every aspect of employment (Rousseau et al., 2006). For example, a sales manager's i-deals may only offer schedule flexibility, whereas a general manager's may offer both development and flexibility.

I-deals are a kind of talent management way within the the law, regulation, and policy. They are different from cronyism/favoritism and unauthorized arrangements, which are more likely to affect organizational justice and institutional rationality. As shown in Table 2-1, the differences are embodied mainly in allocation, basis, beneficiary, and the effects on co-workers. Favoritism/cronyism occurs when powerful supervisors provide special employment arrangements to specific employees due to relational factors (e.g., family kinship, friendship, political ties). Such arrangements are given to an employee by a powerful supervisor (e.g., manager) based on their special relationship and are self-serving from the powerful supervisor's perspective, so they can reduce the levels of organizational justice and trust among co-workers (Pearce et al., 2000; Rousseau, 2004). An unauthorized arrangement indicates that an employee usurps organizational resources to serve his or her own interests without permission. Such unauthorized arrangements are essentially employee thefts that break the rules and harm both employers and co-workers because they may not only lead to loss of organizational resources, but also induce more co-workers to regard theft as tolerable behavior (Greenberg, 1998; Rousseau, 2004). More importantly, unauthorized arrangements reduce the institutional rationality and legitimacy of organizational practices and thus lead co-workers to have a profound distrust of the organization (Dalton, 1959; Ditton, 1997; Pearce et al., 2001; Rousseau, 2004). Unlike favoritism/cronyism and unauthorized arrangements, i-deals are negotiated between the employee and employer based on the employee's value and needs instead of relational factors or rule-breaking. Such legal arrangements not only satisfy the employee's personal needs on various working ways, but also help the employer and organization attract, motivate, and/or retain highly valued employees (Rousseau et al., 2006).

Table 2-1 Differences Between I-Deals and Other Individualized Employment Arrangements

Characteristic	Cronyism/Favoritism	Unauthorized Arrangement	I-Deals
Allocation	Endowed to employee by powerful supervisor (e.g., manager)	Usurped by employee	Negotiated between employee and employer
Basis	Relational factors (e.g., family kinship, friendship, political tie).	Rule-breaking	Employee's values and needs
Beneficiary	Employee and powerful supervisor	Employee	Employee and employer
Effect on Co-workers	Reduces perceptions of organizational justice and trust	Reduces institutional rationality and legitimacy of organizational practices	Depends on the content, time of agreement, and process for maintaining i-deals

Source: Rousseau et al. (2006)

2.1.2 Dimensions and Measurements

The measures of i-deals vary considerably. The literature describes two main methods to measure i-deals: the time of the agreement and the content (Table 2-2).

Table 2-2 Measurement Scales for I-Deals

Classification	Author	Dimension	Respondent
The Time of Agreement	Rousseau & Kim (2006)	1) Ex-ante i-deals 2) Ex-post i-deals	Hospital staff in the USA

Content	Rousseau & Kim (2006)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Flexibility i-deals 2) Developmental i-deals 3) Reduced workload i-deals 	Hospital staff in the USA
	Rosen et al. (2008)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Task and work responsibilities i-deals 2) Flexibility i-deals 3) Financial incentives i-deals 4) General i-deal propensity 	University staff in the USA
	Ng & Feldman (2010)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Level of pay 2) Advancement opportunities 3) Training 4) Career development 5) Job security 6) Support with personal problems 	Enterprise executives in the USA
	Rosen et al. (2013)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Task and work responsibilities i-deals 2) Schedule flexibility i-deals 3) Location flexibility i-deals 4) Financial incentives i-deals 	University staff in the USA

	Hornung et al. (2014)	1) Task i-deals 2) Career i-deals 3) Flexibility i-deals	Hospital staff in Germany
	Norris (2015)	1) Task i-deals 2) Career i-deals 3) Flexibility i-deals 4) Financial incentives i-deals	Expert panel

2.1.2.1 The Time of the Agreement

Rousseau and Kim (2006) divided i-deals into two types — ex-ante i-deals and ex-post i-deals — according to the time of the agreement. An ex-ante i-deal is negotiated during the recruitment process, and an ex-post i-deal is negotiated after the employee is hired. Studies have shown that ex-post i-deals obtain more extensive application, and as soon as employees were hired, they tended to develop exchange relationships with employers via i-deals (Rousseau et al., 2006). Although ex-ante i-deals are provided to employees based on their knowledge, skills, abilities, and value, Rousseau et al. (2009) found that the relationship between ex-ante i-deals and social exchange was not significant, which indicated a difference in the negotiation and operation of i-deals at different times, which can be attributed to the different objectives of the interested parties.

2.1.2.2 Content

Another way to measure i-deals is by their content. Based on social exchange theory and interviews with 166 hospital employees in the United States, Rousseau and Kim (2006) proposed a three-dimensional scale of i-deals that includes flexibility i-deals, developmental i-deals, and reduced workload i-deals. Flexibility i-deals refer to customized schedule arrangements that meet an employee’s needs, developmental i-deals refer to personalized opportunities to develop personal knowledge and skills and to pursue career success, and

reduced workload i-deals refer to a reduction in job demands and time. This scale provided a theoretical basis for quantitative studies of i-deals. In a survey of civil servants in a German government agency, Hornung et al. (2008) asked the respondents to describe the extent to which had they asked for and successfully negotiated flexibility i-deals (e.g., “flexibility in starting and ending the workday”) and development i-deals (e.g., “on-the-job activities”). Rousseau et al. (2009) also studied two types of i-deals among 265 hospital employees: work hour i-deals (e.g., “schedule different from co-workers”) and development i-deals (e.g., “skill development”). In addition to self-reporting, another study invited 263 supervisors in the German public administration to report development i-deals (e.g., “individual opportunities for career development”), flexibility i-deals (e.g., “special flexibility in working hours”), and workload reduction i-deals (e.g., “reduced work hours”) made by telecommuting employees (Hornung et al., 2009). Hornung et al. (2014) further stated that development i-deals could be differentiated into task and career i-deals and proposed a three-dimensional scale that includes task i-deals, career i-deals, and flexibility i-deals. Task i-deals (e.g., “job tasks that fit my personal strengths and talents”), career i-deals (e.g., “career options that suit my personal goals”), and flexibility i-deals (e.g., “a work schedule suited to me personally”) were assessed with three items each. Ng and Feldman (2010) tested the contract idiosyncrasy of enterprise executives in the United States based on content, but their focus was the extent to which an employee had negotiated arrangements that differ from those of their co-workers in terms of level of career development, advancement opportunities, training, pay, job security, and/or support with personal problems.

Rosen et al. (2008, 2013) further developed a four-dimensional scale that focused on when (schedule flexibility i-deals), where (location flexibility i-deals), why (financial incentives i-deals), and what (task and work responsibilities i-deals) employees do in the organization. Schedule flexibility i-deals were assessed with three items (e.g., “my supervisor considers my personal needs when making my work schedule”), location flexibility i-deals were assessed with two items (e.g., “because of my individual needs, I have negotiated a unique arrangement

with my supervisor that allows me to complete a portion of my work outside of the office”), financial incentives i-deals were assessed with five items (e.g., “my supervisor has ensured that my compensation arrangement meets my individual needs”), and task and work responsibilities i-deals were assessed with six items (e.g., “I have successfully asked for extra responsibilities that take advantage of the skills that I bring to the job”). Relative to prior studies, Rosen et al. (2008, 2013) proposed a more comprehensive measurement scale of i-deals with a consideration of four domains and provided useful guidance to later studies (e.g., Norris, 2015; Sun & Kong, 2016).

2.1.3 Antecedents of Idiosyncratic Deals

The extensive use of i-deals in the workplace is not an accident but an inevitable outcome of social, economic, and cultural development (Rousseau, 2005; Rousseau et al., 2006). A review of the literature reveals that the major antecedents of i-deals have four aspects: employee, employer, co-workers, and structural conditions (Table 2-3).

Table 2-3 Antecedents of I-Deals

Classification	Variables	Relation
Employee	Gender	Women prefer flexibility i-deals (Hornung et al., 2008)
	Age	Negative (flexibility i-deals); Negative (development i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2008)
	Tenure	Negative (financial incentives i-deals) (Rosen et al., 2008; Rosen et al., 2013)
	Personal initiative	Positive (flexibility i-deals); Positive (development i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2008; Hornung et al., 2009)
	Individualism	Positive (ex-ante i-deals); Positive (ex-post i-deals) (Lee & Hui, 2011)

	Political skill	Positive (location flexibility i-deals); Positive (task and work responsibilities i-deals) (Rosen et al., 2013)
	Social skill	Positive (ex-ante i-deals); Positive (ex-post i-deals) (Lee & Hui, 2011)
	Perceived insider status	Positive (ex-post i-deals) (Lee & Hui, 2011)
	Perceived organizational support	Positive (i-deals) (Rosen et al., 2008)
Employer	Leader-member exchange	Positive (i-deals) (Rousseau & Kim, 2006; Hornung et al., 2010); Positive (schedule flexibility i-deals); Positive (financial incentives i-deals); Positive (task and work responsibilities i-deals) (Rosen et al., 2013)
	Transformational Leadership	Positive (i-deals) (Rosseau, 2001)
	Considerate	Positive (i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2011)
	Unfulfilled obligation	Positive (reduced workload i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2009)
	Supervisors' caregiving responsibilities for elder	Positive (flexibility i-deals) (Las Heras et al., 2017)
Co-worker	Friendship between co-worker and i-dealer	Positive (co-worker acceptance of others' i-deals) (Lai et al., 2009)
	Co-worker's social exchange	Positive (co-worker acceptance of others' i-deals) (Lai et al., 2009)
	Co-worker's economic exchange	Negative (co-worker acceptance of others' i-deals) (Lai et al., 2009)
	Co-worker's beliefs regarding their own likelihood of	Positive (co-worker acceptance of others' i-deals) (Lai et al., 2009)

	comparable future opportunity	
	Co-worker's perceptions of i-dealer deservingness	Positive (emotions of the co-worker in response to self- and other-oriented cognitive appraisals of the i-deal) (Garg & Fulmer, 2017)
	Co-worker's appraisal of i-deal for self	Positive (emotions of the co-worker in response to self-oriented and other-oriented cognitive appraisals of the i-deal) (Garg & Fulmer, 2017)
Structural Condition	Job constraints	Negative (flexibility i-deals); Negative (workload reduction i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2009)
	Unit and group size	Negative (flexibility i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2009)
	Part-time	Positive (flexibility i-deals); Positive (development i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2008)
	Telecommuting	Positive (flexibility i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2008)
	Fieldwork	Negative (flexibility i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2008)

2.1.3.1 Employees

I-deals can be influenced by some demographic variables. It has been noted that many female employees pursue flexibility i-deals to balance their work, family, and life (Hornung et al., 2008). Younger employees are more likely than older employees to negotiate i-deals, possibly because older employees lack confidence in negotiation (Hornung et al., 2008). In terms of the relationship between tenure and i-deals, employees with a longer tenure are less likely to negotiate financial incentives i-deals with their employers, possibly because employees with a longer tenure may have addressed their compensation concerns and have less need to negotiate individual compensation (Rosen et al., 2008; 2013). The greater personal initiative of an

employee is not only a positive predictor of i-deals, but also an important reason for the increasing adoption and adaptation of i-deals in the workplace (Liao et al., 2016). Both self-reported and supervisor-reported employee initiative have been verified to have a positive influence on flexibility and development i-deals. On the one hand, employees with more initiative tend to take an active part in negotiating their own employment arrangement, and on the other hand, employers are more willing to use i-deals to motivate those employees to make a more active contribution to the organization (Rousseau et al., 2006; Hornung et al., 2009). Employees who tend toward individualism are more likely to negotiate both ex-ante i-deals and ex-post i-deals, whereas an employee's perceived insider status is only positively related to ex-post i-deals (Lee et al., 2011). Employees who have better political skills and social skills are also more likely to obtain i-deals via negotiation with their employer (Lee & Hui, 2011; Rosen et al., 2013). Perceived organizational support has also shown a positive relationship with successful i-deal negotiation (Rosen et al., 2013).

2.1.3.2 Employer

Whether an employee can successfully obtain an i-deal is highly dependent on the employer, who has legitimate power to grant various resources to employees (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003; Rousseau et al., 2006). Several studies have verified that employees who have a high-quality leader-member exchange are more likely to successfully obtain an i-deal from their employer because they have more access to their employers than other employees (Rosen et al., 2008; Rousseau & Kim, 2006; Hornung et al., 2010). Employers with different leadership styles have different opinions and preferences regarding i-deals. Those with a transformational leadership style are more likely to grant i-deals to employees (Rousseau, 2001), and other employer characteristics also influence i-deals. For example, an employer's perception of unfulfilled obligation shows a positive relationship with reduced workload i-deals (Hornung et al., 2009). A considerate employer can directly affect the success of a negotiation of an i-deal (Hornung et al., 2011). An employer who has greater caregiving

responsibilities for an elder relative is more likely to grant his or her employees flexibility i-deals to satisfy their work-family balance needs (Las Heras et al., 2017).

2.1.3.3 Co-workers

Although employees and employers are the main negotiators and beneficiaries of i-deals, an organization must also consider co-workers' acceptance of i-deals and their emotional reactions to i-deals. As one aspect of the employment relationship, the co-workers' personal relationships with the i-dealer (i.e., the employee who obtains an i-deal) may affect their reaction (Rousseau, 2006). One empirical study has verified that friendship between co-workers and i-dealers has a positive influence on their acceptance of i-dealers' i-deals; in addition, co-workers' social exchange relationship with their employers also positively predict acceptance, whereas the effects of economic exchange on acceptance are negative. Co-workers' belief in the likelihood of themselves obtaining a comparable future opportunity is a positive predictor of their acceptance of i-dealers' i-deals (Lai et al., 2009). In terms of co-workers' emotional reactions to i-deals, co-workers' perceptions of the i-dealer's worthiness and appraisal of an i-deal for one's self show positive relationships with the emotions of the co-workers in response to self- and other-oriented cognitive appraisals of the i-deal (Garg & Fulmer, 2017). To sum up, the role of co-workers in i-deals requires further study.

2.1.3.4 Structural Condition

Fewer job constraints (e.g., time, location) are beneficial to the negotiation of flexibility and workload reduction i-deals, and because the employer must show greater concern for organizational justice in a larger organization, a large unit and group size shows a negative relationship with the success of negotiating an i-deal (Hornung et al., 2009). In addition, some job characteristics can also predict i-deals. Employees who work part-time are more likely to obtain their employers' authorization for flexibility and development i-deals, because it may be more difficult for them to obtain formal development opportunities via standard

organizational practice (Hornung et al., 2008). In addition, telecommuting employees are more likely than field work employees to obtain flexibility i-deals (Hornung et al., 2008).

2.1.4 Outcomes of Idiosyncratic Deals

Although scholars have not reached a consensus on the measurement scales of i-deals, the overall research results show that i-deals affect both the individual and the organization. As this study focused on the relationship between i-deals and individuals' perceptions of OWB, OBSE, and WLB, this section mainly reviews research on the effects of i-deals on an individual's cognition, attitudes, and behavior (Table 2-4).

Table 2-4 Outcomes of I-Deals

Classification	Variables	Relationship
Cognition	Economic exchange	Positive (ex ante i-deals); Positive (flexibility i-deals) (Rousseau et al., 2009)
	Social exchange	Positive (ex post i-deals); Positive (development i-deals) (Rousseau et al., 2009)
	Work-family conflict	Negative (flexibility i-deals); Positive (development i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2008, 2009)
	Employers' expectation of performance	Positive (development i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2008, 2009)
	Job autonomy	Positive (task i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2014)
	OBSE	Positive (development i-deals); Positive (flexibility i-deals) (Liu et al., 2013); Positive (task i-

		deals) (Ho & Kong, 2015)
	Organizational support	Positive (development i-deals); Negative (workload reduction i-deals) (Rousseau & Kim, 2006; Rosen et al., 2008)
	Psychological contract violation	Negative (i-deals) (Rousseau et al., 2006; Rosen et al., 2008)
	Organizational justice	Positive (i-deals) (Rosen et al., 2008)
Attitude	Job satisfaction	Positive (task and work responsibilities i-deals); Positive (schedule flexibility i-deals); (Rosen et al., 2008; Vidyarthi et al., 2012) Positive (task and work responsibilities i-deals); Positive (financial incentives i-deals) (Sun & Kong, 2016)
	Affective commitment	Positive (development i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2013); Positive (task and work responsibilities i-deals) (Rosen et al., 2013)
	Continuous Commitment	Positive (development i-deals) (Rosen et al., 2013)
	Normative commitment	Positive (i-deals) (Rosen et al., 2008); Positive (development i-deals) (Rosen et al., 2013)

	Personal initiative	Positive (task i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2010)
	Work engagement	Positive (task i-deals) (Hornung et al., 2010)
Behavior	Organizational citizenship behavior	Positive (i-deals) (Anand et al., 2010; Huo, 2014)
	In-role job performance	Positive (flexibility i-deals); Positive (development i-deals) (Ng & Lucianetti, 2016)
	Voice behavior	Positive (flexibility i-deals); Positive (development i-deals) (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Ng & Lucianetti, 2016)
	Working unpaid overtime	Negative (flexibility i-deals); Positive (development i-deals) (Hornong et al., 2008)

2.1.4.1 Cognition

An i-deal is classified as ex ante or ex post based on the time of the agreement. The effects of ex ante i-deals and ex post i-deals on an employee's perception of the employment relationship vary. Specifically, employees tend to attribute ex ante i-deals to their own value in the labor market and regard it as an economic exchange, whereas they are more likely to perceive ex post i-deals as their employer's identification and fulfillment of their contributions and needs and regard it as a social exchange. Based on the contents of the i-deal, flexibility i-deals have a high correlation with economic exchange, whereas development i-deals have a high correlation with social exchange (Rousseau et al., 2009). Flexibility i-deals allow employees to arrange their work conditions based on their own preferences regarding schedule, annual leave, and workplace and thus reduce WFC and maintain WLB, whereas development i-deals

can increase employees' job involvement but cannot reduce WFC. In addition, employers' expectations of employees' performance can be enhanced with the help of development i-deals (Hornung et al., 2008, 2009). Authorized i-deals for employees indicate an employer's willingness to satisfy the employees' personalized needs and can reduce an employers' perceived psychological contract violation (Rousseau et al., 2006; Rosen et al., 2008). At the same time, because i-deals are individually negotiated and mutually beneficial, the employer's perceived organizational justice can also be enhanced (Rosen et al., 2008). I-deals are also important predictors of job autonomy and OBSE. Task i-deals have been found to show a positive relationship with job autonomy (Hornung et al., 2014). Both development i-deals and flexibility i-deals have positive influences on OBSE (Liu et al., 2013). Another study also verified the positive predictive effect of task i-deals on OBSE (Ho & Kong, 2015).

2.1.4.2 Attitude

One empirical study in a Western setting showed that only task and work responsibilities i-deals and schedule flexibility i-deals helped to enhance employees' job satisfaction (Rosen, 2008; Vidyarthi et al., 2012), whereas a recent empirical study in a Chinese setting found that only task and work responsibilities i-deals and financial incentives i-deals showed positive relationships with job satisfaction (Sun & Kong, 2016). Organizational commitment is also an important outcome of i-deals. In general, i-deals exhibit varying impacts on the three dimensions of organizational commitment (i.e., affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment). Development i-deals can improve affective commitment more significantly than flexibility i-deals (Hornung et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2013). Another study by Rosen et al. (2008) showed that i-deals significantly enhanced individuals' affective commitment and normative commitment. Rosen and his colleagues further demonstrated that task and work responsibilities i-deals significantly promoted affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment, whereas financial incentives i-deals only significantly promoted continuance commitment (Rosen et al., 2013).

In addition, task i-deals are also efficient in improving an employee's personal initiative and work engagement (Hornung et al., 2010).

2.1.4.3 Behavior

Studies have also shown that both development and flexibility i-deals play vital roles in employees' organizational citizenship behavior, task performance, voice behavior, and willingness to work unpaid overtime. The negotiation of i-deals between employees and organizations reflects a mutually beneficial relationship. Social exchange theory suggests that employees who successfully negotiate with employers for i-deals that better fit their demands tend to show more responsibility toward their organization via their OCB (Blau, 1964). Several studies have shown that i-deals have a significant influence on organizational citizenship behavior (Anand et al., 2010; Huo, 2014), and they can also motivate in-role job performance and voice behavior (Ng & Lucianetti, 2016; Ng & Feldman, 2010). In addition, flexibility i-deals exhibit a negative effect on the willingness to work overtime without pay, whereas development i-deals exhibit a positive impact on the willingness to work overtime without pay (Hornung et al., 2008).

2.1.5 Idiosyncratic Deals in the Hotel Industry Context

At present, academic research on i-deals in the hotel industry remains limited, whereas related strategies have long existed in HRM practices in the hotel industry. The report "Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Development Strategy 2009" emphasized the values of WLB, job role and design, flexible work practices, and development activities in increasing employee retention in the tourism and hospitality industry (Service Skills Australia, 2009). Some scholars have noted that the pursuit of compensation, opportunities for growth and development, and other various supports for individuals' career is very common among hotel staff (Kong et al., 2011; Walsh & Taylor, 2007). Some recent Chinese study further showed that Chinese hotel employees born after the 1980s had a strong desire for individual career development, job autonomy, and WLB via empowerment and organizational career

management (Kong et al., 2015, 2016; Morton, 2002).

Only one study of Indian hotels has examined the reactions of management and frontline staff to i-deals (Dhiman et al., 2016). Drawing upon social exchange theory, their study quoted the three-dimensional scale by Hornung et al. (2014) and found that task i-deals, career i-deals, and flexibility i-deals significantly predicted employees' commitment, motivation, work engagement, and organizational citizenship behavior. One limitation of their study was that it focused only on two aspects of work arrangements — what (task i-deals, career i-deals) and when (schedule flexibility i-deals) — without considering where (location flexibility i-deals) and why (financial incentives i-deals). According to Rosen et al. (2008, 2013), flexibility i-deals can be differentiated into schedule and location flexibility i-deals. As a significant predictor in the high turnover rate of Chinese hotel employees (Very East, 2017), individuals' dissatisfaction with wages reflects the financial aspect of job satisfaction, which has demonstrated a high correlation with financial incentives i-deals in the Chinese information technology and manufacturing industries (Sun & Kong, 2016). It is therefore necessary to discuss the why and where domains in future studies of i-deals in the hotel industry. In a nutshell, the study of i-deals in the hotel context remains in its infancy, and hence further research is needed.

2.1.6 Summary

From the literature review, we can find that the i-deals research began in the early 21st century. In terms of concept, scholars have reached a consensus. But for dimensions and measurements, there are some differences in the construction of the questionnaire. The major difference is some researchers measure i-deals based on the time of the agreement, and most of others measure i-deals based on the content. The major antecedents of i-deals have four aspects: employee, employer, co-workers, and structural conditions. In terms of outcomes, previous studies mainly discussed the influence of i-deals on employees' cognition, attitudes, and behavior. Although i-deals have been studied for almost 20 years, hospitality research on i-deals remains in an early stage and thus requires further discussion in future studies.

2.2 Organization-Based Self-Esteem

2.2.1 Concepts

In previous studies, most of conceptualization and understanding of OBSE are based on research on self-esteem (Pierce & Garden, 2004). Before the conceptual definition of OBSE is discussed, the construct of self-esteem is briefly reviewed and discussed in this section.

2.2.1.1 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is usually regarded as an individual's overall belief and assessment of his or her own values and competencies (Rosenberg, 1965; Bowling et al., 2010) and is a very important predictor of employee attitudes and behavior (Brockner, 1988; Bono & Judge, 2001; Korman, 1970, 1976; Pierce & Garden, 2004). Based on its definition, self-esteem is an individual's self-evaluation that reflects how he or she thinks about himself or herself (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Another study further stated that self-esteem also includes an affective or emotional component regarding whether individuals like or dislike who and what they are (Pelham & Swann, 1989). Therefore, individuals with high global self-esteem tend to perceive they are valued and are self-satisfied (Rosenberg, 1965). Other studies have defined self-esteem as a hierarchical construct, which means that individuals have varying views regarding their self-worth and competence in various phenomena or roles (Korman, 1970; Simpson & Boyle, 1975; Rosenberg et al., 1995). According to this concept, self-esteem appears at different levels of specificity and usually manifests as global, task-based, or situational self-esteem (Simpson & Boyle, 1975). To date, the focus of most related literature defined self-esteem in global and organizational level, whereas some researchers have suggested that self-esteem also includes other aspects such as social, academic, moral, and physical self-esteem (Korman, 1970; Shavelson et al., 1976).

2.2.1.1 OBSE

Based on the view that self-esteem is a multifaceted and hierarchical concept, self-esteem at the organizational level (i.e., OBSE) was proposed and defined as the extent to which an

employee views himself or herself as a valued and capable member of an organization (Pierce et al., 1989). According to Pierce et al. (1989), OBSE has two features: first, it is discussed on the organizational level, and second, it reflects one’s personal perception and experience of his or her value, competence, and importance in the organization; this subjective perception may differ from an objective evaluation. As a kind of situation-specific self-esteem, OBSE differs from global self-esteem in scope, stability, and predictive effect (Table 2-5). OBSE only occurs at the organizational level and is easier to change via the employee’s work and organizational experience, whereas global self-esteem is shaped on a general level and is more stable than OBSE. In addition, OBSE is more effective than global self-esteem in predicting employees’ organizational behavior by affecting their cognition and attitudes about their own jobs and organizations (Pierce & Gardner, 2004).

Table 2-5 Difference Between OBSE and Global Self-Esteem

Characteristic	OBSE	Global Self-Esteem
Scope	Organizational level	General level
Stability	Easier to change with organizational experience	More stable
Predictive Effect	More effective in predicting organizational behavior	More effective in predicting general behavior

2.2.2 Dimensions and Measurements

Pierce et al. (1989) first developed a 10-item scale to assess employees’ OBSE. The respondents were asked to think about their relationship with their organizations and to self-report the degree to which they feel they are valued, respected, trusted, important, valuable, efficient, different, and cooperative in their served organizations (e.g., “I am a valuable part of this place”). All of the items were measured with a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = “strongly disagree”; 5 = “strongly agree”). In addition, based on the construct developed by Pierce et al.

(1989), some researchers dropped some items that did not increase the reliability achieved by the retained items via exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis and thus adopted shortened measurement scales in their studies. For example, Chattopadhyay (2003) dropped four items and used a six-item scale. The scale devised by Pierce et al. (1989) has shown high reliability and validity in both Western and Chinese empirical studies (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; Liu, 2013; Ho & Kong, 2015), whereas some researchers have stated that culture should be considered in the application of this construct because a person with more collectivistic cultural values may think of himself or herself (e.g., “I count around here”) differently than a person with more individualistic cultural values (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994; Pierce & Garden, 2004).

2.2.3 Antecedents of Organization-Based Self-Esteem

As stated above, OBSE is a subjective perception that is shaped by an individual’s experiences in his or her workplace and organization (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Hence, the antecedents of OBSE are classified by the individual contributor and organizational contributor (Table 2-6).

Table 2-6 Antecedents of OBSE

Classification	Variables	Relationship
Individual Contributor	Generalized (trait) self-efficacy	Positive (Gardner & Pierce, 1998, 2001; Stark et al., 2000)
	Job-specific self-efficacy	Positive (Kark et al., 2003)
	Positive affectivity	Positive (Lee, 2003)
	Negative affectivity	Negative (Stark et al., 2000)
	“Protestant work ethic”	Positive (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998)
	Need for achievement	Positive (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998)
Organizational Contributor	Organization size	Negative (Chattopadhyay, 2003; Ragins et al., 2000)
	Mechanistically designed	Negative (Pierce et al., 1989; Tan & Peng,

	organizational structure	1997)
	Organic structure	Positive (Pierce et al., 1989; Tan & Peng, 1997)
	Transformational leader	Positive (Kark & Shamir, 2002; Kark et al., 2003)
	Charismatic leadership	Positive (Kark & Shamir, 2002; Kark et al., 2003)
	Leader-member exchange	Positive (Aryee et al., 2003; Lee, 2003)
	Perceived managerial respect	Positive (Pierce et al., 1989)
	Trust	Positive (Chattopadhyay & George, 2001; Chattopadhyay, 2003)
	Perceived organizational support	Positive (Lee, 2003; Phillips & Hall, 2001)
	Organizational care	Positive (McAllister & Bigley, 2002)
	Organizational justice	Positive (Chattopadhyay, 1999; McAllister & Bigley, 2002; Wiesenfeld et al., 2000)
	Job complexity	Positive (Lee, 2003; Tan & Peng, 1997; Tang & Ibrahim, 1998)
	Autonomy	Positive (McAllister & Bigley, 2002; Vecchio, 2000)
	Opportunity to exercise	Positive (Kostova et al., 1997)
	Pay level	Positive (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Gardner et al., 2000; Milkovich & Milkovich, 1992; Tan & Peng, 1997)
	Successful task/work experiences	Positive (Brockner, 1988; Korman, 1970, 1976)
	Job-self fit	Positive (Riordan et al., 2001)

	Role ambiguity	Negative (Neal, 2000; Pierce et al., 1993)
	Role conflict	Negative (Neal, 2000; Staehle-Moody, 1998)
	Stress	Negative (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998)
	Participatory management practices	Positive (Lee, 2003)
	Development i-deals	Positive (Liu et al., 2013)
	Flexibility i-deals	Positive (Liu et al., 2013)
	Task i-deals	Positive (Ho & Kong, 2015)

2.2.3.1 Individual Contributor

In terms of the individual contributor, an individual's self-efficacy, affectivity, "Protestant work ethic," and need for achievement have been shown to play vital roles in predicting OBSE. Self-efficacy reflects an individual's confidence in his or her competence to exert control over his or her own motivation, behavior, and social environment, so both generalized (trait) self-efficacy and job-specific self-efficacy have a significant positive effect on OBSE (Gardner & Pierce, 1998, 2001; Kark et al., 2003; Stark et al., 2000). OBSE can also be influenced by an individual's emotion or affectivity. Stark et al. (2000) found that negative affectivity led to a reduction in OBSE, whereas a Korean empirical study showed that positive affectivity exhibited a positive influence on OBSE (Lee, 2003). In addition, an individual's "Protestant work ethic" and need for achievement can enhance OBSE (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998).

2.2.3.2 Organizational Contributor

The research on the antecedents of OBSE shows that OBSE is more closely related to types of organizational contributor than individual contributors because it is shaped mainly by an individual's work and organizational experience. First, some characteristic of the organizational structure may play a causal role in an individual's OBSE. Many studies have verified that employees of smaller organizations with organic structures usually reported higher OBSE than those of larger organizations with mechanical organizational structures (Chattopadhyay, 2003; Pierce et al., 1989; Ragins et al., 2000; Tan & Peng, 1997).

Second, HRM strategy is also an important organizational contributor. As the policy maker, a leader's behavior and relationships with employees play important roles in promoting employees' OBSE. For example, transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, and leader-member exchange have a positive influence on OBSE (Aryee et al., 2003; Kark & Shamir, 2002; Kark et al., 2003; Lee, 2003). Employees' perceptions of managerial respect (Pierce et al., 1989), trust (Chattopadhyay & George, 2001; Chattopadhyay, 2003), organizational support (Lee, 2003; Phillips & Hall, 2001), organizational care (McAllister & Bigley, 2002), and organizational justice (Chattopadhyay, 1999; McAllister & Bigley, 2002; Wiesenfeld et al., 2000) can also be significant predictors of their OBSE. In addition, a higher OBSE is often seen when employees are given more complex jobs (Lee, 2003; Tan & Peng, 1997; Tang and Ibrahim, 1998), more autonomy (McAllister & Bigley, 2002; Vecchio, 2000), more opportunities to exercise (Kostova et al., 1997), and more compensation (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Gardner et al., 2000; Milkovich & Milkovich, 1992; Tan & Peng, 1997) and when they have a greater perception of successful task/work experiences (Brockner, 1988; Korman, 1970, 1976) and job-self fit (Riordan et al., 2001) and less perception of role ambiguity (Neal, 2000; Pierce et al., 1993), role conflict (Staehle-Moody, 1998; Neal, 2000), and stress (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998) in their organization. Given that, a series of practices have been established in the workplace. Participatory management practices have been found to effectively enhance employees' OBSE (Lee, 2003). Two recent studies investigated the effects of various types of i-deals on OBSE and found that development i-deals, flexibility i-deals, and task i-deals showed positive relationships with OBSE (Ho & Kong, 2015; Liu et al., 2013). Based on the

self-enhancement theory, Liu et al. (2013) found that employees who successfully negotiated and obtained development i-deals and flexibility i-deals reported higher OBSE. Ho and Kong (2015) found that OBSE is significantly affected by task i-deals but not by financial i-deals and that financial i-deals moderated the relationship between task i-deals and OBSE (Ho & Kong, 2015).

2.2.4 Outcomes of Organization-Based Self-Esteem

Previous studies mainly discussed the influence of OBSE on employee motivation, attitudes, and organizational behavior (Table 2-7).

Table 2-7 Outcomes of OBSE

Classification	Variables	Relationship
Motivation & Attitude	Work motivation	Positive (Pierce et al., 1989; Hui & Lee, 2000)
	Job satisfaction	Positive (Pierce et al., 1989; Stark et al., 2000; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004)
	Organizational commitment	Positive (Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Tang et al., 2000; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004)
	Organizational identification	Negative (WLB) (Kark & Shamir, 2002; Kark et al., 2003; Shamir & Kark, 2004)
	Career satisfaction	Positive (Carson et al., 1997, 1998)
	Career commitment	Positive (Carson et al., 1997, 1998; Tang et al., 2000; Singer & Tang, 1996)
	Integrated well-being	Positive (Fan et al., 2014; Mauno et al., 2006; Pierce et al., 2016)
Behavior	Adaptation to Organizational Change	Positive (Brockner, 1988; Staehle-Moody, 1998)
	Organizational citizenship behavior	Positive (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998; Chattopadhyay & George, 2001; Tang et al., 2002; Van Dyne &

		Pierce, 2004)
	Ethical behavior intentions	Positive (Hsu & Kuo, 2003)
	Feedback-seeking behavior	Positive (Brockner, 1988; Korman, 2001; Van Dyne et al., 1990)
	Turnover	Negative (Gardner & Pierce, 2001; Phillips & Hall, 2001; Riordan et al., 2001)
	Innovative behavior	Positive (Chen & Aryee, 2007; Rank et al., 2009)
	Performance	Positive (Pierce et al., 1989; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2003)

2.2.4.1 Motivation and Attitude

An individual with higher OBSE tends to have positive work-related motivation and attitudes. In terms of the relationship between OBSE and motivation, Pierce et al. (1989) first found that intrinsic OBSE has a significant positive influence on intrinsic work motivation, and this finding was confirmed by Hui and Lee (2000). In terms of attitude, several researchers have observed that a high level of OBSE played a causal role in a high level of job satisfaction (Pierce et al., 1989; Stark et al., 2000; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004), organizational commitment (Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Tang et al., 2000; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004), and organizational identification (Kark & Shamir, 2002; Kark et al., 2003; Shamir & Kark, 2004). Studies have also verified the positive relationships among OBSE, career satisfaction (Carson et al., 1997, 1998), and career commitment (Carson et al., 1997, 1998; Singer & Tang, 1996; Tang et al., 2000). These findings indicate that employees with higher OBSE are more likely to feel satisfied with their current jobs and career and thus to be more loyal to their employing organizations and professions. In addition, several studies have investigated the relationship between OBSE and integrated well-being and found that higher OBSE predicted better integrated well-being (Fan et al., 2014; Mauno et al., 2006; Pierce et al., 2015; Pierce et al.,

2016).

2.2.4.2 Behavior

A wide range of studies confirms that OBSE plays a vital role in predicting employees' organizational behavior and performance. First, studies have shown that employees with higher OBSE find it relatively easier to adapt to organizational change (Brockner, 1988; Staehle-Moody, 1998). Second, Tang and Ibrahim (1998) reported that OBSE had a positive influence on employees' organizational citizenship behavior. This observation is consistent with the findings of Chattopadhyay and George (2001), Tang et al. (2002), and Van Dyne and Pierce (2004). Third, studies have shown that employees with higher OBSE usually show greater intention to perform positive behavior such as ethical behavior (Hsu & Kuo, 2003) and feedback-seeking behavior (Brockner, 1988; Korman, 2001; Van Dyne et al., 1990). Fourth, OBSE has been shown to help to reduce employee turnover and turnover intention; that is, employees with higher OBSE are less likely to consider quitting (Gardner & Pierce, 2001). Other researchers have confirmed this finding and verified a negative association between OBSE and turnover (Phillips & Hall, 2001; Riordan et al., 2001). Fifth, employees with high OBSE have more positive self-awareness and see themselves as highly competent or capable employees. Therefore, they are more willing to take risks and engage in innovative behaviors than those with low OBSE (Chen & Aryee, 2007; Rank et al., 2009). Also, most studies have verified that employees with high OBSE usually contribute better performances to their organizations (Pierce et al., 1989; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2003).

2.2.5 Organization-Based Self-Esteem in the Hotel Industry Context

There has been a limited number of studies of the importance of OBSE in the hotel and hospitality contexts in recent years. In one empirical study of frontline staff in the Chinese hotel industry, OBSE was shown to play a mediating role in the association between abusive supervision and service performance (Jian et al., 2012). A qualitative study of Malaysian customer-contact hotel employees proposed a conceptual model of the effects of personal

resources (i.e., OBSE and self-monitoring) on work engagement via content analysis (Nasurdin & Suan, 2014). Another hospitality study used structural equation modeling (SEM) to establish and test a model of the influence of recovery experiences on subjective well-being and found that recovery experiences (i.e., psychological detachment, relaxation, mastery experiences, and control) showed a positive relationship with OBSE and that OBSE showed a positive relationship with job dedication, career satisfaction, and subjective well-being (i.e., life satisfaction) (Lee et al., 2016). Another recent study found that OBSE played a moderating role in the mediation model of perceived customer participation–relational crafting–work-to-family enrichment (Loi et al., 2019). In a nutshell, the study of OBSE in the hotel context remains in an early stage and thus requires further discussion in future studies.

2.2.6 Summary

From the literature review, we can find that the OBSE research began in the 1980s. In terms of concept, dimensions, and measurements, most scholars conceptualized OBSE on the basis of self-esteem and followed Pierce et al. (1989)'s opinions. In terms of antecedents, researchers mainly studied individual and organizational contributors to OBSE. And for outcomes, most studies focus on the influence of OBSE on employee motivation, attitudes, and organizational behavior. Although OBSE has always been a hot spot in the field of organizational behavior and human resources management, hospitality research on OBSE remains in an early stage and thus requires further discussion in future studies.

2.3 Work-Life Balance

2.3.1 Concepts

Based on the literature, the study of WLB can be divided into work-family conflict/balance and work-life conflict/balance.

2.3.1.1 Work-Family Conflict/Balance

Based on the original definition of WLB, researchers have focused their studies on the work

and family domains, both of which are important domains of an individual's daily life. The two domains promote and restrict each other. If individuals can perform their work and family responsibilities with little or no conflict or interference between the work role and family role, they have achieved WLB. The earliest study of WLB dates back to the 1960s, when Kahn et al. (1964) first proposed WFC as a type of role conflict that arises from pressures between the work and family domains when they are incompatible in certain ways. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) suggested that this role conflict included time-based conflict, strain-based conflict, and behavior-based conflict. Frone and his colleagues further stated that WFC, also called work-family interface, was a construct of two concepts: work interference with family and family interference with work (Frone et al., 1992, 1997). According to the definition of WFC, work-family balance (WFB) was proposed as an employee's capability to manage conflict from the demands for time of the work and family roles (Clutterback, 2003). Milkie and Peltola (1999) regarded WFB as the success with which an individual balanced his or her work and family lives. A recent literature review defined WFB as the balancing act of inter-role pressures between the work and family domains that caused role conflict (Klimczuk et al., 2016).

2.3.1.2 Work-Life Conflict/Balance

By the 1990s, researchers found that non-work roles were not just limited to the family domains and thus began to focus on work-life conflict/balance. Most studies of work-life conflict (WLC) have defined WFC as a form of role conflict attributed to the demands between work and life domains when one domain interferes with another domain (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn et al., 1964). Some researchers regarded role balance as WLB. According to Marks and MacDermid (1996), role balance refers to the tendency to fully participate in the performance of every role in an individual's entire role system and to treat each major role and role partner with an attentive or caring attitude. Kirchmeyer (2000) regarded WLB as achieving satisfaction in all life domains by distributing all personal resources such as energy, time, and commitment to those domains. Clark (2000) defined WLB as the maximum satisfaction in both the workplace and the home with minimal

role conflicts. In contrast, Greenhaus et al. (2003) viewed WLB as a structure of three components: time balance (i.e., equal levels of time devoted to work and family roles), involvement balance (i.e., equal levels of psychological involvement in work and family roles), and satisfaction balance (i.e., equal levels of satisfaction with work and family roles).

Based on the literature, this research adopted a comprehensive definition by Harr, which was regarded as “individuals’ perceptions of how well their various roles in their work, family, and other typical responsibilities are balanced” (Harr, 2013; Harr, 2014).

2.3.2 Dimensions and Measurements

A variety of measurement scales, based on the different classifications of WLB (i.e., work-family conflict/balance and work-life conflict/balance), have been developed to study WLB (Table 2-8).

Table 2-8 Measurement Scales for WLB

Classification	Author	Dimension	Respondent
Work-Family Conflict	Frone (1992)	1) Work interference with family 2) Family interference with work	Residents in USA
	Netemeyer et al. (1996)	1) Work-family conflict 2) Family-work conflict	Elementary and high-school teachers and administrators in USA
Work-Family Balance	Milkie and Peltola (1999)	—	A subsample of General Social Survey (GSS, 1996) respondents in USA
	Greenhaus et al.	—	Business college

	(2012)		alumni from a private university in USA
	Lapiere et al. (2016)	—	Financial services organization in the Netherlands
Work-Life Conflict	Duxbury & Higgins (2001)	1) Role overload 2) Work to family Interference 3) Family to work interference 4) Caregiver strain 5) Work to family spillover	Residents in Canada
	Siegel et al. (2005)	—	MBA students in USA
Work-Life Balance	Marks & MacDermid (1996)	—	Employed wives and husbands in USA
	White (1999)	—	Residents of Canada at least 15 years of age
	Saltzstein et al. (2001)	—	Employees in USA
	Haar (2013)	—	Enterprise employees in New Zealand
	Direnzo et al. (2015)	—	Residents in USA
	Marks & MacDermid (1996)	—	University students in USA

	Greenhaus et al. (2003)	1) Time balance 2) Involvement balance 3) Satisfaction balance	Members of the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA)
	Wong & Ko (2009)	1) Enough time off from work 2) Workplace support of work-life balance 3) Allegiance to work 4) Flexibility on work schedule 5) Life orientation 6) Voluntary reduction of contracted working hours to cater personal needs 7) Upkeep work and career	Hotel employees in HK

2.3.2.1 Work-Family Conflict/Balance

The most widely accepted measurement scale of WFC developed by Frone (1992) includes two dimensions: work interference with family (two items; e.g., “how often does your job or career interfere with your responsibilities at home, such as yard work, cooking, cleaning, repairs, shopping, paying the bills, or child care?”) and family interference with work (two items; e.g., “how often does your home life interfere with your responsibilities at work, such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, or working overtime?”). Netemeyer et

al. (1996) also proposed a two-dimensional scale of WFC that included work-family conflict (five items; e.g., “the amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities”) and family-work conflict (five items; e.g., “I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home”).

To measure WFB, Milkie and Peltola (1999) used a one-item scale: “how successful do you feel in balancing your paid work and family life?”. Reviewing the studies of Hill et al. (2001) and Saltzstein et al. (2001), Greenhaus and his colleagues proposed a five-item scale to assess the overall degree of balance individuals experience between their work and family lives (e.g., “I am able to balance the demands of my work and the demands of my family”) (Greenhaus et al., 2012). Based on this study and the concept of self-efficacy, Lapiere et al. (2016) established a new measurement scale of WLB self-efficacy that focused on evaluating individuals’ perception of self-efficacy (i.e., confidence in their ability) to successfully maintain WFB with six items (e.g., “I feel confident that I will schedule my time in such a way that I will have enough time for my work as well as my family life”). The above studies tend to treat the family role as an individual’s non-work or life role.

2.3.2.2 Work-Life Conflict/Balance

In a review of the literature, Duxbury and Higgins (2001) used role overload, work to family interference, family to work interference, caregiver strain, and work to family spillover to measure WLC. In their study, role overload was measured with a five-item scale developed by Bohlen and Viveros-Long (1981). Both work to family interference and family to work interference were assessed with five-item scales developed by Gutek et al. (1991), caregiver strain was measured with a four-item scale proposed by Robinson (1983), and work to family spillover was measured with an eight-item scale developed by Duxbury and Higgins (1995). Another study by Siegel et al. (2005) used five items to assess the extent to which an individual achieved a balance in his or her responsibilities in the work and non-work domains (e.g., “How much does your current work schedule allow sufficient flexibility for you to meet your personal needs?”).

Many studies used a one-item scale to assess WLB; for example, Marks and MacDermid (1996) used one item to assess the extent to which a person enjoys each part of his or her life. White (1999) and Saltzstein et al. (2001) used two items to measure an individual’s satisfaction with the balance between his or her job or main activity and his or her family and home life. Those scales may not be ideal, but they are at least effective in evaluating equality among roles with regard to enjoyment or satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Scholars later developed some more complex constructs of WLB. Haar (2013) proposed a one-dimensional scale with three items (i.e., “Nowadays, I seem to enjoy every part of my life equally well”; “I am satisfied with my work-life balance, enjoying both roles”, and “I manage to balance the demands of my work and personal/family life well”). Drenzo et al. (2015) adopted six items to measure WLB (e.g., “I can balance my work and personal responsibilities so that one does not upset the other”). Marks and MacDermid (1996) used an eight-item model to measure role balance (e.g., “I am pretty good at keeping the different parts of my life in balance”). Greenhaus et al. (2003) established a three-dimensional model that included an individual’s time balance, involvement balance, and satisfaction balance in his or her work and family roles.

2.3.3 Antecedents of Work-Life Balance

WLB can be influenced by many domains in life. The most commonly studied aspects of WLB can be grouped into work and family contributors (Table 2-9).

Table 2-9 Antecedents of WLB

Classification	Variables	Relationship
Work Contributor	Work hours	Negative (WFB) (Milkie & Peltola, 1999)
	Workload	Positive (WFC) (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Frone et al., 1997; Goh et al., 2015; Ilies et al., 2007)
	Flexibility i-deals	Positive (WFC) (Hornung et al., 2008, 2009)
	Development i-deals	Negative (WFC) (Hornung et al., 2008, 2009)

	Telecommuting	Negative (WFC) (Golden & Fromen, 2011; Hornung et al., 2008)
	Organizational work-family support	Negative (WFC) (Kossek et al., 2011; Lyness & Kropf, 2005)
	Protean career orientation	Positive (WLB) (Direenzo et al., 2015)
Family Contributor	WLC	Negative (WLB) (Haar, 2013)
	Work-life enrichment	Positive (WLB) (Haar, 2013)
	Life-work enrichment	Positive (WLB) (Haar, 2013)
	Unfair division of housework	Negative (WFB) (Milkie & Peltola, 1999)
	Marital satisfaction	Positive (WFB) (Milkie & Peltola, 1999); Positive (Role balance) (Marks et al., 2001)
	Parental attachment to children	Positive (Role balance) (Marks et al., 2001)

2.3.3.1 Work Contributor

Studies of work contributors have indicated that most employees expect and pursue fewer work hours and lighter workloads to balance their roles in work and life (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Frone et al., 1997; Goh et al., 2015; Ilies et al., 2007; Milkie & Peltola, 1999). Flexibility i-deals are therefore more effective in reducing WFC than development i-deals, as verified by Hornung and his colleagues in two quantitative studies (Hornung et al., 2008, 2009). Hornung et al. (2008) also found that telecommuting helped reduce individuals' perception of WFC. It is understandable that workers have lower WFC if they are empowered to work outside the organization during work hours or can choose workplace flexibly for family reasons (Golden & Fromen, 2011). Both flexibility i-deals and telecommuting reflect organizational support of

employees to help them balance their work and family or personal responsibilities. Therefore, employees' views of organizational work-family support also have a positive effect on WFB (Kossek et al., 2011; Lyness & Kropf, 2005). In addition, Dorenzo et al. (2015) found that employees with higher protean career orientation also showed higher perceptions of WLB.

2.3.3.2 Family Contributor

In addition to personal work life, employees in the organization are also experiencing family life. The family has great significance for the employees themselves, and it also plays a vital role in an employee's WLB. Harr (2013) used SEM and found that both work-life enrichment and life-work enrichment contributed to an increase in WLB, whereas WLC led to a reduction in WLB. If the division of housework is unfair, employees' pressure from the family will increase and thus reduce their perception of WFB. In contrast, marital satisfaction is beneficial to WFB (Milkie & Peltola, 1999). Another study on white couples in the USA showed that both marital satisfaction and parental attachment to children contribute to role balance (Marks et al., 2001). Thus, both work and family have been shown to provide individuals with enough support to ensure their WLB.

2.3.4 Outcomes of Work-Life Balance

Previous studies have shown that WLB improves employees' cognition, attitude, and behavior (Table 2-10).

Table 2-10 Outcomes of WLB

Classification	Variables	Relationship
Cognition & Attitude	Job satisfaction	Positive (WLB) (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Haar, 2013; Haar, 2014)
	Organizational commitment	Negative (WFC) (Netemeyer et al., 1996)
	Life satisfaction	Positive (WLB) (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Haar, 2013; Haar, 2014)
	Emotional exhaustion	Negative (WLB) (Haar, 2013)

	Anxiety	Negative (WLB) (Haar, 2013; Haar, 2014)
	Depression	Negative (WLB) (Marks & MacDermid, 1996; Haar, 2013; Haar, 2014)
	Well-being	Positive (Role balance) (Marks & MacDermid, 1996); Positive (WLB) (Haar et al., 2014; Lunau et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2016); Negative (WFC) (Allen et al., 2000; Montgomery et al., 2003; Leineweber et al., 2013; Fiksenbaum, 2014)
	Quality of life	Positive (WLB) (Greenhaus et al., 2003)
Behavior	Job burnout	Positive (WLC) (Mowday et al., 1982)
	Absenteeism	Positive (WLC) (Mowday et al., 1982)
	Retention	Positive (WLB) (Grover & Crooker, 1995)
	Productivity	Positive (WLB) (Konrad & Mangel, 2000)
	Job performance	Negative (WLC) (Bond et al., 1998; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998)
	Organizational citizenship behavior	Positive (WLB) (Lambert, 2000)

2.3.4.1 Cognition and Attitude

In the areas of cognition and attitude, WLB has been shown to be an important predictor of employee satisfaction, commitment, and well-being. The employees of organizations that help individuals to balance their work and life are more likely to show greater job satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Haar, 2013; Haar, 2014) and life satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Haar, 2013; Haar, 2014). Several studies have also shown that organizational work-family programs can relieve employees' emotional exhaustion (Haar, 2013), anxiety (Haar, 2013;

Haar, 2014), and depression (Marks & MacDermid, 1996; Haar, 2013; Haar, 2014) by balancing their work and non-work roles. Well-being is also a very important outcome of both WLB and WFC. For example, role balance has shown a positive relationship with well-being (Marks & MacDermid, 1996), and WLB has shown a positive relationship with well-being (Haar et al., 2014; Lunau et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2016). In contrast, WFC has a negative effect on well-being (Allen et al., 2000; Fiksenbaum, 2014; Montgomery et al., 2003; Leineweber et al., 2013), and there is evidence that an individual's quality of life can be improved by balancing his or her work and life roles (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

2.3.4.2 Behavior

Studies have shown that WLB not only influences employees' cognitions and attitudes, it also predicts to some extent the behaviors that influence an organization's stability, performance, and long-term development. An early study by Mowday and his colleagues showed that employees who perceived a high level of WLC had higher job burnout and absenteeism rates (Mowday et al., 1982). In contrast, organizations that focused on balancing roles in the work and life domains were more likely to have a higher rate of employee retention (Grover & Crooker, 1995). In addition, a high level of WLC leads to a reduction in employees' job performance (Bond et al., 1998; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998), whereas a high level of WLB helps to enhance employees' productivity and organizational citizenship behavior (Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Lambert, 2000). These studies have shown that the WLB plan is an organizational strategy to achieve efficient production. Essentially, high-quality WLB is viewed positively as improving employees' job satisfaction and productivity, reducing employees' turnover and absenteeism, and facilitating the recruitment of high-quality candidates, thereby contributing to the organization in various aspects.

2.3.5 Work-Life Balance in the Hotel Industry Context

As a labor-intensive service industry, the hotel industry always faces the problem of WLB. Many researchers have discussed the measures, antecedents, and outcomes of WLB in the hotel

and hospitality context. In an empirical study of 320 hotel employees in Hong Kong, Wong and Ko (2009) developed a seven-dimensional scale that included enough time off from work (e.g., “I have enough time after work to carry out personal matters”), workplace support of WLB (e.g., “My supervisor is understanding when I talk about personal or family issues that affect my work”), allegiance to work (e.g., “I find it easy to concentrate at work because of family support”), flexibility of work schedule (e.g., “I can schedule my preferred days off supported by my team”), life orientation (e.g., “I fell happy when I have quality time for my family life”), voluntary reduction of contracted working hours to cater to personal needs (e.g., “I would consider working fewer hours per shift each day at a prorated salary”), and upkeep of work and career (e.g., “I accept working extra hours each day because it is essential to progress in my career”). This study laid the foundation for understanding the key components of WLB in the hotel industry context.

The most commonly discussed contributors to WLB in the hotel context have been time pressure, workload, job insecurity, role ambiguity, job autonomy, emotional labor, and stress (Deery & Jago, 2009; Hofmann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2017; Karatepe, 2012; Karatepe, 2013; Lawson et al., 2013). The influence of WLB on emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment have also been verified in the hotel and hospitality contexts (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Hofmann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2017; Karatepe, 2013; O’Neill et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2011; Zhao & Namasiva-yam, 2012). Nevertheless, WLB and i-deals have yet to be linked in the hotel context, and it should be considered in future studies.

2.3.6 Summary

From the perspective of literature review, the research of WLB originated from the 1960s. Scholars first focused on the issue of work-family conflict/balance and regarded it as a hot topic of human resource management. Later, researchers argued that non-work roles were not just limited to the family domains and thus began to focus on work-life conflict/balance. In terms of concept, scholars have reached a consensus. But for dimensions and measurements,

there are some differences in the construction of the questionnaire. The major reason is that different organizations, job contents and natures make individuals have different WLB issues. In terms of antecedents, researchers mainly studied work and family contributors to WLB. In terms of outcomes, previous studies mainly discussed the influence of WLB on employees' cognition, attitude, and behavior. Although WLB is also a research hotspot in the hotel industry, the effects of different types of i-deals on WLB still need to be further studied.

2.4 Occupational Well-Being

2.4.1 Concepts

The definition of OWB remains controversial. Early studies used two main perspectives to define employees' OWB: subjective well-being and psychological well-being. From the perspective of subjective well-being, OWB is regarded as an individual's perception of pleasurable experiences and cognition related to work, which includes affective balance (i.e., positive affective experience vs. negative affective experience) and life satisfaction (Bretones & Gonzalez, 2011; Diener et al., 2003); from the perspective of psychological well-being, OWB refers to an individual's perception of self-actualization and assessment of the application of potential, including autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relationships, purpose in life, and self-acceptance (Ryff, 1989). Generally, these two perspectives are proposed based on the aims of the researcher. The former focuses on subjectivity, pleasure, and enjoyment, but the latter emphasizes objectivity, significance, and development. In addition, psychological well-being is more long-term and sustainable than subjective well-being (Table 2-11).

Table 2-11 Difference Between Subjective Well-Being and Psychological Well-Being

Characteristic	Subjective Well-Being	Psychological Well-Being
Basis	Hedonic view	Eudemonic view
Definition	Individual's perception of pleasurable experiences and	Individual's perception of self-actualization and assessment of

	cognition related to work	potentials' application
Dimension	1) Positive affective experience 2) Negative affective experience 3) Life satisfaction	1) Autonomy 2) Environmental mastery 3) Personal growth 4) Positive relations 5) Purpose in life 6) Self-acceptance
Duration or Stability	Short-term and unsustainable	Long-term and sustainable

Some researchers have noted the difficulty of defining employees' OWB in a comprehensive manner when using only one perspective, and have integrated subjective well-being and psychological well-being in their explanations of OWB (Warr, 1990, 1994; van Horn, 2004). Warr (1990, 1994) regarded an employee's OWB as consisting of both emotional and behavioral factors defined OWB as an employee's overall evaluation of his or her job tasks and experiences through their own efforts in the work. Van Horn (2004) further added cognitive, social, and psychosomatic factors to the concepts of OWB and defined it as an employee's satisfaction on the experiences of completing tasks and achieving goals through their efforts. A recent study of Chinese employees by Huang (2014) regarded employees' OWB as the overall quality of their experience and efficacy, which consisted of affective well-being, cognitive well-being, professional well-being, and social well-being. Affective well-being reflects an employee's work-related emotional experience and is similar to work-related affective experience from the perspective of subjective well-being; cognitive well-being reflects the quality of an employee's work-related cognitive efficiency and is consistent with work-related cognition from the perspective of subjective well-being, professional well-being reflects an employee's sense of job competence, job aspiration, and job approval and is consistent with assessment of purpose in life, personal growth, and self-acceptance, and social well-being reflects the quality of an employee's social relationships in the workplace and is similar to positive relationships and environmental mastery in the workplace from the

perspective of psychological well-being.

From the above, controversies still exist about the concept of OWB at present. This research believes that OWB is not simply equivalent to happiness, nor simply equivalent to achieving work significance and self-worth, and further research on OWB should be conducted from the perspective of integration. Therefore, this research intends to adopt the definition by Huang (2014).

2.4.2 Dimensions and Measurements

Due to these differences in the definition of OWB, there is also considerable variations in the measurement instruments. Based on the hedonic view, the eudemonic view, and the integrated view, OWB constructs can be divided into three types: subjective well-being, psychological well-being, and integrated well-being (Table 2-12).

Table 2-12 Measurement Scales for OWB

Classification	Author	Dimension	Respondent
Subjective Well-Being	Diener (1984)	1) Life satisfaction 2) Positive affect 3) Negative affect	—
	Diener et al. (2009)	1) Positive affect 2) Negative affect 3) Global satisfaction 4) Domain satisfaction	—
	Xanthopoulou et al. (2012)	1) Job satisfaction 2) Engagement 3) Involvement 4) Positive emotions	—
Psychological Well-Being	Ryff (1989)	1) Autonomy 2) Environmental	Young adults from an educational institution

		<p>mastery</p> <p>3) Personal growth</p> <p>4) Positive relations</p> <p>5) Purpose in life</p> <p>6) Self-acceptance</p>	<p>and middle-aged and older adults from community and civic organizations</p>
	Dagenais-Desmarais & Savoie (2012)	<p>1) Interpersonal fit at work</p> <p>2) Thriving at work</p> <p>3) Feeling of competency at work</p> <p>4) Desire for involvement at work</p> <p>5) Perceived recognition at work</p>	<p>Enterprise employees in Canada</p>
Integrated Well-Being	Warr (1990, 1994)	<p>1) Affective well-being</p> <p>2) Competence</p> <p>3) Aspiration</p> <p>4) Autonomy</p> <p>5) Integrated functioning</p>	<p>Employees in UK</p>
	van Horn (2004)	<p>1) Affective well-being</p> <p>2) Professional well-being</p> <p>3) Social well-being</p> <p>4) Cognitive well-being</p> <p>5) Psychosomatic well-being</p>	<p>Primary and secondary school teachers in the Netherlands</p>
	Fisher (2010)	<p>1) Job satisfaction</p>	<p>—</p>

		2) Engagement 3) Affective organizational commitment	
	Huang (2014)	1) Affective well-being 2) Cognitive well-being 3) Professional well-being 4) Social well-being	Enterprise employees in China

2.4.2.1 Subjective Well-Being

Most of the studies that adopted the hedonic view have followed Diener (1984), who first proposed three components of subjective well-being: life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect. For example, Diener et al. (2009) developed a hierarchical model of OWB with four dimensions: positive affect (e.g., contentment, joy, happy, love), negative affect (e.g., anger, sadness, worry, stress), global satisfaction (e.g., life satisfaction, fulfilment, meaning, success), and domain satisfaction (e.g., marriage, work, leisure, health). The first two involve the affective evaluation of the work, and the latter two involve the cognitive evaluation of the work. Bakker et al. (2011) used job satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect to measure subjective well-being, and a theoretical analysis by Xanthopoulou et al. (2012) proposed a four-dimensional model of subjective well-being that included job satisfaction, engagement, involvement, and positive emotions.

2.4.2.2 Psychological Well-Being

In studies that have adopted the eudemonic view, the most widely recognized construct is the six-dimensional model of psychological well-being developed by Ryff (1989), which includes autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relationships, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. On this basis, Dagenais-Desmarais and Savoie (2012) further developed

a five-dimensional model that includes interpersonal fit at work, thriving at work, feeling of competency at work, desire for involvement at work, and perceived recognition at work.

2.4.2.3 Integrated Well-Being

Among the studies that have adopted the integrated view, the measurement scale of OWB remains controversial. Warr (1990, 1994) stated that OWB consisted of affective well-being, competence, aspiration, autonomy, and integrated functioning. Based on the findings of Ryff (1989) and Warr (1990, 1994), van Horn (2004) developed a five-dimensional model for Dutch teachers that included affective well-being (i.e., affect, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, emotional exhaustion), professional well-being (i.e., aspiration, competence, autonomy), social well-being (i.e., depersonalization toward students, depersonalization toward colleagues, social functioning in relationships with students, social functioning in relationships with colleagues), cognitive well-being (i.e., cognitive weariness), and psychosomatic well-being (i.e., psychosomatic health complaints). Nevertheless, that study was limited to an educational context, and the content validity and applicability of the scale are limited. Fisher's theoretical review (2010) suggested considering three domains — the work itself, the job including contextual features, and the organization as a whole — to measure OWB, and he thus proposed a three-dimensional scale that included job satisfaction, engagement, and affective organizational commitment. Of these, engagement, as conceptualized by Bakker and Demerouti (2008), represented cognitive and affective involvement and enjoyment of the work itself; job satisfaction represented cognition of the job including compensation, colleagues, supervisors, and working environment; and affective organizational commitment represented feelings of attachment, belonging, and person-organization fit. They noted that the mean of these three factors reflects an individual's well-being in an organization. Nevertheless, this scale has not been verified empirically. A recent study of Chinese employees by Huang (2014) proposed a four-dimensional model that included affective well-being (i.e., positive and negative affective experience), cognitive well-being, professional well-being (i.e., sense of job competence, job aspiration, and sense of job

approval), and social well-being.

2.4.3 Antecedents of Occupational Well-Being

Studies have shown that 50% of the difference in well-being is determined by genes, 10% is caused by environment, and 40% is affected by purposeful activities and practices (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Lyubomirsky, 2001; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). On this basis, the antecedents of OWB are classified by the individual contributor, organizational contributor, and family contributor (Table 2-13).

Table 2-13 Antecedents of OWB

Classification	Variables	Relationship
Individual Contributor	Genes	Positive (Subjective well-being) (Diener et al., 1999; Lykken & Tellegen 1996; Tellegen et al., 1988; Weiss et al., 2008)
	Positive personality	Positive (Subjective well-being) (Diener et al., 1999; Heller et al., 2004; Steel et al., 2008)
	Psychological capital	Positive (Integrated well-being) (Siu, 2013)
	Core self-evaluations	Positive (Integrated well-being) (Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge et al., 2008; Judge & Hurst, 2008)
Organizational Contributor	Challenge job demands	Positive (Integrated well-being) (Tadić et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2013)
	Hindrance demands	Negative (Integrated well-being) (Tadic et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2013)
	Job resources	Positive (Integrated well-being) (Tadic et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2013; Xanthopoulou et al., 2013)
	Charismatic leadership	Positive (Subjective well-being) (DeGroot et al., 2000)

	Transformational leadership	Positive (Integrated well-being) (Kara et al., 2013)
	Leader-member exchange	Positive (Integrated well-being) (Gerstner & Day, 1997)
	Trust in the leader	Positive (Integrated well-being) (Dirks & Ferrin, 1997)
	Autonomy support	Positive (Integrated well-being) (Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 1989)
	Interpersonal relationship	Positive (Integrated well-being) (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Dutton, 2003; Dutton & Ragins, 2007)
	Organizational justice	Positive (Integrated well-being) (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001)
	OBSE	Positive (Integrated well-being) (Fan et al., 2014; Mauno et al., 2006; Pierce et al., 2016)
Family Contributor	WFC	Negative (Subjective well-being) (Allen et al., 2000; Fiksenbaum, 2014; Leineweber et al., 2013; Montgomery et al., 2003)
	WLB	Positive (Subjective well-being) (Haar et al., 2014; Lunau et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2016)

2.4.3.1 Individual Contributor

As mentioned above, OWB is the overall quality of experience and efficacy, which consists of affective well-being, cognitive well-being, professional well-being, and social well-being (Huang, 2014), so it can be regarded as internal affective feedback of external conditions in the workplace. Under the same external conditions, OWB may be attributed to an individual's genes and personality; that is to say, some individuals are naturally happier than others (Diener et al., 1999; Lucas, 2008). A study of twins showed that about 50% of the difference in

subjective well-being is determined by genes (Lykken & Tellegen 1996; Tellegen et al., 1988; Weiss et al., 2008). Subjective well-being is also related to certain personality traits, including optimism, self-esteem, locus of control, extraversion, emotional stability (neuroticism), and dispositional positive and negative affectivity (Heller et al., 2004; Lucas, 2008; Steel et al., 2008). Psychological capital and core self-evaluations are also important in predicting well-being (Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge et al., 2008; Judge & Hurst, 2008; Siu, 2013). These findings help explain why different individuals in the same workplace have different perceptions of OWB.

2.4.3.2 Organizational Contributor

As each employee is a member of the organization, several organizational factors can directly influence an employee's OWB. In terms of job level, several studies have used JD-R theory to confirm that job resources and job demands are strongly related to OWB. Challenge job demands reflect the organization's recognition and emphasis on an individual's capabilities, values, and sense of achievements. Therefore, challenging and complex job characteristics contribute to employees' integrated well-being (positive affect and work engagement), whereas hindrance job demands may lead to increased mental stress and exhaustion as well as reduced psychological and physical resources and thereby inhibit individuals' integrated well-being (positive affect and work engagement) (Tadić et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2013). At the same time, job resources help to promote integrated well-being (positive affect and work engagement) (Tadić et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2013; Xanthopoulou et al., 2013).

Charismatic leadership and transformational leadership are important predictors of employees' subjective well-being (job satisfaction) and integrated well-being (quality of work life, life satisfaction, organizational commitment, and employee burnout), respectively (DeGroot et al., 2000; Kara et al., 2013), and leader-member exchange is also vital in predicting employees' integrated well-being (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Similarly, trust in the leader can promote employees' integrated well-being (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Autonomous support

from the leader is also an important predictor of employees' integrated well-being (job satisfaction, well-being, and engagement) (Baard et al., 2004; Deci et al., 1989).

In addition, employees' perceptions of the organizational climate are also likely to influence OWB. First, employees' perceptions of interpersonal relationships in the workplace are beneficial to happiness and energy (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Dutton, 2003; Dutton & Ragins, 2007) because harmonious and close interpersonal relationships can satisfy employees' needs for positive relationships and attachment. Organizational justice also has a positive effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). OBSE has also been shown to contribute to employees' OWB (Fan et al., 2014; Mauno et al., 2006; Pierce et al., 2016).

2.4.3.3 Family Contributor

At the family level, an individual's OWB is profoundly affected by family throughout his or her life. Many studies have confirmed that WFC can cause stress and concern among employees and thus reduce their subjective well-being (life satisfaction and engagement) (Allen et al., 2000; Fiksenbaum, 2014; Leineweber et al., 2013; Montgomery et al., 2003). Although WLB plays a supporting role in terms of relieving employees' pressure and enhancing their well-being (Haar et al., 2014; Lunau et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2016). The role of family in an individual's OWB may be more significant because family orientation and kinship constitute one element of Chinese interpersonal values. Chinese culture emphasizes the importance of maintaining close relationships with family and making decisions based on one's family (Cheng, 1997; Chan & Cheng, 2002; Hsu & Huang, 2016). In summary, employees who have more family support and fewer WFC can experience higher OWB.

2.4.4 Occupational Well-Being in the Hotel Industry Context

How to improve employees' OWB is also a hot research topic in the field of hotel research. Like other industry contexts, studies in the hotel context also examine OWB from three perspectives: subjective well-being, psychological well-being, and integrated well-being. In

terms of the concepts and measures, most hotel and hospitality studies adopt the general concepts and measures developed by human resources (HR) researchers (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018a; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018b; Lee et al., 2016; Kara et al., 2013; O’Neill & Davis, 2011; Tsaur & Tang, 2012).

The antecedents of OWB have attracted the attention of hotel and hospitality researchers in recent years. For example, work stress, job satisfaction, recovery experiences (i.e., psychological detachment, relaxation, mastery experiences, and control), OBSE, work-leisure conflict, leisure participation, and job burnout have been found to show different degrees of impact on the subjective well-being of hotel employees (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018a; O’Neill & Davis, 2011; Lee et al., 2016). Job demands, job control, and social support have shown significant relationships with the psychological well-being of hotel employees (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018b). Leadership style (transformational leadership vs. transactional leadership), regulatory leisure coping styles, centralized authority, reporting requirement, and reappraisal have been found to influence the integrated well-being of hotel employees (Haver et al., 2019; Kara et al., 2013; Tsaur & Tang, 2012). Nevertheless, no studies have linked OWB and i-deals in the hotel context, so it should be considered in future studies.

2.4.6 Summary

From the perspective of literature review, the research of OWB has always been a hot spot in the field of organizational behavior and human resources management. At present, there are three perspectives of research on the conceptualization and dimension structure of OWB: subjective well-being perspective, psychological well-being perspective and integrated well-being perspective. In terms of antecedents, most researchers agreed that the difference in OWB is due to the comprehensive effect genes, environment, and purposeful activities and practices. Although OWB is also a research hotspot in the hotel industry, the effects of different types of i-deals on OWB still need to be further studied.

2.5 Job Demands-Resources Model

This study mainly investigates the influence of i-deals on OWB and the mediating effects of OBSE and WLB on the relationship between i-deals and OWB. In the area of organizational behavior and HRM, researchers have proposed a mixed variety of theories and conceptual models to discuss the consequence of i-deals and the formation mechanism of OWB, respectively. In terms of the mechanism of i-deals, the psychological contract theory, the social exchange theory, the self-enhancement theory, the social comparison theory, the job characteristic model, and the JD-R model have been the most commonly used theoretical foundations (Hornung et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2013; Rousseau et al., 2009; Rousseau, 2005). In terms of the formation mechanism of OWB, most researchers have adopted the self-determination theory, the person-environment fit model, and the JD-R model as theoretical foundations (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Tadić et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2013). As the JD-R model has been used as a theoretical foundation for both the mechanism of i-deals and the formation mechanism of OWB, the conceptual model in this study is based on the JD-R model. In the JD-R model, all job characteristics can be regarded as a combination of job demands and job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands are job characteristics that require employees' sustained effort (e.g., work overload, emotional demands), and job resources are the job's physical, social, or organizational domains that may (a) help to cope with various job demands and costs; (b) contribute to accomplishing personal objectives; and (c) motivate personal development and growth.

Some studies based on the JD-R model have confirmed that job resources and job demands are strongly related to OWB. As shown in Figure 2-1, challenge job demands (e.g., perceived levels of workload, time urgency, job responsibility, and job complexity) show a positive relationship with integrated well-being (positive affect and work engagement), whereas hindrance job demands (e.g., excessive bureaucracy, role ambiguity, role conflict, and hassles) show a negative relationship with integrated well-being (Tadić et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2013). At the same time, job resources (e.g., social support, performance feedback,

supervisor coaching, and opportunities for development) can promote integrated well-being via meet individuals' external work goals and internal psychological needs (Tadić et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2013; Xanthopoulou et al., 2013). Studies have consistently shown that an individual that obtain more job resources from his or her organization tend to be more engaged in his or her work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2013; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

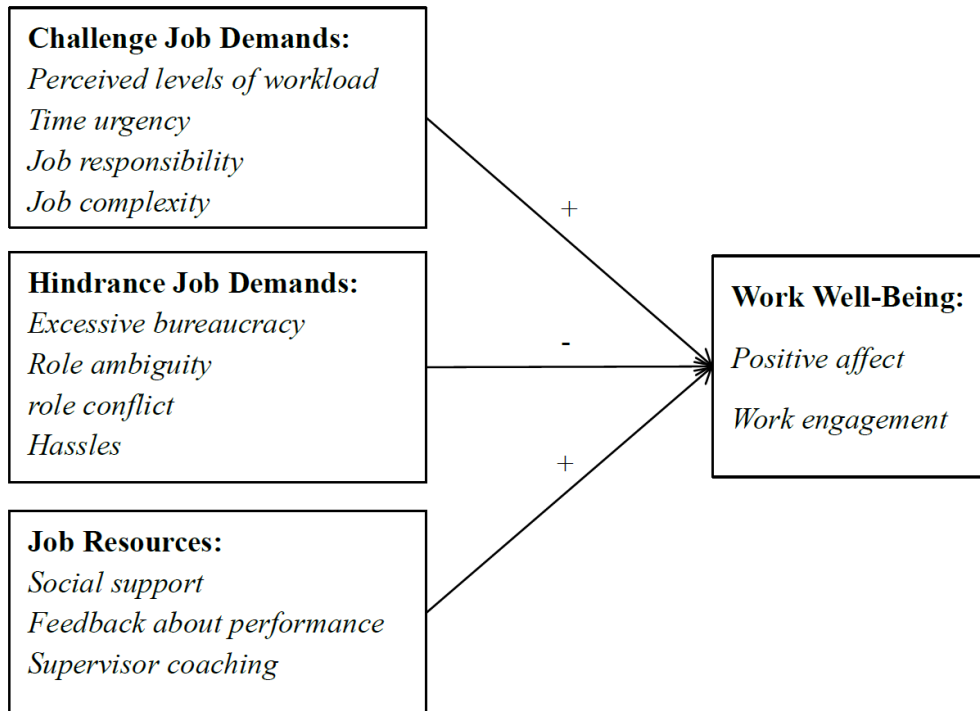


Figure 2-1 JD-R Model

In the relationship between job and individuals, individuals are not only passive recipients of job demands and resources, but also decision makers and solvers who can proactively design or create demands and resources. Active employees who perform well tend to create their own resources, which is described as job crafting (Bakker, 2011), an initiative behavior in which employees redesign their job demands and resources to satisfy their abilities, needs, and preferences (Berg et al., 2008; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Most studies have suggested that this behavior helps to improve individuals' well-being (Bakker, 2011; Tims et al., 2013; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

CHAPTER THREE

3 Conceptual Model and Hypothesis

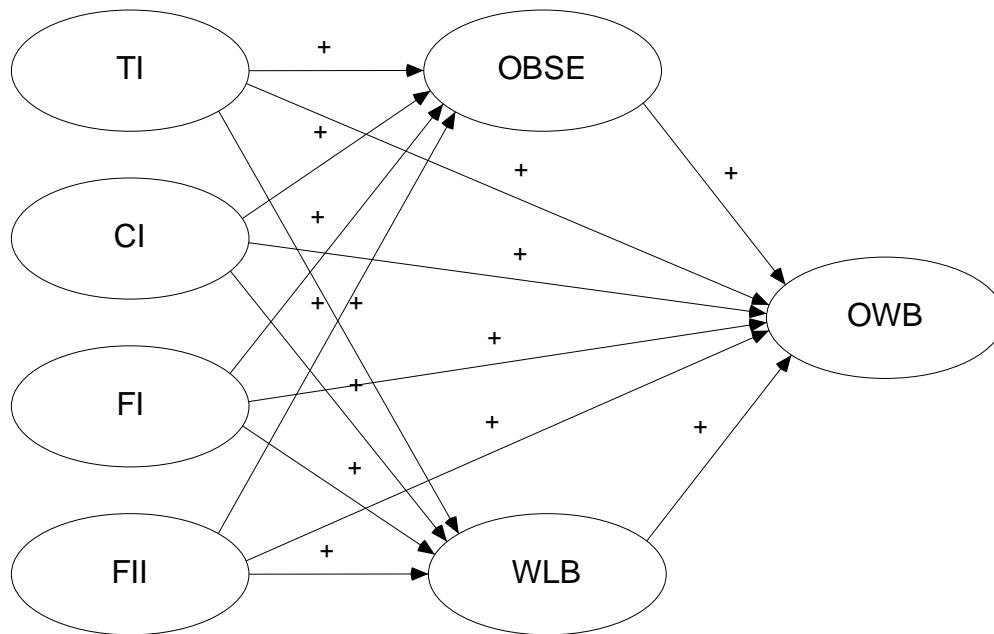
In this chapter, a content analysis of the literature review in Chapter 2 is used to develop a conceptual model and hypotheses.

3.1 Conceptual Model

The negotiation of i-deals is actually a job crafting behavior intended to attract, motivate, and retain employees. It involves crafting job resources and demands that benefit personal values, career aspirations, and WLB (Hornung et al., 2010; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Rousseau, 2005; Rousseau et al., 2006). In terms of contents, development i-deals (e.g., task, career, and financial incentives) involve an increase of challenge job demands and job resources; Flexibility i-deals (e.g., schedule and location flexibility) involve an increase of job resources and a decrease of job stress and role conflict (a kind of hindrance job demands) (Hornung et al., 2010; Lai et al., 2016). Based on the JD-R model, this study assumes two ways in which i-deals influence OWB.

- 1) By negotiating challenge job demands and job resources, a high level of task, career, flexibility, and financial incentives i-deals may improve employees' OWB via OBSE.
- 2) By negotiating hindrance job demands, a high level of flexibility, task, and career i-deals may improve employees' OWB via WLB.

Given this, a conceptual model is proposed in Figure 3-1. This model uses the four types of i-deals (task, career, flexibility, and financial incentives) as determinants, WLB and OBSE as mediators, and OWB as an outcome. Although the relationship between financial incentives i-deals and WLB has not been verified, it is tested in this study to determine whether our results are consistent with the findings of relevant findings.



Notes: TI = task i-deals, CI = career i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals, FII = financial incentives i-deals, OBSE = organization-based self-esteem, WLB = work-life balance, OWB = occupational well-being.

Figure 3-1 Conceptual Model

3.2 Hypothesis

3.2.1 Idiosyncratic Deals and Organization-Based Self-Esteem

I-deals are personalized, mutually beneficial employment agreements negotiated between employees and their employers regarding employment conditions (Rousseau, 2005). OBSE refers to the extent to which an employee views himself or herself as a valued and capable member of an organization (Pierce et al., 1989). Most studies of the association between i-deals and OBSE have been based on self-enhancement theory. Self-enhancement refers to the motivations of individuals to achieve personal growth recognized by themselves and/or others (Korman, 2001). Based on this concept, Liu et al. (2013) proposed a self-enhancement model that verified both development i-deals and flexibility i-deals enhanced employees' OBSE. In the model in Liu et al., the authorization of development i-deals reflects an employer's confidence in the individual's application of his or her own exceptional competence or skills

in the organization, whereas the authorization of flexibility i-deals reflects an employer's recognition of the individual's particular value to the organization (Liu et al., 2013). Therefore, employees who obtain i-deals are more likely to perceive organizational support and care and thus to have higher OBSE than others. This finding is consistent with that of another study in which task i-deals were found to have a positive effect on OBSE (Ho & Kong, 2015). In this study, we state that the JD-R theory provides the theoretical foundation for the relationship between i-deals and OBSE. The contents of task, career, flexibility, and financial incentives i-deals involve challenge job demands and job resources. Studies have shown that more challenge job demands with higher job complexity (Lee, 2003; Tan & Peng, 1997; Tang and Ibrahim, 1998) and autonomy (McAllister & Bigley, 2002; Vecchio, 2000), opportunities to exercise (Kostova et al., 1997), more job resources such as greater compensation (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Gardner et al., 2000; Milkovich & Milkovich, 1992; Tan & Peng, 1997), successful task/work experiences (Brockner, 1988; Korman, 1970, 1976), and job-self fit (Riordan et al., 2001) have positive relationships with OBSE. Therefore, we make the following hypotheses.

H1a: Task i-deals have a positive effect on OBSE.

H1b: Career i-deals have a positive effect on OBSE.

H1c: Flexibility i-deals have a positive effect on OBSE.

H1d: Financial incentives i-deals have a positive effect on OBSE.

3.2.2 Idiosyncratic Deals and Work-Life Balance

WLB refers to individuals' perceptions of how well their various roles in their work, family, and other typical responsibilities are balanced (Harr, 2013; Harr, 2014). The contents of development i-deals and flexibility i-deals include workloads and work hours. Studies have shown that both workloads and work hours affected role conflicts (a form of hindrance job demand) (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Frone et al., 1997; Goh et al., 2015; Ilies et al., 2007; Milkie & Peltola, 1999). The JD-R theory thus also provides the theoretical foundation for the relationship between i-deals and WLB. Flexibility i-deals have been shown to be an effective

approach to WLB because they reduce employees' workloads, time pressure, and role conflicts. For instance, a research on a German government agency by Hornung et al. (2008) found that flexibility i-deals showed a negative relationship with WFC, whereas development i-deals showed a positive relationship with WFC. Another study by Hornung et al. (2009) focused on the relationships among three types of i-deals (i.e., development, flexibility, and workload reduction i-deals) and employees' self-evaluation of variations in WLB and found that only flexibility i-deals exhibited a positive influence on WLB. Other scholars, including Collins et al. (2013), Hornung et al. (2009), and Tang and Hornung (2015), confirmed that flexibility i-deals could help employees arrange their work conditions to meet their needs regarding schedule, annual leave, and workplace, thus reducing WFC and maintaining WLB. Nevertheless, flexibility i-deals may be difficult to be extended to all the hotel employees. As the hotel industry is a kind of service industry that operates twenty-four hours a day and seven days a week, their executives are expected to work in hotels every day (Hsieh et al., 2008). A Chinese hospitality research found that hotel employees pursued career development opportunities and would like to work overtime because of the "hard working" culture in the Chinese hotel industry (Wong & Ko, 2009). Another study also verified that Eastern employees would prefer various employee welfare or benefits to improve their quality of life rather than negotiate their schedule because they regard working long hours in the workplace as a kind of obligation or commitment (Chanra, 2012). Development i-deals that involve crafting job resources and challenge job demands can increase hotel employees' job autonomy, career opportunities, and incentives, which may be helpful for upkeeping Chinese hotel employees' work and career and improving their life quality. Therefore, development i-deals may compensate Chinese hotel employees for the loss of flexibility i-deals and reduce their perceptions of work-life conflicts. Hornung et al. (2014) differentiated development i-deals into task and career i-deals. Rosen et al. (2008, 2013) suggested that development i-deals could be differentiated into task and work responsibilities and financial incentives i-deals, whereas flexibility i-deals could be divided into schedule flexibility and location flexibility i-deals. They also added financial incentives i-deals. Therefore, this study proposes the following

hypothesis.

H2a: Task i-deals have a positive effect on WLB.

H2b: Career i-deals have a positive effect on WLB.

H2c: Flexibility i-deals have a positive effect on WLB.

H2d: Financial incentives i-deals have a positive effect on WLB.

3.2.3 Idiosyncratic Deals and Occupational Well-Being

OWB is the overall quality of their experience and efficacy, which consisted of affective well-being, cognitive well-being, professional well-being, and social well-being (Huang, 2014). According to the JD-R theory, the negotiation of task and work responsibilities i-deals, schedule flexibility i-deals, location flexibility i-deals, and financial incentives i-deals can be viewed as a behavior crafting job demands and resources and thus may stimulate OWB. Although the relationship between i-deals and OWB has not yet been explored, several studies have investigated the influence of i-deals on other relevant work attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work engagement. Job satisfaction, which reflects an individual's positive perceptions of his or her job based on the self-evaluation of various job characteristics, is regarded as a part of subjective well-being (Xanthopoulou et al., 2012) and integrated well-being (Fisher, 2010). Evidence shows that both task and work responsibilities i-deals and schedule flexibility i-deals are beneficial to employees' job satisfaction (Rosen, 2008; Vidyarthi et al., 2012). However, in a recent Chinese empirical study, only task and work responsibilities i-deals and financial incentives i-deals helped to improve job satisfaction (Sun & Kong, 2016). Organizational commitment, which reflects an individual's psychological attachment to the organization, is also regarded as a part of integrated well-being (Fisher, 2010). Several studies have indicated that i-deals can enhance employees' affective and normative commitment (Hornung et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2013; Rosen et al., 2008). Another study showed that task and work responsibilities i-deals have positive effects on affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative

commitment, whereas financial incentives i-deals only significantly promoted continuance commitment (Rosen et al., 2013). Work engagement, which reflects an individual's positive work-related state (e.g., vigor, dedication, and absorption), is also regarded as a part of subjective well-being (Xanthopoulou et al., 2012) and integrated well-being (Fisher, 2010). Research has shown the positive predictive effects of task i-deals on work engagement (Hornung et al., 2010). Thus, we propose the following hypotheses.

H3a: Task i-deals have a positive effect on OWB.

H3b: Career i-deals have a positive effect on OWB.

H3c: Flexibility i-deals have a positive effect on OWB.

H3d: Financial incentives have a positive effect on OWB.

3.2.4 Mediating Effect of Organization-Based Self-Esteem

OBSE reflects an individual's belief in his or her value and abilities as a member of an organization (Pierce et al., 1989). Studies have shown that high OBSE is an important personal resource at work that is likely to improve employees' integrated well-being (Fan et al., 2014; Mauno et al., 2006; Pierce et al., 2016). A hotel study also verified that OBSE shows positive relationships with job dedication, career satisfaction, and subjective well-being (i.e., life satisfaction) (Lee et al., 2016). As stated above, if an individual negotiates and successfully obtains an i-deal from an employer who recognizes his or her competences and value, they are more likely to have higher OBSE (Ho & Kong, 2015; Liu et al., 2013). At the same time, OBSE, as a personal resource at work, has a positive relationship with OWB (Fan et al., 2014; Mauno et al., 2006; Pierce et al., 2016).

In addition, the JD-R model suggests that the negotiation of i-deals is a behavior of crafting challenge job demands and job resources. Job crafting is an effective strategy to satisfy employees' various work-related needs, abilities, and preferences (Berg et al., 2008; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) and to improve their OWB (Bakker, 2011; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Tims et al., 2013). We therefore predict that knowledge workers may tend to

craft challenge job demands (i.e., task, career, and financial incentives i-deals) and job resources (i.e., task, career, financial incentives, and flexibility i-deals) to improve their OWB via OBSE (Hornung et al., 2013; Rosen et al., 2013). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H4: OBSE has a positive effect on OWB.

H5a: OBSE mediates the relationship between task i-deals and OWB.

H5b: OBSE mediates the relationship between career i-deals and OWB.

H5c: OBSE mediates the relationship between flexibility i-deals and OWB.

H5d: OBSE mediates the relationship between financial incentives i-deals and OWB.

3.2.5 Mediating Effect of Work-Life Balance

Several studies have shown that organizational work-family programs help to reduce employees' emotional exhaustion, anxiety, and depression by balancing their work and non-work roles (Haar, 2013; Haar, 2014; Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Research on i-deals suggest that i-deals are also organizational work-family programs that contribute to employees' WLB (Hornung et al., 2008, 2009). In addition, individuals who perceive their employers' support of their own role balance in the work and life domains are more likely to show greater job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Haar, 2013; Haar, 2014). Those findings suggest that WLB may also promote OWB. This statement has been verified by several empirical studies. For instance, Marks and MacDermid (1996) found that role balance had a positive effect on well-being, and other studies have confirmed the positive influence of WLB on well-being (Haar et al., 2014; Lunau et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2016). In addition, the negative effects of WFC on well-being have also been observed (Allen et al., 2000; Fiksenbaum, 2014; Leineweber et al., 2013; Montgomery et al., 2003).

It has repeatedly been reported that high hindrance job demands contribute to workload, stress, and burnout that can spill over into individuals' family life and lead to WFC. Specifically, after a whole day's heavy work, employees may feel tired and exhausted due to high emotional

demands in the workplace and may have to keep thinking about working at home (Bakker & Demerouti, 2013). As WFC has a negative effect on the balance of employees' multiple roles in their work, family, and other major responsibilities (Haar, 2013) and an indirect negative effect on well-being (Allen et al., 2000; Bakker & Demerouti, 2013; Fiksenbaum, 2014; Haar et al., 2014; Leineweber et al., 2013; Lunau et al., 2014; Marks & MacDermid, 1996; Montgomery et al., 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Zheng et al., 2016), employees may tend to craft their own personalized employment arrangements regarding hindrance job demands (i.e., flexibility i-deals) achieve a harmonious relationship between work and life, and thereby contribute to their OWB (Hornung et al., 2013; Rosen et al., 2013). Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses.

H6: WLB has a positive effect on OWB.

H7a: WLB mediates the relationship between task i-deals and OWB.

H7b: WLB mediates the relationship between career i-deals and OWB.

H7c: WLB mediates the relationship between flexibility i-deals and OWB.

H7d: WLB mediates the relationship between financial incentives i-deals and OWB.

CHAPTER FOUR

This chapter introduces the research methods and elaborates on the research design and approach, target population and sample determination, questionnaires, and analysis.

4 Methodology

4.1 Research Design and Approach

This study was divided into two sections. The objective of Study 1 was to understand which types of i-deals are practiced among hotel knowledge workers. It developed and validated a scale to measure i-deals in the Chinese hotel industry context. The objective of Study 2 was to investigate the influence of i-deals on OWB and to test the mediating effects of OBSE and WLB on the relationship between i-deals and OWB. As shown in Figure 4-1, both studies focused on investigation of employees' perceptions. This study therefore followed the post-positivism paradigm, which argues that most knowledge is conjectural and consists of non-falsified hypotheses that can be regarded as probable facts and laws and suggests that both qualitative and quantitative methods should be applied to study people's experiences and behavior (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Therefore, a mixed research method was appropriate to answer the research questions and achieve the objectives.

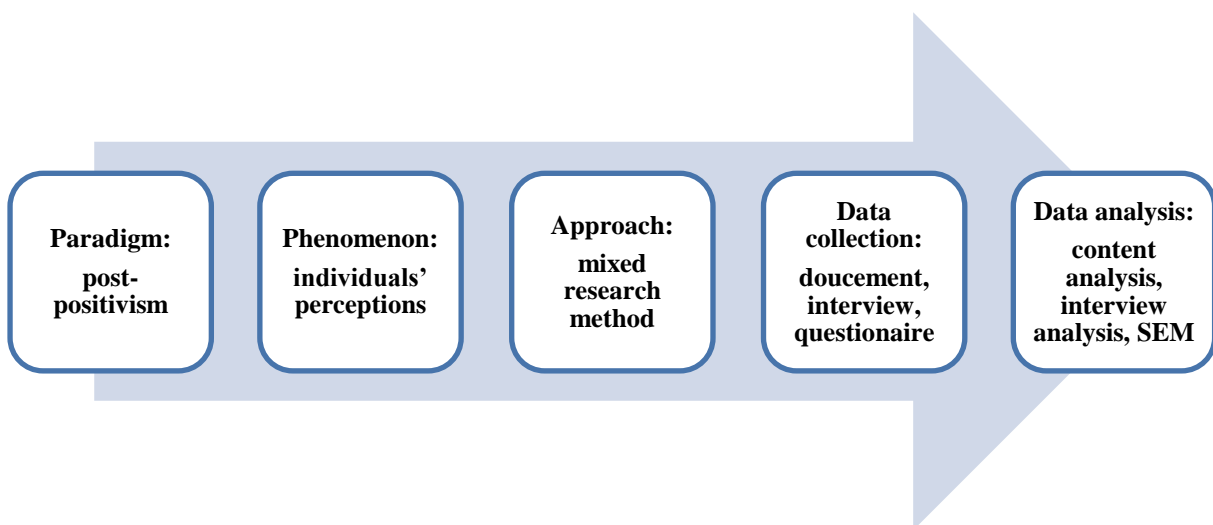


Figure 4-1 Choice of Research Methods

Study 1 followed a four-step procedure to develop a scale for assessing hospitality i-deals: 1)

development of initial measurement items, 2) purification of measures, 3) data collection, and 4) reliability and validity test (Churchill, 1979; Netemeyer et al., 2003). A pragmatic qualitative study was conducted to develop the initial measurement items and apply purification measures, because such an approach attempts to discover, understand, and interpret a phenomenon, a process, or individuals' perspectives and worldviews (Merriam, 1998; Neergaard et al., 2009). A quantitative study was adopted for collecting data and evaluating the reliability and validity of the proposed measurement scale because, as a survey instrument grounded in the participants' views, any developed scale must still be validated with a large sample representative of a population (Creswell et al., 2017). In-depth interviews were used to understand and interpret Chinese hotel knowledge workers' perceptions of i-deals and to propose a scale to measure i-deals in the Chinese hotel industry context. A questionnaire was developed to collect data and validate the proposed scale. The research design and procedures of Study 1 are shown in Figure 4. In Study 2, quantitative methods were used to examine the conceptual model. A questionnaire was developed to collect data, to assess the reliability and validity of each construct, to quantify the proposed relationships among the constructs, and to test the proposed conceptual model and hypothesis via SEM. The research design and procedures are shown in Figure 4-2.

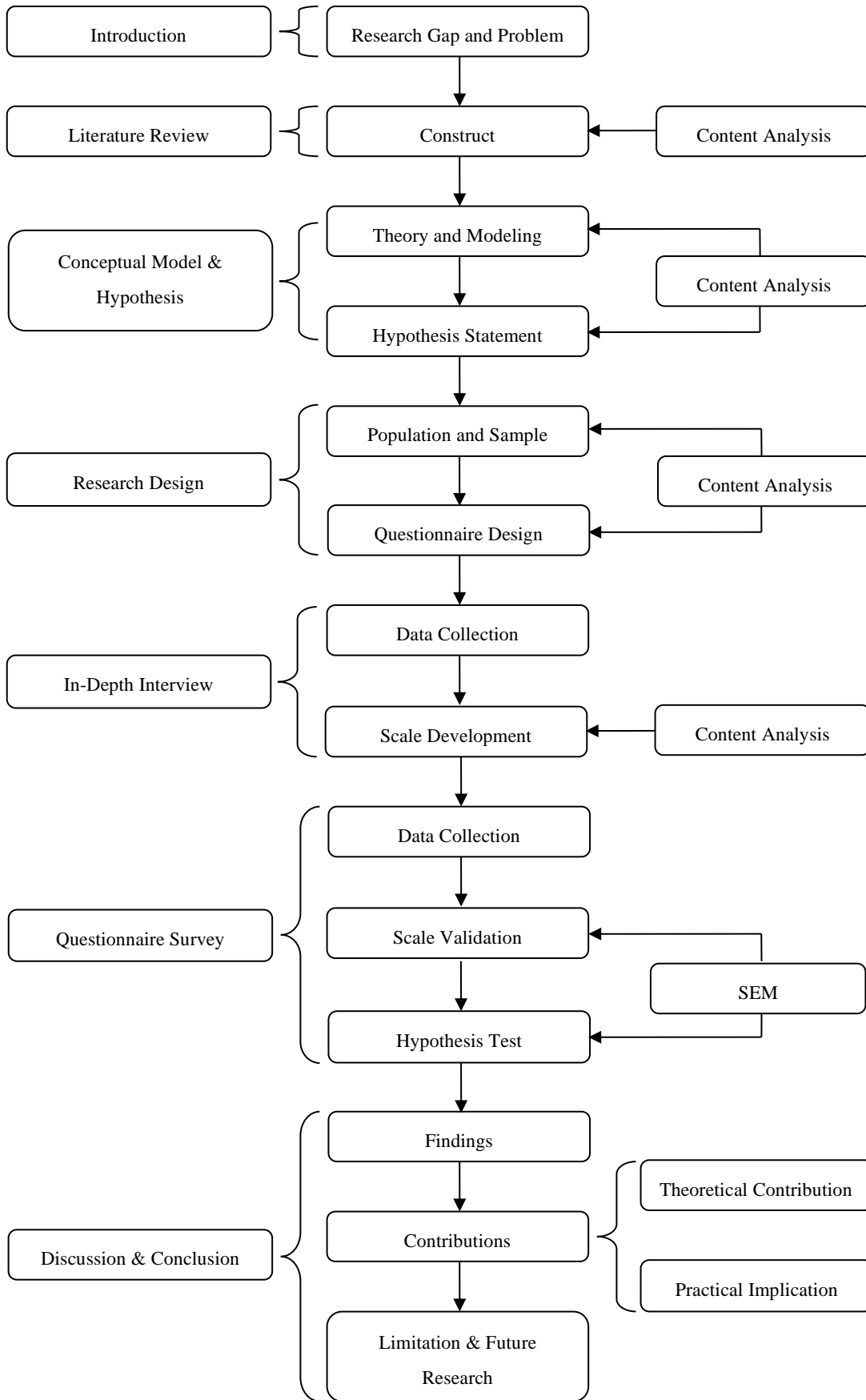


Figure 4-2 Research Design and Procedure

4.2 Target Population and Sample Determination

The target population of this study was knowledge workers in the Chinese hotel industry. As stated in Chapter One, senior and middle hotel managers were seen as the most typical hotel knowledge workers. In Study 1, convenience sampling was used for the in-depth interviews to capture participants who fit the criteria of senior and middle hotel managers working in four- and five-star hotels in China. According to this criterion, we spent two months on capturing and interviewing twenty participants to investigate the practice of i-deals in the hotel industry from August to October 2018.

The sample determination rules of the questionnaire in Studies 1 and 2 were as follows. 1) The respondents were middle or senior managers. According to Rousseau (2006), current employees usually obtain i-deals as a reward for their special contributions to the organization. In the hotel industry, executives in key positions are more likely to serve as knowledge workers and to make special contributions, so they have more possibilities to negotiate and obtain i-deals. 2) The respondents had worked for more than 1 year at their current hotel, because such employees may have a better understanding of the HR practices of their employers. 3) The respondents worked in four- and five-star hotels in China. As a scarcity of organizational resource (Rousseau et al., 2006), i-deals are more likely to be used by hotels with sufficient organizational resources to introduce advanced mode of HR management. 4) Based on the suggestions of Hair et al. (1998) and Westland (2010), the minimum sample size was computed by multiplying the number of measurement items by 10; thus, because there are 64 measurement items, the minimum sample size was 640. The pilot test used convenience sampling and had a sample size of 64, which is 10% of the total sample size (Hertzog, 2008). Hence, the pilot test collected 81 valid samples in mainland China. Due to the difficulty of accessing a large sample of middle and senior managers from high-star hotels, we hired a data collection company to collect the main survey data. In the main survey, 712 structured questionnaires were distributed to middle and senior managers from four- and five-star hotels in mainland China in February 2019. After a preliminary respondent analysis, we eliminated

37 outliers, which left 675 valid samples.

4.3 Questionnaires

All of the in-depth interviews were conducted in Chinese with the use of a semi-structured questionnaire. The general managers and HR directors were asked to describe the personalized employment arrangements practiced in their hotels and the extent to which the i-deals generalized from the literature were used in their hotels. They were then asked to answer two additional questions: “What other effective personalized employment arrangements are practiced among senior and middle managers in your hotel?” and “According to your own experience, what other effective personalized employment arrangements can you think of?” Other executives were also asked two questions: “Have you ever successfully asked for any work arrangement that meet personal needs by negotiating with their employers or supervisors?” and “What kinds of personalized work arrangements did you obtain?”.

The survey was conducted in Chinese with a structured questionnaire. The design of the questionnaire followed the following steps. First, the most appropriate measurement scales of i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB were used. Second, back translation was used to ensure the accuracy of the translation of the questionnaire (Brislin, 1976). For the respondents’ convenience, the questionnaire was distributed in Chinese. Third, in-depth interviews were conducted with scholars and professionals in the hotel industry to check the questionnaire and to discuss the applicability of various types of i-deals in the hotel industry. Fourth, a pilot test was conducted to check the clarity, readability, wording, and meaning, given the variations in meaning and understanding, and thus formed the main survey questionnaire. The items of all of the constructs were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = “strongly disagree”; 7 = “strongly agree”).

4.3.1 Independent Variable

I-Deals. I-deals were measured with a hospitality i-deals scale developed in this study. This scale consists of three dimensions: career and incentives (e.g., personal career development opportunities), task (e.g., job tasks that fit personal strengths and talents), and flexibility (e.g., a work schedule suited to the employee). The results of Study 1 showed that this scale had satisfactory reliability and validity.

4.3.2 Mediator

OBSE. OBSE was measured with a common 10-item scale (Pierce et al., 1989) that has been widely accepted and adopted in both Western and Chinese empirical studies and has shown high reliability and validity (Ho & Kong, 2015; Liu, 2013; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). A sample item is “I am a valuable part of this place.”

WLB. WLB was measured with a three-item scale developed by Haar (2013) that has shown relatively adequate reliability, validity, sensitivity, and feasibility when used in samples from seven different countries, including China (Haar et al., 2014). A sample item is “I manage to balance the demands of my work and personal/family life well.”

4.3.3 Dependent Variable

OWB. OWB was measured with a four-dimensional model developed by Huang (2014). Based on previous studies and characteristics of Chinese employees, this scale integrates both subjective well-being and psychological well-being and showed acceptable reliability and validity in two recent Chinese studies (Huang & Peng, 2015; Zhang & Ling, 2016). This scale is more comprehensive and localized for China than other scales and comprises affective well-being (e.g., “My job makes me feel satisfied”), cognitive well-being (e.g., “I find it easy to concentrate on thinking”), professional well-being (e.g., “I can cope with any situation at work”), and social well-being (e.g., “I have close contact with my colleagues in this hotel”).

4.4 Analysis

Content analysis was first used to develop the initial measurement items, purify the measures, and propose the conceptual model. The proposed measurement scale and conceptual model were then examined via SEM, which is also called latent variable modeling. As an important tool of multivariate statistics, SEM is used to analyze the relationship between variables based on the covariance matrix of variables. SEM integrates factor analysis and path analysis, which allows the relationships among observed variables, latent variables, and distributable/error variables to be tested and the direct, indirect and total effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables to be calculated (Kaplan, 2008; Ullman & Bentler, 2003). Compared with the traditional exploratory factor analysis (EFA), SEM provides confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine whether a specific factor structure matches the data. Compared with the traditional multiple regression analysis, SEM can deal with multiple dependent variables at the same time and can compare and evaluate various theoretical models. Via multigroup analysis of structural equations, SEM enables researchers to determine whether the relationships among the variables vary within different groups and whether the mean values of each factor show significant differences (Byrne, 2016). SEM is thus a substitute for factor analysis, path analysis, multiple regression, covariance analysis, and other methods that can analyze the relationship between single indicators and the overall indicators. As this study involves establishing, estimating, and testing the causal model, SEM is an ideal statistical method.

Before data analysis was conducted, missing values, outliers, and multicollinearity were checked. The replies with negative wording was reversed and re-coded before proceeding to data analysis (e.g., the original 1 was replaced by 7). The descriptive statistics, EFA, and reliability analysis were performed using SPSS to first identify various dimensions of targeted constructs. As the proposed conceptual model is reflective consisted of four constructs with metric data, analysis of moment structures (AMOS) is suitable for this research. CFA and path analysis were performed using AMOS to test the model fit of the measurement model, the

structural model, and the hypothesis. Independent-samples *t*-testing and one-way analysis of variance were conducted to report segregation into personal profiles like age group, tenure, gender, and position.

The collected data were analyzed with the SPSS and AMOS software packages. We used SPSS to analyze the descriptive statistics, correlations, EFA, and reliability. We used AMOS to perform CFA and goodness-of-fit tests on the measurement model, structural model, and hypotheses. The valid samples screened were randomly divided into two subsamples. Subsample A was used for EFA, and Subsample B was used for CFA of the measurement models (De Vellis & Robert, 1991). The full sample was used to examine the structural model and the hypothesis. To test the proposed indirect effects, we followed the method of Selig and Preacher (2008) by carrying out a Monte Carlo simulation (i.e., a form of parameter bootstrapping) with 2000 replications, which provided an estimation of the confidence interval for each effect. We also used SPSS to conduct an independent-samples *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance to investigate whether i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB could be attributed to age group, tenure, gender, or position.

CHAPTER FIVE

In this chapter, the data analysis results of this study are divided into two studies. Study 1 was used to test the scale development and validation of hospitality i-deals, and Study 2 examined the mediating mechanism between i-deals and OWB in the Chinese hotel industry.

5 Results

5.1 Study 1 - Scale Development and Validation of Idiosyncratic Deals in the Chinese Hotel Industry

5.1.1 Development of Initial Measurement Items

The initial measurement items were developed in two stages. In the first stage, the most representative and relevant i-deals were identified via a review of the literature. Because the hospitality research on i-deals is quite limited, we expanded our review to the more extensive literature on i-deals in other industry contexts and identified five types of i-deals on the basis of the comprehensive literature review presented in Chapter Two: task i-deals, career i-deals, schedule flexibility i-deals, location flexibility i-deals, and financial incentives i-deals (Table 5-1). This study captured 19 items from two exploratory studies on i-deals (Hornung et al., 2014; Rosen et al., 2013) as references of initial measurement items because the combination of the two scales comprehensively covered four domains of employees' work arrangements: what (task and career i-deals), when (schedule flexibility i-deals), where (location flexibility i-deals), and why (financial incentives i-deals).

Table 5-1 List of I-Deals Items Generalized from the Literature

Dimension	Item	Source
Task i-deals	1. Job tasks that fit personal strengths and talents	Hornung et al. (2014)
	2. Job tasks that fit personal interests	
	3. Personally motivating job tasks	

	4. Flexibility in how I complete my job	Rosen et al. (2013)
Career i-deals	5. Career options that suit my personal goals	Hornung et al. (2014)
	6. Personal career development opportunities	
	7. Ways to secure my professional advancement	
	8. A desirable position that makes use of my unique abilities after initial appointment	Rosen et al. (2013)
Schedule flexibility i-deals	9. A work schedule suited to me personally.	Hornung et al. (2014)
	10. Extra flexibility in starting and ending my work day	
	11. A work schedule customized to my personal needs	
	12. Options to take time off for handling non-work-related issues outside of formal leave and sick time.	
Location flexibility i-deals	13. A unique arrangement to complete a portion of my work outside of the office because of my individual needs.	
	14. Options to do work from somewhere other than the main office, because of my particular circumstance.	
Financial incentives i-deals	15. A compensation arrangement that is tailored to fit me.	Rosen et al. (2013)
	16. A compensation arrangement that meets my individual needs.	
	17. Due to my unique skills and contributions, my supervisor has been willing to negotiate my compensation.	
	18. My supervisor has raised my pay beyond the formal standards because of the exceptional contributions that I make to the organization.	
	19. A compensation plan that rewards my unique contributions after initial appointment.	

In the second stage, in-depth interviews were used to investigate hotel middle and senior managers' perceptions of i-deals practiced in their hotels. The interview participants included five general managers (GMs), five department directors, and ten department managers from

nine international and four domestic high-star hotels. Table 5-2 shows the demographic information of all of the respondents. On the basis of these respondents' advice, we classified GMs, deputy GMs, and department directors as senior managers and categorized department managers as middle managers.

Table 5-2 Respondents' Characteristics

Respondent	Gender	Hotel brand	Hotel ID	Hotel star	Ownership type	Tenure (year)	Position
Senior Managers							
1	Male	International	A	Five-star	Chain hotel	10	GM
2	Male	International	B	Five-star	Chain hotel	4	GM
3	Male	International	C	Five-star	Chain hotel	5	HR director
4	Female	International	D	Five-star	Chain hotel	2	Sales and Marketing director
5	Female	International	E	Five-star	Chain hotel	10	HR director
6	Female	Domestic	F	Five-star	Chain hotel	11	GM
7	Male	Domestic	G	Four-	Independent	20	GM

				star	hotel		
8	Male	Domestic	H	Five- star	Chain hotel	13	GM
9	Female	Domestic	F	Five- star	Chain hotel	12	HR director
10	Female	Domestic	F	Five- star	Chain hotel	10	Sales and marketing director
Middle							
Managers							
11	Female	International	E	Five- star	Chain hotel	10	HR manager
12	Male	International	I	Five- star	Chain hotel	5	Front office manager
13	Male	International	J	Five- star	Chain hotel	5	Food and Beverage manager
14	Male	International	K	Four- star	Chain hotel	5	Front office manager
15	Female	International	L	Five- star	Chain hotel	8	Sales & Marketing manager
16	Female	Domestic	F	Five- star	Chain hotel	3	HR manager

				star			
17	Female	Domestic	F	Five- star	Chain hotel	7	Financial manager
18	Male	Domestic	F	Five- star	Chain hotel	1.5	Engineering manager
19	Male	Domestic	M	Five- star	Independent hotel	5	HR manager
20	Male	Domestic	H	Five- star	Chain hotel	7	Housekeeping manager

Based on a review of our interview notes, we sorted out all practices related to the hospitality i-deals and classified them into four categories: task i-deals, career i-deals, flexibility i-deals, and incentives i-deals (Table 5-3).

Table 5-3 Respondents' Typical Opinions Regarding I-Deals

	Senior managers	Middle managers
Task i-deals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Extra authority or empowerment (Respondents 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 9) - Extra flexibility, independence, and job autonomy for the management (Respondents 1, 2, 3, 8, 9) - Independence in conducting business accounting and offering customer discounts (Respondents 4, 7) - Job tasks that fit personal strengths, talents, or interests (Respondents 5, 9) - Motivating tasks such as sales of moon cakes or festival dinners (Respondents 5, 9) - Amoeba management (Respondents 6, 9) - Breaking through routines to handle customer complaints (Respondent 7) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Extra flexibility, independence, and job autonomy for the management (Respondents 11, 12, 13, 14, 20) - Job tasks that fit personal strengths, talents, and interests (Respondents 11, 12, 13, 18, 20) - Motivating tasks (Respondents 11, 20) - More personalized job tasks (Respondents 17, 18) - Amoeba management (Respondents 17, 18)

Career i-deals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Training courses and programs (Respondents 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10) - Individualized promotion path and development platform (Respondents 1, 2, 3, 7, 8) - Individualized ways to secure professional advancement (Respondent 1) - Internal exchange: support another hotel in the same hotel group (Respondents 2, 3, 4) - External study and visits (Respondents 2, 3, 9, 10) - Time support for continuing education (Respondents 2, 4, 5, 8) - Financial support for continuing education (Respondents 2, 8) - Job rotation (Participants 2, 4) - Internal or external meetings and conferences (Respondent 2) - GM training project (Respondent 3) - Personal career development plans (Respondents 2, 3) - Career options (Respondents 4, 9) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Training courses and programs (Respondents 11, 12, 14, 19, 20) - Individualized ways to secure professional advancement (Respondents 11, 12, 20) - Personal career development opportunities (Respondents 11, 12, 20) - Time support for continuing education (Respondents 11, 12, 13, 20) - Financial support for continuing education (Respondent 12) - Internal exchange (Respondents 16, 19, 20) - External study and visits (Respondents 17, 19, 20) - Career options (Respondents 11, 20)
Flexibility i-deals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Flexible schedules (Respondents 1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 9) - Extra flexibility in starting and ending work days (Respondents 1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 9) - No need for senior managers to punch in (Respondents 1, 8) - Flexible arrangements for taking working days off (Respondents 1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9) - Do a portion of work outside the main office (Respondents 1, 7, 9, 10) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do a portion of work outside the main office (Respondent 15) - Flexible arrangements on taking working days off (Respondents 16, 17, 20) - Flexible schedules (Respondent 20) - Extra flexibility in starting and ending work days (Respondent 20)
Incentives i-deals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Bonuses (Respondents 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9) - Performance-related pay (Respondents 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 10) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A compensation arrangement that meets individual needs (Respondent 12) - Personalized compensation

- Flexible compensation adjustment based on individual contribution (Respondents 1, 2, 8, 9)	arrangements based on abilities, seniority, and experience (Respondents 12, 15)
- Gym access (Respondents 1, 5)	- Extra pay for rewarding special contributions (Respondent 15)
- Customized birthday present, cake, or party (Respondents 1, 5, 6, 8)	- Allowances (Respondents 16, 17, 19)
- Individualized travel packages (Respondents 1, 5, 6, 8)	- Performance-related pay (Respondent 17)
- Personalized compensation arrangements based on abilities, seniority, and experience (Respondents 2, 10)	- Organize family events or activities with hotel services (Respondent 19)
- Stock-based incentives (Respondents 2, 8)	- The right to replace holidays with hotel products (Respondent 19)
- Allowances (Respondents 2, 6, 9, 10)	- Gym access (Respondent 20)
- Organize family events or activities with hotel services (Respondents 6, 8, 9)	- Customized birthday present, cake, or party (Respondent 20)
	- Individualized travel packages (Respondent 20)

The key information listed in Table 5-3 is further interpreted as follows.

First, most senior and middle managers claimed that their personal levels of responsibility, job types, or experience gave them an advantage over their colleagues in negotiating for task i-deals such as extra flexibility, independence, and job autonomy (ten respondents), job tasks that fit their strengths, talents, or interests (seven respondents), extra authority or empowerment (six respondents), and motivating tasks (four respondents). Five respondents pointed out that some executives were more likely to possess advanced professional experience and responsibilities and are thus expected to manage their assigned tasks, staff, or customers in ways that match personal styles or philosophies. (Respondents 1, 2, 3, 8, and 9). For instance, they pursued more authority to independently make work plans, assign tasks, give discounts to customers, and solve difficult problems such as staff conflicts or customer complaints. Respondents 4 and 7 even emphasized that their sales and marketing directors had been authorized to conduct business accounting and offer customer discounts independently. One noteworthy case of job autonomy and employee empowerment was the amoeba management program practiced in Hotel F. Amoeba management was first introduced and put

into practice by Kyocera, a group company specializing in ceramics in Japan. This management pattern was developed to motivate those active individuals with leadership or potentials to manage their teams to achieve its own goals of making a profit by appointing them as amoeba leaders (Ishida, 1994). In Hotel F, each amoeba leader was empowered with more duties and encouraged with more incentives than other co-workers. According to the four respondents working in Hotel F, this program had improved the engagement of employees and the performance of this domestic hotel through quantitative authorization (Respondents 1, 2, 3, 8, and 9).

Second, most respondents confirmed the applicability of career i-deals in their hotels and mentioned that they are the most popular i-deals in the current Chinese hotel industry. The most typical career i-deals consisted of individualized arrangements for training courses or programs (twelve respondents), time support for continuing education (eight respondents), external study and visits (seven respondents), personal career development plans or opportunities (six respondents), internal exchanges (i.e., supporting another hotel in the same hotel group; six respondents), individualized promotion path and development platform (five respondents), individualized ways to secure professional advancement (four respondents), and more career options (four respondents).

A new and interesting observation was that some hotels provided various supportive measures to hotel executives who expected to develop their knowledge and skills via continue education (vocational or academic training) to satisfy their personalized needs for learning and professional development. Respondent 6, an experienced female GM in the hotel industry (11 years) claimed that “compared with the 1990s, the current average education level of hotel employees is relatively low. In previous years, more young Chinese graduates with good educational backgrounds were pursuing positions in the hotel industry for its higher wages and better working environment. However, the current reality is that the social status and wages of the hotel industry have gradually fallen below those of other industries. In addition, young graduates with good educational backgrounds find more promotion and development opportunities in other industries than in the hotel industry, so they tend to choose the more

competitive industries.” Career training and continuing education i-deals may provide another insight to deal with the increasing difficulty in attracting highly educated professionals by equipping existing employees with knowledge and expertise. This conclusion was supported by Respondent 4, an experienced female sales and marketing director in the hotel industry (15 years) who argued that “outside of internal vocational training, external training and continuing education are more and more important for hotel executives. The higher the position you reach, the more you will value your own knowledge and academic qualifications. But the current reality is that the average education level of hotel executives is lower than that of other industries’ executives. Thus, I think hotel employers should encourage executives to participate in external training and part-time continuing education by providing support such as scholarships or reimbursements of tuition fees.”

In addition to hotel executives’ strong thirst for knowledge and education, some respondents noted that their organizations would be in urgent need of highly educated executives in the near future. These respondents agreed that their hotels could greatly benefit by providing personalized career training and continuing education to executives. All ten senior managers we interviewed agreed that their hotels would be in need of more highly educated personnel to serve as deputy GMs and directors or managers of front office, food and beverage, finance, HR, accounting, and revenue management departments in the future. A recent official report also indicated that more than 50% of the travel and tourism companies that joined WTTC’s membership were confronted with a shortage of professional employees with specific skills, such as engineering, cooking, bartending, and accounting (WTTC, 2015). A tight market for talents is obviously challenging the hotel industry, Chinese hotel employers should therefore try to introduce and adopt some personalized measures to support the career training and continuing education of their existing administrative staff. Of the thirteen hotels that participated in our interviews, ten implemented personalized training courses and programs and nine offered support for personalized continuing education.

Third, schedule and location flexibility i-deals were more likely to be granted to senior managers (e.g., GMs, deputy GMs, and department directors) or sales and marketing managers.

In terms of schedule flexibility i-deals, six senior managers had obtained flexible arrangements, such as flexibility in work schedule and personal leave, whereas only three middle managers endorsed the applicability of taking working days off for themselves. In terms of location flexibility i-deals, most of the respondents claimed that the hotel manager may be one of the jobs without a standard work schedule that requires the most shift and overtime in the workplace in China, so those flexible and long-term arrangements for working remotely (e.g., telework, home office) were not applicable to the hotel industry. It is generally known that the hotel industry is an industry that operates twenty-four hours a day and seven days a week, therefore their executives are expected to work in hotels every day (Hsieh et al., 2008). Four respondents believed that senior managers did not have to complete every task in the hotel, because they sometimes needed to leave their hotels for external study, visits, or travel. However, they still had to be on call and remain in touch with their hotels by phone, email, or social media when not in the hotel. Some middle managers were authorized to work remotely under some exceptional circumstances; however, the respondents confirmed only one kind of location flexibility i-deal, which was highly related to a type of schedule flexibility. Fourth, incentives i-deals include personalized financial incentives and employee benefits. The most commonly mentioned personalized financial incentives consisted of performance-related pay (nine respondents), bonuses (eight respondents), allowances (seven respondents), flexible compensation adjustments based on individual contributions (four respondents), and personalized compensation arrangements based on abilities, seniority, or experience (four respondents). Many of the senior managers proposed the option of stock-based incentives, but this had only been implemented in two hotels involved in this study. In terms of personalized employee benefits, many respondents mentioned personalized non-monetary employee benefit packages, such as customized birthday present, cake, or party (five respondents), individualized travel packages (five respondents), organize family events or activities with hotel services (four participants), or gym facilities (three respondents). Although most hotels have been plagued by WLC due to heavy work pressure and frequent overtime (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Hsieh et al., 2004; Wong & Ko, 2009), there are some potential and

industry-specific opportunities for hotel employers to help employees balance their work and life roles. Specifically, they can make use of their own hotel's services (e.g., accommodation, restaurants, birthday cakes, swimming pools, and gyms) to provide non-monetary employee benefit packages. Some of the larger hotel groups even organize various family or group events in their own facilities or cooperate with other tourism businesses to provide their employees with free or low-cost travel. Relevant studies have verified some of the non-monetary welfare programs implemented in the hotel industry to meet individuals' expectations for stress relief and relaxation (Dickson & Huyton, 2008). Our study proposed the following two potential personalized employee benefit packages in the Chinese context: monetary employee benefits (e.g., bonuses and allowances) and non-monetary employee benefits (e.g., gym access, travel packages, customized birthday present, cake, or party).

The preliminary results concluded four categories of hospitality i-deals in China through in-depth interviews: (1) task i-deals (TI1-4); (2) career i-deals (CI1-9); (3) flexibility i-deals (FI1-5); and (4) incentive i-deals (II1-7). We used the interview notes to clarify and update the initial scale items to make them more applicable to the hotel industry (Table 5-4). The major revisions are as follows. The two items of i-deals concerning location flexibility were combined into Item FI5. The limited focus on location flexibility is conceivable because the hotel business is a service industry that requires its staff, including executives, to keep on standby in their main workplaces. We also further proposed seven new items of i-deals related to career training and continuing education (CI5-9). Related research has confirmed that opportunities for training and continuing education also have a long-term significance for hotel staffs' professional development (Kong et al., 2011). Another hospitality study suggested that personalized career training and continuing education provide alternative ways to build a professional management team in what has become a tight market for highly educated executives (Qiu Zhang & Wu, 2004). Personalized monetary benefits were also applied in most hotels' management practices; our in-depth interviews and the relevant literature both suggested that such i-deals practices could efficiently improve Chinese employees' WLB, commitment, and productivity (Chandra, 2012; Cooke, 2009). Another new observation was

that personalized non-monetary benefits, a type of i-deals rarely mentioned in previous literature, was helpful for hotel knowledge workers' stress relief and relaxation (Dickson & Huyton, 2008).

Table 5-4 Updated List of I-Deals Items

Updated scale item
TI1. Job tasks that fit personal strengths and talents
TI2. Job tasks that fit my personal interests
TI3. Personally motivating job tasks
TI4. Flexibility in how I complete my job
CI1. Career options that suit my personal goals
CI2. Personal career development opportunities
CI3. Ways to secure my professional advancement
CI4. A desirable position that makes use of my unique abilities after initial appointment
CI5. A time arrangement for career training that meets my individual needs*
CI6. An arrangement for career training that meets my individual needs*
CI7. Flexibility in how I arrange my continuing education*
CI8. Time support for personal continuing education*
CI9. Financial support for personal continuing education*
FI1. A work schedule suited to me personally
FI2. Extra flexibility in starting and ending my work day
FI3. A work schedule customized to my personal needs
FI4. Options to take time off to handle non-work-related issues outside of formal leave and sick time
FI5. Options to do a portion of my work from somewhere other than the main workplace
II1. A compensation arrangement that is tailored to fit me
II2. A compensation arrangement that meets my individual needs
II3. Due to my unique skills and contributions, my superior/employer has been willing to negotiate my compensation
II4. My superior/employer has raised my pay beyond the formal standards because of the exceptional contributions that I make to the organization
II5. A compensation plan that rewards my unique contributions after initial appointment
II6. Monetary employee benefits that meet my individual needs*
II7. Non-monetary employee benefits that meet my individual needs*

Note: * represents items developed in this study.

5.1.2 Purification of Measures

Before we began data collection, we invited an expert panel of industrial and academic professionals to evaluate the degree to which initial set of items represented and measured

hospitality i-deals (Haynes et al., 1995). First, we sent the measurement item list to seven senior hotel managers and invited them to assess the degree to which each of the 25 i-deals were adopted or applied in their hotels and to evaluate the representativeness of items. The criterion adopted to determine whether a particular item was retained was that four or more executives confirmed that it was a representative item for the targeted concept. With the help of these executives, the readability and clarity of the remaining items were further improved. An academic panel of twelve scholars who had relevant educational background or work experience in Chinese hotels were then invited to evaluate the extent to which each remaining item was relevant to hospitality i-deals with the use of a 7-point scale (1 = strongly unrepresentative; 7 = strongly representative) (Zaichkowsky, 1985). The standard to decide whether a particular item was retained was a mean score greater than 4. According to the evaluations and comments from the expert panel, all of the generated items were representative of hospitality i-deals.

5.1.3 Data Collection

We designed a structured questionnaire based on the generated items to measure i-deals and conducted a small-scale pilot test of 190 executives working in four-star (12.5%) and five-star (87.5%) hotels in mainland China. By conducting reliability analysis, we found the Cronbach's alpha (α) value of the i-deals scale was 0.95 (i.e., > 0.7). Therefore, this proposed scale had good internal consistency, and was suitable for a large-scale questionnaire survey. The online questionnaires for the main survey were then distributed to 712 hotel executives by a data collection company, and 675 valid questionnaires were returned. The respondents consisted of middle and senior managers working in Chinese four-star (45.2%) and five-star (54.8%) hotels in most first- and second-tier cities in mainland China. Detailed demographic information was as follows. In terms of gender, 54.4% of respondents were male and 45.6% were female. Most respondents were between 25 and 44 years of age (88.9%) and were married (89.8%) with children (85.3%). More than half of the respondents were department managers/associate managers (51.1%), and the remainder were department directors/associate

directors (25.5%) and GMs/deputy GMs (23.4%). The respondents' departments included housekeeping (24.7%), human resources (21.9%), administration (17.5%), sales and marketing (16.9%), food and beverage (9.6%), front office (3.6%), finance (3.0%), and engineering (2.8%) (Table 5-5). The hotels in which the respondents worked were mainly international (54.7%) and chain (81.5%) hotels, and 54.4% of these hotels were managed by a third-party hotel management company.

Table 5-5 Profile of Respondents (N = 675)

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	367	54.4%
Female	308	45.6%
Age (years)		
18-24	8	1.2%
25-34	269	39.9%
35-44	331	49.0%
45-54	67	9.9%
Marital status		
Married	606	89.8%
Single	69	10.2%
Children		
Yes	576	85.3%
No	99	14.7%
Education		
Senior/middle school and below	1	0.9%
Junior college	1	7.6%
Undergraduate	468	69.3%
Postgraduate	144	21.3%
PhD	6	0.9%

Tenure

1-3 years	40	5.9%
4-6 years	303	44.9%
7-9 years	206	30.5%
10 years or more	126	18.7%

Position

Department manager/associate manager	345	51.1%
Department director/associate director	172	25.5%
General manager/deputy general manager	158	23.4%

Department

Food and beverage	65	9.6%
Front office	24	3.6%
Housekeeping	167	24.7%
Sales/Marketing	114	16.9%
Engineering	19	2.8%
Human resources	148	21.9%
Administration office	118	17.5%
Finance	20	3.0%

Yearly salary

Less than ¥ 100000	12	1.8%
¥ 100000-199999	146	21.6%
¥ 200000-299999	193	28.6%
¥ 300000-399999	148	21.9%
¥ 400000-499999	105	15.6%
¥ 500000-599999	42	6.2%
¥ 600000 or more	29	4.30%

Hotel star

Four-star	305	45.2%
Five-star	370	54.8%
Hotel brand		
International brand	369	54.7%
Domestic brand	306	45.3%
Ownership type		
Independent	125	18.5%
Chain	550	81.5%
Hotel management contract		
Yes	308	45.6%
No	367	54.4%

5.1.4 Reliability and Validity Tests

We randomly divided the valid samples in the main survey into two subsamples. Subsample A (N = 338) was used for EFA and reliability analysis. In the EFA step, principle axis factoring and oblique rotation were used to refine the measurement scale. After a series of EFAs, we yielded and determined three dimensions related to hospitality i-deals (see Table 5-6). A slight distinction was seen between the results of the EFAs and the in-depth interviews. Based on these differences, we merged career i-deals and incentives i-deals into one composite dimension, which is understandable because career development and incentives are the main benefits that motivated hotel employees (Kong et al., 2011; Walsh & Taylor, 2007). The three determined dimensions were named and interpreted as follows.

- (1) Career and incentives i-deals: personalized career development opportunities and incentives that meet the employee's needs.
- (2) Task i-deals: personalized arrangements regarding the employee's job tasks that meet the employee's needs.
- (3) Flexibility i-deals: customized schedule and workplace arrangements that meet the employee's needs.

The results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO = 0.96) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 = 5005.41$, $d = 300$, $p < 0.001$) showed that the factor analysis was satisfactory. The three extracted factors explained 55.35% of the overall variance, and the Cronbach's alpha (α) values of the total construct and the three factors were 0.96, 0.94, 0.84, and 0.85 (i.e., > 0.7), respectively (Table 5-6). Therefore, the internal consistency of the developed measurement scale was satisfactory, indicating the construct was reliable and stable (Nunnally, 1978).

Table 5-6 Exploratory Factor Analysis (N = 338)

	Factor Loading	Initial Eigenvalues	Variance explained	Mean	α
Factor 1: Career and Incentives I-Deals		12.06	46.37%	5.54	0.94
CI1	0.63			5.56	
CI2	0.65			5.71	
CI3	0.68			5.64	
CI4	0.75			5.54	
CI5*	0.84			5.61	
CI6*	0.79			5.51	
CI7*	0.53			5.51	
CI8*	0.63			5.57	
CI9*	0.66			5.43	
II1	0.59			5.45	
II2	0.62			5.57	
II3	0.52			5.65	
II4	0.56			5.62	
II5	0.41			5.43	
II6*	0.53			5.44	
II7*	0.53			5.39	
Factor 2: Task I-Deals		1.38	3.70%	5.69	0.84

TI1	0.61			5.78
TI2	0.55			5.55
TI3	0.52			5.69
TI4	0.67			5.73
Factor 3: Flexibility I-Deals		1.31	3.38%	5.38 0.85
FI1	0.61			5.45
FI2	0.56			5.40
FI3	0.65			5.42
FI4	0.60			5.29
FI5	0.57			5.33

Note: * represents items developed in this research. CI = career i-deals, II = incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals.

To validate the three-dimensional construct resulted from EFA and reliability analysis, Subsample B (N = 337) was used to perform CFA. The model fit indices of the measurement model were as follows: $\chi^2 = 489.48$, $df = 268$, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.96, GFI = 0.90, SRMR = 0.03, RMSEA = 0.05, indicating an acceptable result. The critical ratio values ranged from 12.15 to 17.01 (i.e., > 1.96). The standardized loading estimates ranged from 0.67 to 0.84 (i.e., > 0.5), indicating statistical significance (Byrne, 2016).

Table 5-7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N = 337)

	Estimate	C.R	Standardized Estimate	SMC
Factor 1: Career and Incentives I-Deals				
CII -> CI1	1.05	13.98***	0.76	0.58
CII -> CI2	1.07	13.92***	0.76	0.58
CII -> CI3	1.19	14.95***	0.82	0.67
CII -> CI4	1.02	14.39***	0.78	0.62
CII -> CI5	1.03	13.67***	0.75	0.56
CII -> CI6	1.08	14.60***	0.80	0.64
CII -> CI7	1.13	13.94***	0.77	0.59

CII -> CI8	1.10	13.97***	0.77	0.59
CII -> CI9	1.05	13.34***	0.73	0.54
CII -> II1	1.11	14.58***	0.79	0.63
CII -> II2	1.05	13.97***	0.76	0.58
CII -> II3	0.82	12.15***	0.67	0.45
CII -> II4	0.96	13.07***	0.72	0.52
CII -> II5	0.97	12.51***	0.69	0.47
CII -> II6	0.94	13.73***	0.75	0.56
CII -> II7	1.00		0.72	0.52
Factor 2: Task I-Deals				
TI -> TI1	1.02	17.01***	0.84	0.70
TI -> TI2	0.97	14.88***	0.77	0.59
TI -> TI3	0.99	16.73***	0.83	0.69
TI -> TI4	1.00		0.80	0.64
Factor 3: Flexibility I-Deals				
FI -> FI1	0.98	12.15***	0.74	0.54
FI -> FI2	1.20	13.67***	0.84	0.70
FI -> FI3	1.21	13.27***	0.81	0.66
FI -> FI4	1.10	13.18***	0.79	0.62
FI -> FI5	1.00		0.69	0.47

Notes: *** Significant at the 0.001 level. CII = career and incentives i-deals, CI = career i-deals, II = incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals.

After comparing the fit of competing models, we found that the fit of the theorized three-factor model (Model 0) was superior to that of the two-factor model (Model 1: $\Delta\chi^2 = 293.96$, $p < 0.01$; Model 2: $\Delta\chi^2 = 390.02$, $p < 0.01$; Model 3: $\Delta\chi^2 = 364.87$, $p < 0.01$) and the single-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 589.95$, $p < 0.01$) (Table 5-8). Therefore, the theorized six-factor model was more acceptable.

Table 5-8 Competing Models (N = 337)

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI	TLI	GFI	SRMR	RMSEA
Model 0: CII, TI, FI	489.48	268		0.96	0.96	0.90	0.03	0.05
Model 1: CII + TI, FI	783.44	274	293.96**	0.91	0.91	0.83	0.04	0.07
Model 2: CII + FI, TI	879.50	274	390.02**	0.90	0.89	0.80	0.05	0.08
Model 3: CII, TI + FI	854.35	274	364.87**	0.90	0.89	0.80	0.05	0.08
Model 4: CII + FII + FI	1079.43	275	589.95**	0.86	0.85	0.77	0.06	0.06

Notes: ** Significant at the 0.01 level. CII = career and incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals.

The average variance extracted (AVE) was used to examine the convergent and discriminant validity. As shown in Table 5-9, each AVE value was greater than 0.50 and the squared correlation coefficients for the corresponding inter-constructs and thereby reached the acceptable standards of convergent and discriminant validity, respectively (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The composite reliabilities of the three dimensions were 0.95, 0.88, and 0.88, respectively (i.e., > 0.70), which also reached the acceptable standards (Hair et al., 1998).

Table 5-9 Correlations (Squared Correlation), Reliability, AVE, and Mean (N = 337)

	CII	TI	FI
CII	1.00		
TI	0.75** (0.56)	1.00	
FI	0.70** (0.49)	0.62** (0.38)	1.00
Reliability	0.95	0.88	0.88
AVE	0.57	0.65	0.60
Mean	5.57	5.61	5.34
SD	0.90	0.98	1.01

Notes: ** Significant at the 0.01 level. CII = career and incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals.

5.2 Study 2 - Mediating Mechanism Between Idiosyncratic Deals and Occupational Well-Being in the Chinese Hotel Industry

According to the findings of Study 1, the proposed measurement scale of hospitality i-deals consisted of three dimensions: career and incentives, task, and flexibility. The initial conceptual model and hypothesis were revised as follows (Figure 5-1).

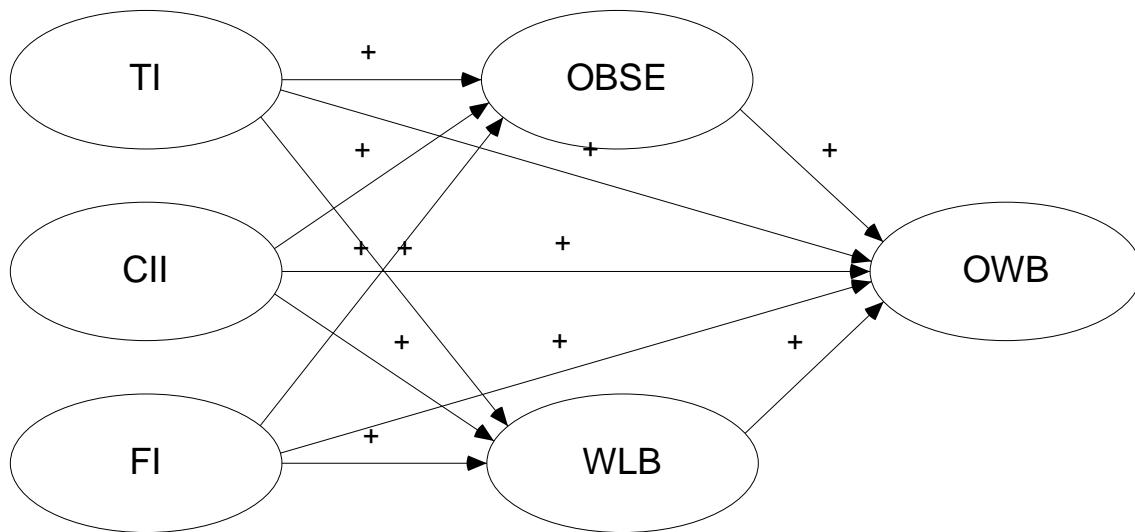


Figure 5-1 Updated Conceptual Model

Notes: CII = careers and incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals, OBSE = organization-based self-esteem, WLB = work-life balance, OWB = occupational well-being.

H1a: Task i-deals have a positive effect on OBSE.

H1b: Career and incentives i-deals have a positive effect on OBSE.

H1c: Flexibility i-deals have a positive effect on OBSE.

H2a: Task i-deals have a positive effect on WLB.

H2b: Career and incentives i-deals have a positive effect on WLB.

H2c: Flexibility i-deals have a positive effect on WLB.

H3a: Task i-deals have a positive effect on OWB.

H3b: Career and incentives i-deals have a positive effect on OWB.

H3c: Flexibility i-deals have a positive effect on OWB.

H4: OBSE has a positive effect on OWB.

H5a: OBSE mediates the relationship between task i-deals and OWB.

H5b: OBSE mediates the relationship between career and incentives i-deals and OWB.

H5c: OBSE mediates the relationship between flexibility i-deals and OWB.

H6: WLB has a positive effect on OWB.

H7a: WLB mediates the relationship between task i-deals and OWB.

H7b: WLB mediates the relationship between career and incentives i-deals and OWB.

H7c: WLB mediates the relationship between flexibility i-deals and OWB.

5.2.1 Reliability and Validity Tests

A Harman's single factor test, a reliability analysis and a series of CFAs were conducted before hypotheses testing. By conducting the Harman's single factor test with the unrotated factor solution, we extracted seven factors and found that the maximum factor explained 27.80% of the overall variance (< 40%). Therefore, the common method variance was not a serious issue in this research (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The Cronbach's α values of the task i-deals, career and incentives i-deals, flexibility i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB scales were 0.86, 0.95, 0.87, 0.91, 0.79, and 0.95, respectively. These results confirmed the reliability of these constructs (Nunnally, 1978). Table 5-10 only shows the six best-fitting models. The results of CFA indicate the theorized six-factor model showed a sufficient fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 4319.13$, $df = 2120$, CFI = 0.92, TLI = 0.92, GFI = 0.90, SRMR = 0.03, RMSEA = 0.04) and a better fit than the five-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 408.05$, $p < 0.01$), the four-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 849.27$, $p < 0.01$), the three-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 1087.19$, $p < 0.01$), the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2668.41$, $p < 0.01$), and the single-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2793.20$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the theorized six-factor model was superior in fit to all of the alternative models, and we proceeded to examine these variables as distinct constructs. Table 5-11 shows that the critical ratio values ranged from 13.86 to 21.89 (i.e., > 1.96) and that the standardized loading estimates all exceeded 0.5, indicating statistical significance (Byrne, 2016).

Table 5-10 Competing Models (N = 675)

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI	TLI	GFI	SRMR	RMSEA
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Model 0: CII, TI, FI, OBSE, WLB, OWB	4319.13	2120		0.92	0.92	0.90	0.04	0.04
Model 1: CII + TI, FI, OBSE, WLB, OWB	4727.18	2125	408.05**	0.91	0.91	0.82	0.04	0.04
Model 2: CII + TI + FI, OBSE, WLB, OWB	5168.40	2129	849.27**	0.90	0.89	0.80	0.04	0.05
Model 3: CII + TI + FI, OBSE + WLB, OWB	5406.32	2132	1087.19**	0.89	0.88	0.78	0.05	0.05
Model 4: CII + TI + FI + OBSE + WLB, OWB	6987.54	2134	2668.41**	0.83	0.83	0.67	0.06	0.06
Model 5: CII + TI + FI + OBSE + WLB + OWB	7112.33	2135	2793.20**	0.83	0.82	0.66	0.06	0.06

Notes: ** Significant at the 0.01 level. CII = careers and incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals, OBSE = organization-based self-esteem, WLB = work-life balance, OWB = occupational well-being.

Table 5-11 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N = 675)

	Estimate	C.R	Standardized Estimate	SMC
Career and Incentives I-Deals				
CII -> CI1	0.98	17.80***	0.73	0.53
CII -> CI2	1.10	17.60***	0.72	0.52
CII -> CI3	1.08	18.42***	0.76	0.58
CII -> CI4	1.06	18.52***	0.76	0.58
CII -> CI5	1.03	17.93***	0.73	0.54
CII -> CI6	1.10	19.11***	0.79	0.62
CII -> CI7	1.08	18.01***	0.74	0.55
CII -> CI8	1.06	17.81***	0.73	0.53
CII -> CI9	1.12	18.06***	0.74	0.55
CII -> II1	1.11	18.48***	0.76	0.57

CII -> II2	1.07	18.58***	0.76	0.58
CII -> II3	0.94	17.26***	0.71	0.50
CII -> II4	1.01	17.17***	0.70	0.49
CII -> II5	1.04	17.29***	0.71	0.50
CI -> II6	0.96	17.55***	0.71	0.51
CI -> II7	1.00		0.68	0.47
Task I-Deals				
TI -> TI1	0.96	21.41***	0.78	0.61
TI -> TI2	0.99	19.89***	0.75	0.56
TI -> TI3	1.01	21.89***	0.80	0.65
TI -> TI4	1.00		0.79	0.62
Flexibility I-Deals				
FI -> FI1	1.07	17.01***	0.74	0.57
FI -> FI2	1.19	17.55***	0.84	0.62
FI -> FI3	1.20	17.73***	0.81	0.63
FI -> FI4	1.10	16.97***	0.79	0.55
FI -> FI5	1.00		0.69	0.46
OBSE				
OBSE -> OBSE1	1.00		0.71	0.51
OBSE -> OBSE2	1.02	19.53***	0.76	0.58
OBSE -> OBSE3	0.99	19.70***	0.78	0.60
OBSE -> OBSE4	0.93	18.97***	0.75	0.56
OBSE -> OBSE5	0.86	17.30***	0.68	0.47
OBSE -> OBSE6	0.99	18.63***	0.73	0.54
OBSE -> OBSE7	0.97	18.91***	0.75	0.56
OBSE -> OBSE8	0.95	18.01***	0.71	0.51
OBSE -> OBSE9	0.81	13.86***	0.55	0.30
OBSE -> OBSE10	0.87	17.79***	0.70	0.50

WLB				
WLB -> WLB1	1.04	19.02***	0.75	0.56
WLB -> WLB2	1.11	19.29***	0.75	0.57
WLB -> WLB3	1.00		0.74	0.55
OWB				
OWB -> AWB	1.00		0.88	0.78
OWB -> CWB	0.94	14.20***	0.90	0.81
OWB -> PWB	1.10	14.59***	0.96	0.92
OWB -> SWB	1.00	14.54***	0.94	0.88

Notes: *** Significant at the 0.001 level. CII = careers and incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals, OBSE = organization-based self-esteem, WLB = work-life balance, OWB = occupational well-being.

As shown in Table 5-12, the AVE values all exceeded 0.50 and the squared correlation coefficients for the corresponding inter-constructs, which suggests that both the convergent and discriminant validity of all of the constructs were satisfactory (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The composite reliabilities of the six constructs were also satisfactory because they exceeded 0.70 (Hair et al., 1998).

Table 5-12 Correlations, Reliability Coefficients, AVE, and Means (N = 675)

	CII	TI	FI	OBSE	WLB	OWB
CII	1.00					
TI	0.71** (0.50)	1.00				
FI	0.71** (0.50)	0.61** (0.37)	1.00			
OBSE	0.67** (0.45)	0.61** (0.37)	0.47** (0.22)	1.00		
WLB	0.70** (0.49)	0.64** (0.41)	0.52** (0.27)	0.69** (0.48)	1.00	
OWB	0.70** (0.49)	0.69** (0.48)	0.56** (0.31)	0.71** (0.50)	0.71** (0.50)	1.00
Reliability	0.95	0.86	0.87	0.91	0.79	0.96
AVE	0.54	0.61	0.56	0.51	0.56	0.85

Mean	5.55	5.63	5.36	5.76	5.73	5.76
SD	0.86	0.94	1.00	0.78	0.85	0.70

Notes: ** Significant at the 0.01 level. CII = careers and incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals, OBSE = organization-based self-esteem, WLB = work-life balance, OWB = occupational well-being.

5.2.2 Descriptive Statistics

As shown in Table 5-11, the means of career and incentives i-deals, task i-deals, flexibility i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB were 5.55, 5.63, 5.36, 5.76, 5.73, and 5.76, respectively. Based on the respondents' profiles (Table 5-5), independent-samples *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance were further conducted. As shown in Table 5-13, the results of the independent-samples *t*-test showed that the differences in i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB between male and female respondents were statistically insignificant. A statistically significant difference was found in i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB between married and unmarried respondents. Married managers showed higher mean values than single managers. The managers who had children also revealed statistically higher mean values than those without children. These two results suggest that marriage and children had a significant influence on an individual's possibility of obtaining i-deals and their perceptions of OBSE, WLB, and OWB. One explanation for this finding is that in such an emerging economy, most Chinese organizations are characterized by collectivism, power distance, particularism, and paternalism (Bayazit & Bayazit, 2010). Therefore, Chinese employers may tend to use i-deals to solve employees' issues with WLB (Aycan, 2006; Bayazit & Bayazit, 2010), especially married employees who have children. In return, the recipients of i-deals are more likely to show greater perceptions of OBSE, WLB, and OWB because of these personalized job demands and resources. The executives who had a postgraduate diploma or PhD had statistically higher mean values in i-deals, OBSE, WLB and OWB than those who had an undergraduate diploma or lower. This suggests that education had a significant influence on an individual's advantage in obtaining i-deals and his or her perceptions of OBSE, WLB, and OWB. As highly educated knowledge workers are likely to have superior negotiating skills, interpersonal skills, and individual

career management skills (Carleton, 2011; Drucker, 1992), they are more likely to successfully negotiate for i-deals and thereby show higher OBSE, WLB, and OWB. As the sample sizes of some departments were relatively small, it was difficult to provide a reliable result of the differences in the practice of i-deals between various departments in the hotel industry. However, this study categorized these departments into two types based on the job nature: front office (i.e., food and beverage, front office, housekeeping) and back office (i.e., sales/marketing, engineering, human resources, administration, finance). The result of the independent-samples *t*-test showed that back office managers had significantly more flexibility i-deals than front office managers. This is understandable because the front office requires more contact with customers than the back office in the daily operation (Zomerdijk & de Vries, 2007), and thus its executives are required to follow a fixed schedule and workplace arrangement.

We also examined the influence, if any, of hotel star, brand, ownership type, and management contract on individuals' i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB. The differences in i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB between four- and five-star hotel managers were statistically insignificant. The differences in i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB between domestic and international hotel managers were also statistically insignificant. Surprisingly, the executives from independent hotels had statistically higher mean values in WLB and OWB than those from chain hotels. One possible reason is that hotel ownership is highly influential in managers' stressors and managerial discretion. Chain hotel is well-known for its system of centralized authority (Galbraith, 2014). In such a system, hotel managers have to experience the stressors resulted from behaving and working under authorities and reporting financial and operational issues to headquarters frequently (Haver et al., 2014; Haver et al., 2019). The two stressors have a negative effect on managers' autonomy, flexibility, creativity, and OWB (Burgess, 2013; Elbanna, 2016; Galbraith, 2014; Humphrey et al., 2008). By contrast, managers in independent hotels have more rights of managerial discretion than those in chain hotels (Park & Kim, 2014; Roberts, 1997), the managers' attitudes may significantly influence HRM

policies and practices that are beneficial to their own WLB and OWB in independent hotels. In addition, the hotel management contract also had a significant influence on the difference in i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB of hotel managers. The managers of hotels managed by a third-party hotel management company according to a management contract showed higher satisfaction on i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB. This suggests that the hotel management contract was beneficial to the practice of i-deals and an individual's OBSE, WLB, and OWB in Chinese hotels. Since hotel management contracts became prevalent in the industry in the 1980s (DeRoos, 2010; Gannon et al., 2009), the role of third-party management companies in a hotel's HRM practice has grown more and more important. This management style not only provides specialized support to the hotel owner, it also increases the hotel operator's autonomy in terms of recruiting, training, promoting, and managing qualified executives (Deroos, 2010; Ferrary, 2015). Therefore, a hotel managed by a third-party hotel management company may be more effective in attracting, motivating, and retaining qualified executives by introducing the latest management tools, including i-deals, and thereby improve their OBSE, WLB, and OWB.

Table 5-13 Independent-Samples *t*-test (N = 675)

	N (%)	Mean					
		CII	TI	FI	OBSE	WLB	OWB
Total Mean		5.55	5.63	5.36	5.76	5.73	5.76
Gender							
Male	367 (54.4%)	5.52	5.61	5.32	5.77	5.71	5.74
Female	308 (45.6%)	5.58	5.64	5.38	5.75	5.77	5.77
Mean Difference		-0.06	-0.03	-0.06	-0.02	-0.06	-0.03
T-Value		-0.89	-0.39	-0.75	-0.36	-0.92	-0.47
Marital Status							

Married	606 (89.8%)	5.51	5.71	5.41	5.82	5.80	5.81
Single	69 (10.2%)	4.96	4.93	4.85	5.17	5.19	5.24
Mean Difference		0.65	0.78	0.56	0.65	0.61	0.57
T-Value		6.62***	6.73***	4.53***	6.85***	5.74***	6.63***
Children							
Yes	576 (85.3%)	5.62	5.72	5.41	5.84	5.80	5.81
No	99 (14.7%)	5.11	5.10	5.01	5.33	5.35	5.39
Mean Difference		0.51	0.62	0.40	0.51	0.45	0.42
T-Value		5.60***	6.20***	3.73***	6.18***	4.94***	5.83***
Education							
Postgraduate and PhD	150 (22.2%)	5.76	5.87	5.60	5.93	5.92	5.96
Undergraduate and below	525 (77.8%)	5.49	5.56	5.29	5.71	5.69	5.70
Mean Difference		0.33	0.31	0.31	0.22	0.23	0.26
T-Value		3.51***	3.61***	3.40***	3.16**	3.02**	4.14***
Job nature							
Front office	256 (37.9%)	5.50	5.62	5.25	5.76	5.71	5.74
Back office	419 (62.1%)	5.58	5.64	5.42	5.76	5.76	5.77
Mean Difference		-0.08	-0.02	-0.17	0	0.05	-0.03
T-Value		-1.06	-0.23	-2.12*	-0.06	-0.76	-0.53
Hotel Star							
Four-star	305 (45.2%)	5.57	5.66	5.33	5.77	5.77	5.76

	370						
Five-star	(54.8%)	5.53	5.61	5.37	5.76	5.71	5.75
Mean Difference		0.04	0.05	-0.04	0.01	0.06	0.01
T-Value		0.67	0.71	-0.54	0.20	0.88	0.17
Hotel brand							
	369						
International brand	(54.7%)	5.56	5.62	5.41	5.80	5.75	5.78
	306						
Domestic brand	(45.3%)	5.54	5.64	5.29	5.71	5.73	5.73
Mean Difference		0.02	-0.02	0.12	0.11	0.02	0.04
T-Value		0.33	-0.27	1.59	1.46	0.34	0.98
Ownership type							
	125						
Independent	(18.5%)	5.62	5.73	5.36	5.87	5.87	5.91
	550						
Chain	(81.5%)	5.53	5.60	5.35	5.74	5.71	5.72
Mean Difference		0.09	0.13	0.01	0.13	0.16	0.19
T-Value		1.10	1.25	0.10	1.66	1.96*	2.73**
Hotel management contract							
	308						
Yes	(45.6%)	5.71	5.77	5.49	5.93	5.87	5.89
	367						
No	(54.4%)	5.41	5.52	5.24	5.62	5.63	5.64
Mean Difference		0.30	0.25	0.25	0.31	0.24	0.25
T-Value		4.61***	3.46***	3.26***	5.23***	3.64***	4.49***

Notes: *** correlation is significant at the 0.001 level, ** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, * correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. CI = careers and incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals, OBSE = organization-based self-esteem, WLB = work-life balance, OWB = occupational well-being.

As shown in Table 5-14, the results of the one-way analysis of variance indicate that the differences in career incentives i-deals, task i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB among the age groups were statistically significant. In terms of career and incentives i-deals, the managers who are 34 years or younger and those between 35 and 44 years of age showed higher mean values than those between 45 and 54 years of age. In terms of task i-deals, the managers between 35 and 44 years of age showed a higher mean value than those between 45 and 54 years of age. These findings suggest that younger managers are more likely to successfully negotiate with their employers for career and incentives i-deals and task i-deals, which supports previous findings (Hornung et al., 2008). As a result, younger managers (34 years or younger and 35 to 44 years) showed higher mean values in OBSE, WLB, and OWB than older managers (45-54). Interestingly, managers with longer work tenures showed higher mean values in i-deals and OBSE than the new managers, suggesting that a longer tenure led to an advantage in negotiating and obtaining i-deals and an increase in OBSE. Although the longer-tenured employees' personal needs to negotiate personal compensation are fewer because they are more likely to have fixed this issue, they may have more power to negotiate for personal employment arrangements with their supervisors (Rofcanin et al., 2016) and are thereby more likely to achieve success in i-deal negotiation and higher OBSE. In terms of the relationship between position and i-deals, general managers/deputy general managers showed higher mean values in career and incentives and task i-deals than department directors/associate directors, which suggests that managers in a higher position had an advantage in negotiating career and incentives i-deals and task i-deals. Although few scholars have investigated the relationship between position level and i-deals, this finding is understandable because a manager in a higher position undoubtedly has more power and exceptional negotiating skills to negotiate for personal employment arrangements with their supervisors. In addition, the differences in i-deals, OBSE, WLB and OWB between salary groups were statistically insignificant.

Table 5-14 One-Way Analysis of Variance (N = 675)

Mean

		CII		TI		FI		OBSE		WLB		OWB	
	N	Me	Schef	Me	Schef	Me	Schef	Me	Schef	Me	Schef	Me	Schef
	(%)	an	fe	an	fe	an	fe	an	fe	an	fe	an	fe
Age													
	277												
34 or younger	(41.0 %)	5.57	c*	5.62	-	5.37	-	5.79	c**	5.83	c***	5.78	c*
	331												
35-44	(49.0 %)	5.59	c*	5.69	c*	5.39	-	5.80	c**	5.74	c**	5.79	c**
	67												
45-54	(10.0 %)	5.26	a*, b*	5.14	b*	5.14	-	5.45	a**, b**	5.37	a***, b**	5.50	a*, b**
F (p)		4.31 (0.014)		3.68 (0.026)		1.77 (0.171)		6.29 (0.002)		8.11 (0.000)		5.21 (0.006)	
Tenure													
	40												
1-3 years	(5.9%)	5.13	b*, d*	5.17	b*, c*, d*	4.73	b*, c*, d*	5.37	b*, c*, d*	5.58	-	5.49	-
	303												
4-6 years	(44.9 %)	5.58	a*	5.66	a*	5.37	a*	5.78	a*	5.78	-	5.77	-
	206												
7-9 years	(30.5 %)	5.55	-	5.65	a*	5.36	a*	5.80	a*	5.73	-	5.78	-
	126												
10 years or more	(18.7 %)	5.62	a*	5.68	a*	5.49	a*	5.79	a*	5.69	-	5.77	-
F (p)		3.52 (0.015)		3.50 (0.015)		6.19 (0.000)		3.75 (0.011)		0.86 (0.461)		2.10 (0.099)	

Position														
Department	345													
manager/associate manager	(51.1	5.53	-	5.63	-	5.30	-	5.77	-	5.77	-	5.76	-	
	%)													
Department	172													
director/associate director	(25.5	5.45	c*	5.50	c*	5.32	-	5.68	-	5.58	-	5.67	-	
	%)													
General	158													
manager/deputy general manager	(23.4	5.68	b*	5.78	b*	5.51	-	5.83	-	5.85	-	5.84	-	
	%)													
F (p)		3.06 (0.048)		3.57 (0.029)		2.32 (0.099)		1.69 (0.186)		4.66 (0.010)		2.54 (0.080)		
Yearly salary														
Less than ¥ 200000	158	(23.4	5.44	-	5.53	-	5.15	-	5.67	-	5.74	-	5.73	-
	%)													
¥ 200000-299999	193	(28.6	5.45	-	5.61	-	5.27	-	5.75	-	5.72	-	5.73	-
	%)													
¥ 300000-399999	148	(21.9	5.68	-	5.73	-	5.46	-	5.84	-	5.80	-	5.81	-
	%)													
¥ 400000-499999	105	(15.6	5.62	-	5.64	-	5.55	-	5.76	-	5.68	-	5.73	-
	%)													
¥ 500000-	42	5.59	-	5.71	-	5.51	-	5.90	-	5.73	-	5.85	-	

599999	(6.2%												
)												
	29												
¥ 600000 or	(4.3%	5.61	-	5.60	-	5.58	-	5.74	-	5.74	-	5.77	-
more)												
F (p)		1.69 (0.136)		0.81 (0.544)		3.26 (0.006)		1.04 (0.391)		0.25 (0.938)		0.46 (0.808)	

Notes: *** correlation is significant at the 0.001 level, ** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, * correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. CI = careers and incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals, OBSE = organization-based self-esteem, WLB = work-life balance, OWB = occupational well-being.

5.2.3 Hypotheses Testing

The results showed that the model fit indices of the structural model ($\chi^2 = 4389.44$, $df = 2121$, $CFI = 0.92$, $TLI = 0.92$, $SRMR = 0.04$, $RMSEA = 0.04$) were acceptable, so the proposed hypotheses were further examined as follows.

5.2.3.1 Idiosyncratic Deals and Organization-Based Self-Esteem

As shown in Table 5-15, task i-deals had a significant positive effect on OBSE (standardized estimate = 0.43, $p < 0.01$), supporting Hypothesis 1a. The effect of career and incentives i-deals on OBSE was significantly positive (standardized estimate = 0.60, $p < 0.05$), supporting Hypothesis 1b. Surprisingly, flexibility i-deals had a significant negative effect on OBSE (standardized estimate = -0.27, $p > 0.05$), which was the opposite of the prediction of Hypothesis 1c. After reviewing the literature and conducting interviews, we suggest two reasons for this finding. The first may be related to Eastern employees' attitudes to flexibility i-deals. A recent study suggested that Eastern employees tended to regard negotiation of flexible working hours as a sign of rebellion or cowardice because they view working long hours in the workplace as a kind of obligation or commitment (Chanra, 2012). Chinese hotel executives may feel guilty for breaking this commitment to the organization and therefore it reduces their OBSE. The results of the interviews also showed that most Chinese hotel

executives agreed that they needed to set an example of how to promptly deal with and reply to guests' problems by being on duty at all times. This is a particular feature of the hotel industry as a service industry. Second, flexibility i-deals may lead to more unpaid shadow work, which reduces OBSE. Shadow work refers to all kinds of unpaid, unseen, and extra jobs or tasks that fill an individual's day (Lambert, 2015). Participant 12, a male front office manager who had worked 5 years in the hotel industry argued, "I do not hate working overtime in my hotel, but I cannot accept working overtime without pay at home." Relevant studies have also shown that the pay level was a very important contributor to individuals' OBSE (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Gardner et al., 2000; Milkovich & Milkovich, 1992; Tan & Peng, 1997). Nevertheless, the results of the interviews showed that most senior hotel managers were expected to be on call and to remain in touch with their hotels by phone, email, or social media. Importantly, these extra tasks outside the workplace are difficult to evaluate in an individual performance appraisal and are seldom rewarded with financial incentives. Therefore, although flexibility i-deals may satisfy some hotel executives' need for a flexible schedule and workplace, they may increase unpaid tasks and reduce OBSE.

5.2.3.2 Idiosyncratic Deals and Work-Life Balance

Table 5-14 showed that the effect of task i-deals on WLB was significant and positive (standardized estimate = 0.46, $p < 0.01$), which supported the relationship predicted by Hypothesis 2a. The effect of career and incentives i-deals on WLB was significant and positive (standardized estimate = 0.63, $p < 0.001$), supporting Hypothesis 2b. Surprisingly, the effect of flexibility i-deals on WLB was significant and negative (standardized estimate = -0.22, $p < 0.001$), which was the opposite of the relationship predicted by Hypothesis 2c. This result was inconsistent with previous findings in Western contexts and other industry contexts. The following two reasons may help to explain this distinction. First, employees hold different views about their own WLB due to the differences between east culture and west culture (Hassan 2010). Most Western employees would be willing to negotiate for flexible work practices such as shorter or more flexible working hours to balance their roles in work and

life, whereas Eastern employees would prefer various employee welfare or benefits to improve their quality of life rather than negotiate their schedule because they regard working long hours in the workplace as a kind of obligation or commitment (Chanra, 2012). That is to say, the negotiation for shorter or more flexible working hours violates Eastern employees' commitment, which is a sign of rebellion or cowardice. Second, flexibility i-deals may lead to extra shadow work that reduces their WLB. Specifically, flexibility i-deals may make hotel executives be forced to play more roles in their family and leisure life due to extra shadow work, resulting in blurred lines between work, life and rest. The results of interviews showed that some executives would rather work overtime to complete their daily tasks in their hotels than deal with tasks in their leisure time because they did not like being disturbed when they were enjoying time with their family or friends, whereas the reality was that even if they left the workplace, their work usually continued because of frequent phone calls, messages, and emails from their hotel. In the hotel businesses, the expectations of availability outside of work hours have been verified to be among the most common stressors of executives (Cleveland et al., 2007). Another study also pointed out that nonstandard schedules, telecommuting, and home-based work led to an increase in work intensity in hotel employees' lives after work (Hochschild, 1997). Flexibility i-deals may increase phone calls and emails for hotel executives and other shadow work in their non-work hours, reducing their perceptions of WLB.

5.2.3.3 Idiosyncratic Deals and Occupational Well-Being

Table 5-14 suggested that the direct effects of task i-deals, career and incentives i-deals, and flexibility i-deals on OWB were not significant ($p > 0.05$), indicating that Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c were not supported, possibly because OBSE or WLB completely mediated the relationships among the three categories of i-deals and OWB in this model (Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

5.2.3.4 Mediating Effect of Organization-Based Self-Esteem

Table 5-14 showed that the effect of OBSE on OWB was significant and positive

(standardized estimate = 0.59, $p < 0.001$), supporting Hypothesis 4. The mediating effects of OBSE on the relationships between OWB and task i-deals, career and incentives i-deals, and flexibility i-deals were 0.25, 0.35, and -0.16 ($p < 0.001$), with respective Monte Carlo CIs of [0.32, 0.64], [0.49, 0.85], and [-0.42, -0.12]. This suggested that the indirect effects were significant, in support of Hypotheses 5a - 5c.

5.2.3.5 Mediating Effect of Work-Life Balance

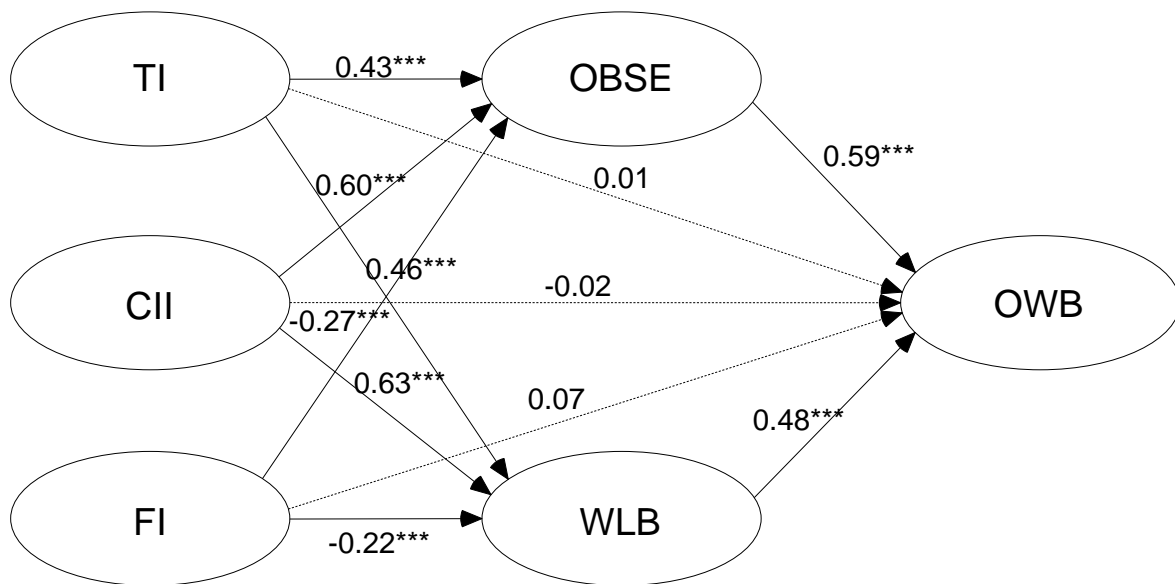
Table 5-14 also showed that WLB had a significant positive effect on OWB (standardized estimate = 0.48, $p < 0.001$), supporting Hypothesis 6. The mediating effects of WLB on the relationships between OWB and task i-deals, career and incentives i-deals, and flexibility i-deals were also significant. Thus, Hypotheses 7a-7c were supported. As the direct effects of task i-deals, career and incentives i-deals, and flexibility i-deals on OWB were insignificant, the relationships between the three types of i-deals and OWB were completely mediated by OBSE and WLB (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Based on the results of the structural model and hypotheses testing, we developed the final model (Figure 5-2).

Table 5-15 Results of Structural Model and Hypotheses Testing (N = 675)

Hypotheses/ Path	Standardized Coefficient	C.R.	Results
H1a: TI -> OBSE	0.43	6.63***	Supported
H1b: CII -> OBSE	0.60	7.72***	Supported
H1c: FI -> OBSE	-0.27	-3.42***	Opposite
H2a: TI -> WLB	0.46	6.89***	Supported
H2b: CII -> WLB	0.63	8.07***	Supported
H2c: FI -> WLB	-0.22	-3.41***	Opposite
H3a: TI -> OWB	0.01	0.98	Not supported
H3b: CII -> OWB	-0.02	-0.44	Not supported
H3c: FI -> OWB	0.07	1.89	Not supported
H4: OBSE -> OWB	0.59	11.98***	Supported
H5a: TI -> OBSE -> OWB	0.25	5.80***	Supported

H5b: CII -> OBSE -> OWB	0.35	6.49***	Supported
H5c: FI -> OBSE -> OWB	-0.16	-3.97***	Supported
H6: WLB -> OWB	0.48	7.25***	Supported
H7a: TI -> WLB -> OWB	0.22	4.99***	Supported
H7b: CII -> WLB -> OWB	0.30	5.39***	Supported
H7c: FI -> WLB -> OWB	-0.11	-3.09**	Supported

Note: *** correlation is significant at the 0.001 level, ** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. CII = careers and incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals, OBSE = organization-based self-esteem, WLB = work-life balance, OWB = occupational well-being.



Notes: *** Significant at the 0.001 level. CII = careers and incentives i-deals, TI = task i-deals, FI = flexibility i-deals, OBSE = organization-based self-esteem, WLB = work-life balance, OWB = occupational well-being.

Figure 5-2 Final Constructed Model

CHAPTER SIX

6 Conclusions and Discussion

In Chapter 1, the introduction, the research background, research gaps and problem statement, the research objectives, and significance were described. Chapter 2 comprised a literature review of i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB in terms of their concepts, antecedents, outcomes, and research status in the context of the hotel industry. Chapter 2 also introduced the JD-R model as the theoretical basis of this study. Chapter 3 presented the conceptual model, proposed a model of the mediating mechanism between i-deals and OWB in the Chinese hotel industry, and developed hypotheses. Chapter 4 described the methodology, and elaborated the research design and approach, target population and sample determination, questionnaires, and analysis. Chapter 5 presented and interpreted the results of scale development and validation of hospitality i-deals (Study 1) and the mediating mechanism between i-deals and OWB in the Chinese hotel industry (Study 2). Based on the summaries of the first five chapters, the final chapter concludes and discusses the results and limitations of Studies 1 and 2 and shows which aspects should be improved and developed in future studies.

6.1 Conclusions

The conclusions are based on the findings of Studies 1 and 2. Study 1 attempted to develop a scale to measure i-deals in the hotel industry context. Study 2 investigated how i-deals influence OBSE, WLB, and OWB and examined the mediating effect of OBSE and WLB on the relationship between i-deals and OWB.

6.1.1 Scale Development and Validation of Idiosyncratic Deals in the Chinese Hotel Industry

As the first exploratory study of hospitality i-deals, Study 1 developed a comprehensive scale for i-deals that considers the what, when, where, and why domains of work arrangements and

discovered some new potential i-deals, thus enriching the literature on i-deals and confirming their applicability in the Chinese hotel industry context. Based on the findings of the in-depth interviews and questionnaires, Study 1 developed and validated a three-dimensional scale to measure hospitality i-deals, which are individualized arrangements regarding career training, continuing education, and employee benefits. Career and incentives i-deals provide flexibility in the what and why domains of hotel knowledge workers' work arrangements. Task i-deals provide flexibility in terms of the what domain, and flexibility i-deals provide variability in the when and where domains. Unlike previous studies that sought to establish an i-deals scale, Study 1 proposed and developed items on career training, continuing education, and employee benefits i-deals, expanding or broadening the perspective of i-deals research.

6.1.2 Mediating Mechanism Between Idiosyncratic Deals and Occupational Well-Being in the Chinese Hotel Industry

In Study 2, a new conceptual model was developed based on the JD-R model, which proposed i-deals as determinants, OBSE and WLB as mediators, and OWB as an outcome. As expected, both career and incentives i-deals and task i-deals showed a significant and positive effect on hotel knowledge workers' OBSE and WLB, thus supporting previous findings (Liu et al., 2013; Ho & Kong, 2015). Similarly, the respondents reported that both OBSE and WLB can enhance their OWB, which supports the findings of relevant studies (Fan et al., 2014; Haar et al., 2014; Lunau et al., 2014; Mauno et al., 2006; Pierce et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2016). We found it interesting that flexibility i-deals hurt hotel knowledge workers' OBSE and WLB, because this finding is inconsistent with previous findings in other industry contexts. One possible explanation is that the negotiation of flexibility i-deals may increase hotel executives' feelings of weakness and guilt because they regard working long hours in the workplace as a kind of employee obligation or commitment (Chanra, 2012). Also, flexibility i-deals may increase individuals' unpaid and extra shadow work and reduce their OBSE and WLB (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Cleveland et al., 2007; Gardner et al., 2000; Lambert, 2015; Milkovich & Milkovich, 1992; Tan & Peng, 1997). In terms of the association between i-deals and OWB, this study

shows that the direct effects of the three types of i-deals on OWB are insignificant in the constructed mediational model, whereas they have indirect effects on OWB via OBSE and WLB, which indicates that OBSE and WLB completely mediate the association between i-deals and OWB (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). This finding confirms that both OBSE and WLB play vital roles in the process by which i-deals influence OWB.

6.1.3 Influential Factors of Negotiating Hospitality Idiosyncratic Deals

The results of independent-samples *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance in Study 2 revealed which kinds of hotel managers have an advantage in negotiating i-deals and show higher OBSE, WLB, or OWB. First, married managers who have children are more likely to obtain i-deals and have higher OBSE, WLB, and OWB, which supports the findings of relevant studies (Aycan, 2006; Bayazit & Bayazit, 2010). Second, highly educated managers show a greater likelihood of success in negotiations for an i-deal and thereby have higher OBSE, WLB, and OWB. One possible explanation is that highly educated hotel managers have superior negotiating skills, interpersonal skills, and individual career management skills (Carleton, 2011; Drucker, 1992). Third, back office managers are more likely to obtain flexibility i-deals, possibly because the back office requires less contact with customers in daily operation than the front office (Zomerdijk & de Vries, 2007). Fourth, younger managers have an advantage in obtaining career and incentives i-deals and task i-deals and thereby exhibit higher OBSE, WLB, and OWB, which is consistent with previous findings (Hornung et al., 2008). Fifth, hotel managers with a longer tenure at their hotels have an advantage in negotiating and obtaining i-deals and thereby exhibit higher OBSE. Finally, general managers/deputy general managers have an advantage over department directors/associate directors in the successful negotiation of career and incentives i-deals and task i-deals, possibly because a longer tenure and higher position lead to more power to negotiate for personal employment arrangements with their supervisors (Rofcanin et al., 2016).

The findings also suggest which kinds of hotels are more likely to provide their managers with i-deals and thereby improve their OBSE, WLB, and OWB. First, although the difference in

the successful negotiation of i-deals between independent and chain hotels was statistically insignificant, the managers in independent hotels showed higher WLB and OWB than those in chain hotels, possibly because managers in independent hotels have greater managerial discretion than those in chain hotels (Park & Kim, 2014; Roberts, 1997) and thereby enjoy other WLB and OWB programs or strategies. Second, the hotel management contract is beneficial to the success of i-deal negotiation and an individual's OBSE, WLB, and OWB in Chinese hotels. One possible explanation is the management contract increases the hotel operator's autonomy in terms of recruiting, training, promoting, and managing qualified managers and employees (Deroos, 2010; Ferrary, 2015).

6.2 Discussion

6.2.1 Theoretical Contributions

In terms of theory, this study makes four main contributions. First, Study 1 provides a basis for the measurement and discussion of hospitality i-deals by proposing and validating a comprehensive hospitality i-deals scale. Although this study discusses the Chinese hotel industry context, the scale developed may also apply to Western hotels. One Western study noted the importance of a positive organizational culture of empowerment, training, and operating procedures and resources to improve the quality of hotel service (Davidson, 2003). An Australian report also emphasized the necessity of a series of workforce development strategy plans based on flexible employment arrangements, career development opportunities, managerial skill development programs, job design, job promotions, and WLB programs to address the shortage of qualified and skilled employees in the hotel and tourism industry (Service skills Australia, 2013). The scale for the three types of hospitality i-deals developed in this study can be considered theoretical and practical applications in psychological empowerment, psychological contracts, the JD-R model, job design, job crafting, and WLB (Hornung et al., 2009, 2010, 2011, 2014; Rousseau, 2001). Therefore, the hospitality i-deals scale developed in Study 1 has certain theoretical value in future studies of i-deals in the hotel

industry context.

Second, Study 1 also contributes to the conceptualization and content of i-deals in the hotel industry context by including career training, continuing education, and employee benefit i-deals. Career training and continuing education i-deals are designed to satisfy personal needs for learning and development and organizational needs for highly educated and professional talents in various hotels (Kong et al., 2011; Qiu Zhang & Wu, 2004). Employee benefit i-deals are proposed to meet Chinese hotel knowledge workers' expectations for a higher standard of living, extra incentives, relaxation, stress-relief, and WLB (Chandra, 2012; Cooke, 2009). These new i-deals are obviously relevant to the Chinese hotel industry and are also applicable to the global hotel industry. As a labor-intensive service industry, the general hotel industry requires not only a service-oriented culture, but also an organizational climate that encourages innovation and attaches importance to employee welfare and human capital because these attributes have been suggested to increase the quality of hotel service (Davidson, 2003). Career training and continuing education i-deals provide the global hotel and tourism industry with further insights to deal with the problem of attracting highly educated and professional employees (WTTC, 2015) by equipping their existing staff with knowledge and expertise. Employee benefit i-deals are not just the HRM practice in the Chinese hotel industry; the literature shows that some employee welfare programs have also been implemented in the Western hotel and tourism industry to meet individuals' expectations for rest and relaxation (Dickson & Huyton, 2008). Therefore, these new observations in Study 1 have strong theoretical significance for further qualitative and quantitative research on i-deals.

Third, Study 2 investigates the influence of hospitality i-deals on WLB, OBSE, and OWB based on the JD-R model, which can enrich both theoretical and empirical study of i-deals, WLB, OBSE, and OWB. The observed significant relationships among the constructs suggest that i-deals are the job demands and resources that play vital roles in hotel knowledge workers' WLB and OBSE. Career and incentives i-deals show a greater effect on WLB and OBSE than task i-deals. We were surprised to note that the findings of this hospitality study differed from those of previous studies of the effects of flexibility i-deals on OBSE and WLB. The results

of Study 2 show that the effects of flexibility i-deals on OBSE and WLB are statistically negative, which is inconsistent with the hypothesis, possibly because flexibility i-deals have dual effects in a service business in a particular cultural background. On the one hand, flexibility i-deals may satisfy some individuals' needs for a flexible schedule and workplace (Hornung et al., 2008, 2014; Rousseau et al., 2009; Rousseau & Kim, 2006; Rosen et al., 2013). On the other hand, flexibility i-deals may increase hotel managers' feelings of weakness and guilt and their shadow work and thereby exhibit a negative effect on their OBSE and WLB (Aryee & Luk, 1996; Cleveland et al., 2007; Gardner et al., 2000; Lambert, 2015; Milkovich & Milkovich, 1992; Tan & Peng, 1997). This finding represents an important supplement to previous studies of the function of flexibility i-deals. Specifically, it offers new insights into the processes linking flexibility i-deals to OBSE and WLB in the Chinese hotel industry and suggests that the predicting effect of flexibility i-deals on OBSE and WLB can be moderated by potential shadow work and individuals' working values or opinions on working long hours and WLB. Another noteworthy finding of Study 2 was that the direct effects of the three types of i-deals on OWB are statistically insignificant, which is inconsistent with our hypotheses. In conjunction with the JD-R model, Study 2 broadens the current understanding of i-deals and OWB by using the mediation model to verify that the causal relationship between hospitality i-deals and OWB are indirect. To be more precise, the indirect effects of the three types of i-deals on OWB via OBSE and WLB are significant, suggesting that the associations between i-deals and OWB are completely mediated by OBSE and WLB (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). The highlight of this finding helps to explain how i-deals play a role in the increase of OWB.

Fourth, Study 2 reveals the mediating effects of OBSE and WLB on the relationship between i-deals and OWB, which creates a new perspective to researchers of psychology and organizational behavior to understand the mediating mechanism between i-deals and OWB in the hotel industry. Study 2 illustrates that both career and incentives i-deals and task i-deals have indirect positive effects on OWB via OBSE and WLB, whereas flexibility i-deals can indirectly depress hotel managers' OWB via OBSE and WLB. This means that the recipients

of career and incentives i-deals and task i-deals tend to show higher OBSE and WLB, whereas the recipients of flexibility i-deals show lower OBSE and WLB. As a result, individuals with higher OBSE and WLB may have more positive attitudes toward themselves, others, and organizations, which motivates them to maintain pleasurable experiences and efficacy in work and life and thereby show higher OWB. In addition, the indirect effect of career and incentives i-deals on OWB are the greatest. From a long-term perspective, the self-fulfillment is most important for an individual's OWB (Ryff, 1989). The significance of career and incentives i-deals consists of the following two aspects. The first is to ensure that individuals have access to career development and promotion opportunities that are suitable for them and give full play to their talents. The second is to obtain more generous material and spiritual returns and to improve their life quality. Therefore, this type of i-deals provides a more profound impact on an individual's OWB. To conclude, these findings enrich knowledge of the psychological phenomenon caused by i-deals in the hotel industry context.

The last contribution involves the identification of some new influential factors in the success of i-deal negotiation and personal OBSE, WLB, and OWB. The results of independent-samples *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance in this hospitality study not only support some of the conclusions drawn in other industry contexts, they also provide some new knowledge regarding the antecedents of the success of i-deal negotiation and personal OBSE, WLB, and OWB, including marital status, children, education, job nature, position level, ownership type, and hotel management contract. These new findings may provide potential moderators to explain the associations between i-deals and outcomes such as OBSE, WLB, and OWB.

6.2.2 Practical Implications

Based on our findings, we provide several recommendations to Chinese hotel employers for their hotels' HRM practice. First, hotel employers are expected to respect knowledge workers' differences and consider i-deals to meet their idiosyncratic needs for their own work arrangements. In the traditional employment relationship, the content and terms of the employment arrangement are formulated unilaterally by the employer, whereas the employee

has only the choice of accepting or refusing. Nevertheless, the increasing knowledge and skills of employees have enhanced their ability to manage their own careers, which forces the organization to transfer its role in employee career management from controller to supportive developer (Kong et al., 2011). At the same time, improvements in employees' negotiation abilities has improved their weak position in employment negotiation (Cappelli, 2000). In the knowledge economy, long-term standardized employment arrangements may not be effective in attracting, motivating, and retaining hotel knowledge workers that maintain better negotiation skills and show greater autonomy and higher self-esteem, self-actualization, and achievement motivation (Alvesson, 2001; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Bal et al., 2012; Cappelli, 2000; Carleton, K. 2011; Cortada, 1998; Drucker, 1999; Heller, 2004; Lee et al., 2000; Rousseau, 2001). I-deals provides a new approach to create an equal employment relationship by satisfying hotel knowledge workers' personalized needs during the employment negotiation. Study 1 concludes Chinese hotel managers' opinions on i-deals and proposes a hospitality i-deals scale, which helps to understand hotel knowledge workers' personalized expectations and requirements and provides reasonable and reliable references regarding the practice of i-deals in the Chinese hotel industry. For example, hotel employers may consider career training and continuing education i-deals to deal with the increasing difficulty faced by most Chinese hotels in attracting high-quality talent with good education. Hotel employers can also use various employee benefit i-deals to address the difficulty in the wide use of flexibility i-deals in the Chinese hotel industry and improve the quality of employees' work and life.

A second recommendation concerns the use of i-deals to improve hotel knowledge workers' OBSE, WLB, and OWB and to address the issues of job burnout, turnover, and labor conflicts in the hotel industry. Chinese hotel employers are suggested to give priority to career and incentives i-deals in their hotels. The first reason is that the EFA results suggest that the "career and incentives" factor explains the variance stronger than the other two factors. Another explanation is its strongest positive effect on OBSE and WLB and indirect effect on OWB. This type of i-deals may be the most effective i-deals for satisfying personal needs for long-term professional development and life quality, and thereby lead to a more meaningful and

challenging job. Therefore, career and incentives i-deals are more helpful for improving hotel knowledge workers' OBSE, WLB, and OWB, which suggests that hotel employers should give priority to personalized career development opportunities and incentives during negotiation. As rewards for employees' job performance, career development opportunities and incentives are not only the main sources of employees' survival, enjoyment, and development, but also important contributors to employees' life quality, prospects, and well-being. Hotel employers could consider providing knowledge workers with more flexible and creative career management ways and incentives (e.g., career development, internal promotion, professional advancement, training and learning, and compensation and benefits) that meet personal needs and contributions to fully tap personal potentials and improve their sense of achievement.

At the same time, hotel employers must also consider cost control of human resources. It is undeniable that career and incentives i-deals can increase the costs of career management and incentives. Unlike career and incentives i-deals, task i-deals are less-expensive strategies that only involve personalized arrangements regarding employees' job tasks. Given that task i-deals are also useful for improving OBSE, WLB, and OWB, hotel employers can assign personalized tasks to knowledge workers based on their interest and expertise even with a limited budget. Due to the stronger independence, self-actualization, and achievement motivation of hotel knowledge workers, hotel employers should pay more attention to their autonomy. For instance, hotel employers could consider about introducing some ideas of quantitative authorization (e.g., amoeba management) to increase individuals' motivation to participate in operation and management and cultivate talent consistent with entrepreneurial philosophy. Hotel employers could also provide knowledge workers with necessary resources (e.g., financial support, customer discounts) for their service innovation activities through appropriate authorization and motivate them to determine the best service methods.

In contrast to the Western hotel industry, flexibility i-deals in the Chinese hotel industry may be inefficient in improving knowledge workers' OBSE, WLB, and OWB due to negative consequences such as individuals' perceptions of guilt and weakness in addition to extra and unpaid work outside the workplace. Chinese hotel employers can provide opportunities and

support to allow knowledge workers to negotiate and craft other individual job demands and resources and ensure that they have enough family welfare to take care of their family and leisure life while working. To sum up, the premise of improving knowledge workers' OWB is to take effective management strategies based on the analysis of their psychology and needs. Therefore, as innovations of management strategies, suitable i-deals that strengthen OBSE and WLB can help to boost knowledge workers' OWB and thereby contribute to positive work-related behaviors and reduce negative behaviors. These detailed guidelines and recommendations regarding the application of i-deals contribute to solving the problems of job burnout, turnover, and labor conflicts in the Chinese hotel industry.

The last recommendation concerns the influential factors of hotel knowledge workers' i-deal negotiation and OBSE, WLB, and OWB. HRM is the key for high-star hotels to maintain an invincible position in the fierce talent competition. Hotel employers must show a deeper understanding of the potential antecedents of knowledge workers' i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB due to the rapid development of the knowledge economy. The results of the independent-samples *t*-test and the one-way analysis of variance suggest that hotel managers' success in i-deal negotiation and self-evaluations of OBSE, WLB, and OWB depend on both individual (e.g., marital status, children, age, education, job nature, tenure, position level) and organizational factors (e.g., ownership type, hotel management contract). To be more precise, certain hotel managers have an advantage in achieving success in i-deal negotiation and thereby show higher OBSE, WLB, and OWB: 1) married managers who have children (career and incentives i-deals, flexibility i-deals, and task i-deals; OBSE, WLB, and OWB); 2) highly educated managers (career and incentives i-deals, flexibility i-deals, and task i-deals; OBSE, WLB, and OWB); 3) back office managers (flexibility i-deals); 4) younger managers (career and incentives i-deals and task i-deals; OBSE, WLB, and OWB); 5) managers with a long tenure (career and incentives i-deals, flexibility i-deals, and task i-deals; OBSE); and 6) general managers/deputy general managers (career and incentives i-deals and task i-deals). To optimize the allocation of organizational resources and reduce the cost, hotel employers are encouraged to make full use of organizational resources such as i-deals and prioritize their practice among

managers. Also, a hotel managed by a third-party hotel management company is more likely to provide its managers with career and incentives i-deals, flexibility i-deals, and task i-deals, and in return these managers show higher OBSE, WLB, and OWB. In addition, although the difference in i-deals between independent and chain hotels was not statistically significant, managers who work in independent hotels have higher WLB and OWB, which suggests that hotel employers should consider the implementation of i-deals according to their own hotels' organizational characteristics. These findings offer reliable detailed evidence about various knowledge workers' self-evaluations of personal employment arrangements, value, competence, importance, role balance, and happiness in different hotels.

6.2.3 Limitations and Future Study

Despite these contributions and recommendations, this study has a number of shortcomings. First, the structural model is examined on the basis of cross-section data, so it has certain limitations in explaining causal relationships. A future study could use time-series data to further clarify the causal relationship between i-deals and OWB and the mediating effects of OBSE and WLB. Second, a convenience sampling method was used to collect the data for this study, so some bias may exist. A future study should seek to reduce bias by considering a quota sampling method. Third, there are some double-barrelled questions in the questionnaire. A future study can make the language of the question shorter and clearer. Fourth, the research target of this study was limited to middle and senior managers from four- and five-star hotels. Although these two types of hotels may have more resources and advantages to introduce and implement the latest strategies such as i-deals to motivate middle and senior managers, some upscale hotels or premium restaurants may also provide i-deals to chefs or other employees who contribute to the organization with their great outstanding capacities and innovative ideas or products (Presenza & Messeni Petruzzelli, 2019; Presenza et al., 2019). Therefore, a future study could further expand the sample area in other kinds of hotels or in the hotel and catering industry more generally.

The applicability and consequences of flexibility i-deals were affected by Chinese employees'

perception of working long hours and the shadow work effect in our study, so a future study could conduct a comparative study on this topic across cultural settings. Furthermore, because the independent-samples *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance show that some individual factors (e.g., marital status, children, age, education, job nature, tenure, position level) and organizational factors (e.g., ownership type, hotel management contract) have a significant influence on i-deals, OBSE, WLB, and OWB, a future study could add these variables to the structural model as moderators to provide further findings.

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APPENDICES

Questionnaire (English Version)

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am conducting research for my PhD program on the effects of idiosyncratic deals on middle and senior managers' occupational well-being in the hotel industry. I greatly appreciate your participation in this survey and promise that your responses will remain **confidential** and **will only be used in academic research**. For further information, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

Ning (Taurus) Sun, PhD Student

School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Email: n.sun@

Demographic information

Please check (✓) only one box in front of the answer that best applies to you.

1. Are you working in the hotel industry now?

- 1) Yes 2) No

(INSTRUCTIONS: Terminate if Q1=2, thanks for your help)

2. Name of the current hotel: _____

3. Location of the current hotel (City): _____

4. Size of the current hotel: _____ rooms

5. Star level of the current hotel:

- 1) One-star 2) Two-star 3) Three-star 4) Four-star 5) Five-star

(INSTRUCTIONS: Terminate if Q5=1-3, thanks for your help)

6. How long have you worked in this hotel?

- 1) Less than 1 year 2) 1-3 years 4-6 years
 3) 7-9 years 4) 10 years or more

(INSTRUCTIONS: Terminate if Q6=1, thanks for your help):

7. Position:

- 1) Grass-roots employee 2) Department head 3) Department supervisor
 4) Department manager/Associate manager 5) Department director/Associate director

6) General manager/Deputy general manager

(INSTRUCTIONS: Terminate if Q7=1-3, thanks for your help)

8. Have you ever negotiated with your superior or employer regarding your employment arrangement (e.g., task, position, career plan, schedule, compensation)?

1) Yes 2) No

(INSTRUCTIONS: Terminate if Q8=2, thanks for your help)

9. Gender:

1) Male 2) Female

10. Age:

1) 18-24 2) 25-34 3) 35-44 4) 45-54 5) 55 or older

11. Marital status:

1) Single 2) Married

12. Do you have any children?

1) Yes 2) No

13. Education:

1) Primary/Elementary school 2) Secondary/High school

3) Technical school/Vocational college 4) College/University 5) Postgraduate

14. Hotel brand:

1) International 2) Domestic

15. Ownership type:

1) Dependent 2) Chain

16. Is the current hotel managed by a third-party hotel management company?

1) Yes 2) No

17. Department:

1) Food & beverage 2) Front office 3) Housekeeping 4) Sales & marketing

5) Engineering 6) HR 7) Administrative office 8) Finance 9) Other_____

18. Work experience in the hotel industry:

- 1) 1-3 years 2) 4-6 years 3) 7-9 years 4) 10 years or more

19. Yearly salary:

- 1) Less than ¥ 100000 2) ¥ 100000-199999 3) ¥ 200000-299999
 4) ¥ 300000-399999 5) ¥ 400000-499999 6) ¥ 500000-599999
 7) ¥ 600000 or more

Section I: Employment Arrangement

Please (√) the most appropriate number for each statement (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree).

Task	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I have successfully negotiated with my superior (or employer) for job tasks that fit my personal strengths and talents.							
2. I have successfully negotiated with my superior (or employer) for job tasks that fit my personal interests.							
3. I have successfully negotiated with my superior (or employer) for personally motivating job tasks.							
4. Because of my distinctive position level, job type, or experience, my superior (or employer) has granted me more flexibility in how I complete my job.							

Career development	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I have successfully negotiated with my superior (or employer) for career options (i.e., department or position) that suit my personal goals.							
2. After my initial appointment, my superior (or employer) assigned me to a desirable position that makes use of my unique abilities.							

3. I have successfully negotiated with my superior (or employer) for personal career development opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I have successfully negotiated with my superior (or employer) for ways to secure my professional advancement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My superior (or employer) has ensured that the time arrangement for my career training meets my individual needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My superior (or employer) has ensured that the content arrangement for my career training meets my individual needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My superior (or employer) has granted me more flexibility in how I arrange my continuing education.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My superior (or employer) has ensured that the time support for my continuing education meets my individual needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My superior (or employer) has ensured that the financial support for my continuing education meets my individual needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Flexibility	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I have successfully negotiated with my superior (or employer) for a work schedule suited to me personally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Under the premise of completing my tasks, my superior (or employer) has granted me extra flexibility in starting and ending my work day.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I have successfully negotiated with my superior (or employer) for a work schedule customized to my personal needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Outside of formal leave and sick time, my superior (or employer) has allowed me to take time off flexibly to handle non-work related issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. My superior (or employer) allows me to do a portion of my work from somewhere other than the main workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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Compensation & benefit packages	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Due to my personal circumstances, my superior (or employer) has created a compensation arrangement that is tailored to fit me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My superior (or employer) has ensured that my compensation arrangement meets my individual needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Because of my unique skills and contributions, my superior (or employer) has been willing to negotiate my compensation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Beyond formal policies, my superior (or employer) has raised my pay because of the exceptional contributions that I make to the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. After my initial appointment, I negotiated with my superior (or employer) to develop a compensation plan that rewards my unique contributions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My superior (or employer) has ensured that my monetary employee benefit meets my individual needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My superior (or employer) has ensured that my non-monetary employee benefit meets my individual needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section II: Work Experience

Please (√) the most appropriate number for each statement, with 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

Organization-based self-esteem	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. I count around here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I am taken seriously around here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. There is faith in me around here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I am trusted around here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I am helpful around here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am a valuable part of this place.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I am efficient around here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am an important part of this place.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I make a difference around here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I am cooperate around here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Work-Life Balance	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Nowadays, I seem to enjoy every part of my life equally well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I am satisfied with my work-life balance, enjoying both roles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I manage to balance the demands of my work and personal/family life well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Affective well-being	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. My job makes me feel relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My job makes me feel calm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My job makes me feel satisfied.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My job makes me feel optimistic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My job makes me feel worried.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My job makes me feel depressed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My job makes me feel frustrated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. My job makes me feel miserable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My job makes me feel uneasy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Cognitive well-being	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree						
	1. I can concentrate easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I feel my thinking is clear.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I find it easy to concentrate on thinking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I can understand and solve complex issues easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I have confidence in my ability to think about complex problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Professional well-being	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree						
	1. I can deal with any work problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I can cope with any situation at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I think I have more advantages than most people in the face of work problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I like setting challenging goals for myself at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I enjoy making new attempts at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I prefer to choose difficult tasks in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My work has been recognized by my superior.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My efforts at work have received the attention of this hotel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. This hotel appreciates my work performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. My work has been praised by my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Social well-being	Strongly Disagree ← → Strongly Agree						

1. I have a sense of belonging to this hotel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I have close contact with my colleagues in this hotel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I believe this hotel cherishes my value.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Most staff members in this hotel are helpful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Most staff members in this hotel are friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you very much!

Questionnaire (Chinese Version)

尊敬的先生/女士：

香港理工大学正在进行一项关于“个性化契约对酒店中高层管理者工作幸福感的影响”的研究，希望您能抽出大约 10 分钟的时间积极配合我们的工作，感谢您的参与！本研究采用**匿名方式**，所有数据仅用于**学术研究**，我们会**严格保密您的信息**，请您放心填写。如您有其他疑问或建议，欢迎联系本人。

孙宁 博士研究生
香港理工大学酒店及旅游业管理学院
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个人情况

1. 请问您是否在酒店行业工作？

1) 是 2) 否

(选 2 项的朋友请停止作答，谢谢您的合作)

2. 所在酒店名称：_____

3. 酒店所在城市：_____

4. 所在酒店规模：_____个房间

5. 所在酒店星级：

1) 一星级 2) 二星级 3) 三星级 4) 四星级 5) 五星级

(选 1-3 项的朋友请停止作答，谢谢您的合作)

6. 在所在酒店的工作时间：

1) 1 年以下 2) 1-3 年 3) 4-6 年 4) 7-9 年 5) 10 年或以上

(选 1 项的朋友请停止作答，谢谢您的合作)

7. 职位：

1) 基层员工 2) 部门领班 3) 部门主管 4) 部门经理/副经理

5) 部门总监/副总监 6) 总经理/副总

(选 1-3 项的朋友请停止作答，谢谢您的合作)

8. 请问您是否与您的上司或雇主协商过您的工作安排（如工作任务、职位、职业生涯规划、工作时间、薪酬福利等）？：

1) 有 2) 没有

(选 2 项的朋友请停止作答，谢谢您的合作)

9. 性别:

1) 男 2) 女

10. 年龄:

1) 18-24 2) 25-34 3) 35-44 4) 45-54 5) 55 或以上

11. 婚姻状况:

1) 未婚 2) 已婚 3) 离异

12. 您是否有孩子?

1) 有 2) 没有

13. 学历:

1) 初中/高中及以下 2) 专科 3) 本科 4) 研究生 5) 博士

14. 酒店品牌:

1) 国际品牌 2) 本土品牌

15. 酒店经营类型:

1) 单体酒店 2) 连锁酒店

16. 您的酒店是否有委托第三方酒店管理公司管理?

1) 有 2) 没有

17. 所在部门:

1) 餐饮部 2) 前厅部 3) 客房部 4) 销售/市场部 5) 工程部

6) 人力资源管理/人事部 7) 行政办公室 8) 财务部 9) 其他_____

18. 在酒店行业的工作经验:

1) 1-3 年 2) 4-6 年 3) 7-9 年 4) 10 年或以上

19. 年薪:

1) ¥ 100000 以下 2) ¥ 100000-199999 3) ¥ 200000-299999

4) ¥ 300000-399999 5) ¥ 400000-499999 6) ¥ 500000-599999

7) ¥ 600000 或以上

第一部分：这一部分包括 4 个大项，每项描述工作安排的情况。请认真考虑，在每个项目后面适当的数字上打“√”来表明您同意或不同意的程度。每题只选一项。

工作任务	非常不同意	不同意	不太同意	中立态度	比较同意	同意	非常同意
1.我已经成功地与上司（或雇主）商定了符合我个人长处和才能的工作任务。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.我已经成功地与上司（或雇主）商定了符合我个人兴趣的工作任务。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.我已经成功地与上司（或雇主）商定了对自己有激励性的工作任务。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.鉴于我的职位级别、工作类型或工作经验，我的上司（或雇主）对于我如何完成工作给予了更大的灵活性。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

职业发展	非常不同意	不同意	不太同意	中立态度	比较同意	同意	非常同意
1.我已经成功地与上司（或雇主）商定了符合个人目标的职业选择（即部门或职位）。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.在初次任命之后，我的上司（或雇主）给我分配了一个能够充分施展我才能的理想职位。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.我已经成功地与上司（或雇主）商定了适合自己的职业发展机会。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. 我已经成功地与上司（或雇主）商定了能确保我职业提升的路径。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.我的上司（或雇主）确保了对我职业培训的时间安排满足我个人的需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.我的上司（或雇主）确保了对我职业培训内容的安排满足我个人的需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.我的上司（或雇主）对于我如何安排自己的继续教育给予了更大的灵活性。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.我的上司（或雇主）确保了对我继续教育的时间支持满足我个人的需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.我的上司（或雇主）确保了对我继续教育的经济支持满足我个人的需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

工作灵活性	非常不同意	不同意	不太同意	中立态度	比较同意	同意	非常同意
1.我已经成功地与上司(或雇主)商定了适合自己的工作时间表。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.在完成工作任务的前提下，我的上司（或雇主）对我的上下班时间给予了额外的灵活性。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.我已经成功地与上司（或雇主）商定了根据个人需求定制化的工作时间表。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 除法定假期和病假外，我的上司（或雇主）允许我灵活调休以处理与工作无关的事。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.我的上司（或雇主）允许我在主要工作场所以外的地方处理一部分工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

薪酬福利	非常不同意	不同意	不太同意	中立态度	比较同意	同意	非常同意
1. 鉴于我的个人情况，我的上司（或雇主）制定了一套与我个人相适应的薪酬方案。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我的上司（或雇主）确保了我的薪酬方案满足我个人的需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 鉴于我的独特的技能和贡献，我的上司（或雇主）愿意与我协商我的薪酬。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 鉴于我对组织的特殊贡献，我的上司（或雇主）给我额外加薪了。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 在初次任命之后，我与上司（或雇主）商定了一个用于奖励我的特殊贡献的薪酬方案。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 我的上司（或雇主）确保了我的货币性员工福利满足我个人的需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 我的上司（或雇主）确保了我的非货币性员工福利满足我个人的需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第二部分：这一部分包括 6 个大项，每项描述工作体验的情况。请认真考虑并在每个项目后面适当的数字上打“√”来表明您同意或不同意的程度。每题只选一项。

组织自尊	非常不同意	不同意	不太同意	中立态度	比较同意	同意	非常同意
1. 在酒店里我对周围人很有影响力。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.在酒店里我受到周围的人的重视。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.在酒店里周围的人对我很有信心。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.在酒店里我很受信任。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.在酒店里我很有用。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.在酒店里我很有价值。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.我在这个酒店工作很有效率。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.我是这个酒店重要的一员。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.我在这个酒店与众不同。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.在酒店里我乐于合作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

工作-生活平衡	非常不同意	不同意	不太同意	中立态度	比较同意	同意	非常同意
1.现在的我很享受生活中的每一部分。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.我对自己的工作-生活平衡感到满意，并很享受生活和工作中所扮演的双重角色。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.我能够很好地平衡自己的工作要求与个人/家庭生活需求。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

情绪幸福感	非常不同意	不同意	不太同意	中立态度	比较同意	同意	非常同意
1.我的工作使我感到放松。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.我的工作使我感到平静。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.我的工作使我感到满足。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.我的工作使我感到乐观。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.我的工作使我感到忧虑。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.我的工作使我感到抑郁。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.我的工作使我感到沮丧。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.我的工作使我感到苦不堪言。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.我的工作使我感到心神不安。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

认知幸福感	非常不同意	不同意	不太同意	中立态度	比较同意	同意	非常同意
1.我能够容易地集中精神。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.我感到自己的思维清晰。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.我感到自己容易集中精神进行思考。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.我在思考复杂问题时能够从容得解。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.我对自己思考复杂问题的能力有信心。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

职业幸福感	非常不同意	不同意	不太同意	中立态度	比较同意	同意	非常同意
1.我能够处理好工作中出现的任何问题。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.我在工作中能够应付自如。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.我认为自己在面对工作难题时比绝大多数人更有优势。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4.我喜欢在工作中为自己设定有挑战性的目标。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.我享受在工作中做出新的尝试。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.我在工作中偏好于选择有难度的任务。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.我的工作得到了领导的认可。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.我在工作中付出的大量努力受到了酒店的重视。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.这个酒店欣赏我的工作业绩。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.我的工作得到了同事的赞誉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	非 常 不 同 意	不 同 意	不 太 同 意	中 立 态 度	比 较 同 意	同 意	非 常 同 意
社会幸福感							
1.我对这个酒店有归属感。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.我在这个酒店中感觉到自己与其他人的联系紧密。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.我相信这家酒店重视自己存在的价值。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.这个酒店的成员都乐意为他人提供帮助而不求回报。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.我相信这个酒店的成员是友善的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

非常感谢您的参与!