

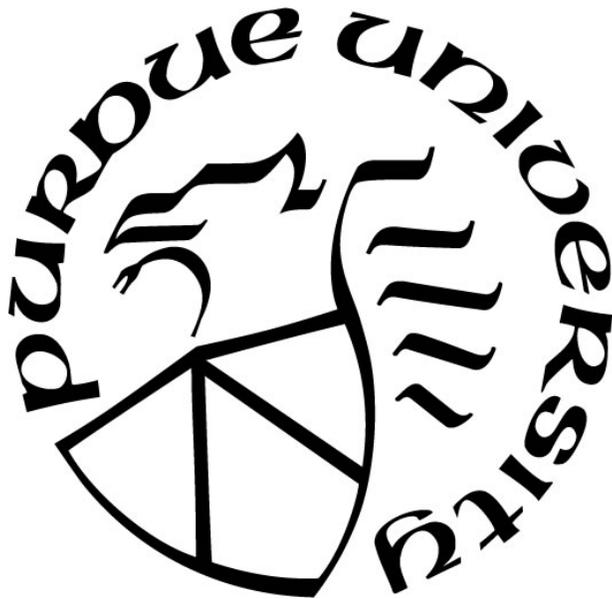
**AN EXPERIENCE SAMPLING STUDY OF HOTEL
EMPLOYEES' SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING: THE JOB
DEMANDS-RESOURCES APPROACH**

by
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To my mom, dad, aunts, family and friends, for their support and love.

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ABSTRACT

To capture the dynamic nature of frontline employees' subjective well-being (SWB) and turnover intention in the hotel industry, this study used Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and the unfolding model of employee voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) to argue the short-term variability in SWB and turnover intention. Using the job demands-resources model (JD-R model) as the framework, this study examined the role of daily job demands (challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, and emotional dissonance) and the role of daily job resources (supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy). Given that hotel employees work with different supervisors and co-workers and face various guest situations during each shift, these employees may face high work stress and workload. Furthermore, employees in this industry are often requested to perform non-routine tasks. Therefore, their work is highly associated with high job demands and resource variability. Moreover, the study results stress the importance of the moderating role of day-level job resources and the multilevel moderating effects of employees' individual levels of resilience and self-efficacy.

The design of the study employed an experience sampling method. Participants were employees who are in guest-facing positions from food & beverage and front office departments in full-service or luxury hotels in the United States. Sixty-five participants completed a one-time baseline survey and a daily diary study twice per day for at least five working days, resulting in a total of 416 day-level observations. The data structure is day nested within each person. The multi-level data was analyzed by using multilevel linear modeling.

In summary, this study shows that SWB and turnover intention may not always be stable phenomena among hotel employees due to the daily influences of job demands and job resources. In addition, both personal resources and daily job resources were found to mitigate the negative daily influences of job demands. This study helps managers to better understand employees' feelings on a daily basis and apply strategies for daily management of employee SWB and turnover intention.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Employee well-being and turnover intention are two important issues related to the hospitality industry (Akgunduz & Bardakoglu, 2017; Dai, Zhuang, & Huan, 2019; Gordon, Tang, Day, & Adler, 2019; Lee, Choo, & Hyun, 2016; O'Neill & Davis, 2011). Though the two phenomena have been studied in the cross-sectional designed studies, they have long been treated as stable instead of constructs that may fluctuate or vary over time. Understanding the differences between between-person and within-person variances regarding these two constructs is critical from both theoretical and practical perspectives. Sonnentag (2015) argued that well-being is a dynamic concept that can change over months or years, but can also fluctuate within hours, days, and weeks. As a dynamic concept, well-being can be interpreted from two aspects: intraindividual change and intraindividual variability. Intraindividual change refers to “more or less enduring changes that are construed as developmental” and intraindividual variability refers to “relatively short-term changes that are construed as more or less reversible and that occur more rapidly than the intraindividual changes” (Nesselroade, 1991, p.215). Intraindividual variability can be captured by analyzing short-term within-person variability and focuses on individuals’ momentary emotional and behavioral change over time (Ram & Gerstorf, 2009). Intraindividual change can be captured by using a between-person approach (e.g., one-time data collection) and a within-person approach (e.g., longitudinal designed study) as the variables of interests are assumed to be relatively stable over time (Ram & Gerstorf, 2009; Sonnetag, 2015). The intraindividual changes of well-being in the hotel literature have been mostly studied by using a between-person approach (e.g., one-time data collection). For example, Lee, Choo, and Hyun (2016) collected data from luxury hotel employees at one time and examined the

relationships among recovery experience, occupational well-being, and subjective well-being. Xu et al. (2017) collected data from frontline hotel employees and identified that employee self-instability and pessimism have an impact on employees' well-being related outcomes, such as emotional exhaustion. Although the between-person approach contributes to understanding the antecedents or outcomes of well-being, it may not be able to capture the short-term well-being changes that employees experience as they respond to various environmental influences. Due to the fact that front-line service employees experience frequent change of work events (e.g., dealing with different guest issues) and high variability of job demands (Chiang, Birtch, & Cai, 2014), hotel employees' well-being is more likely to change in the short-term. To study the short-term aspect of intraindividual variability of employees' well-being, a within-person approach is needed to capture the momentary variability of well-being as suggested by Sonnentag (2015).

Besides well-being, studying intention to stay is critical because it is theorized to lead to the actual turnover behavior (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Turnover is an important topic in the hotel industry because this industry experiences an extremely high turnover rate (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000). The turnover rate in the hotel industry ranges from 60% and 300% for the hotels in the United States (Jones, 2008). Turnover intention has also mostly been studied by using a between-person approach and measured at one time point. The changing nature or the fluctuation of turnover intention has largely been ignored. Few studies have used a longitudinal design to study the intraindividual change (long-term change) in turnover intention and the influence on actual turnover behavior. For example, Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Glomb, and Ahlburg (2005) conducted a longitudinal study for five rounds among employees who are in white-collar occupations. The survey in the first round was sent to job newcomers only. There was a four

week time interval between each time round. The researchers studied three contextual factors that are related to the turnover, including perceived external alternatives, perceived internal alternatives, and perceived costs of job change. The intraclass correlation coefficient scores for the three variables indicate that each person's value on the variables is not stable over time. Thirty-nine percent of the variance in perceived external alternatives was attributable to within-person variability. Fifty-two percent of the variance in perceived internal alternatives was attributable to within-person variance. There was a total of 39% within-person variability in perceived cost of turnover. As Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2005) stated, most of the previous studies on employee turnover used retrospective analysis, which asks leavers to recall the critical events that made them quit and which can cause recall biases. Although their study applied a 5-timepoint longitudinal design and had participants report every four months the critical events over the last 20 months, it may only reflect the long-term changing nature within turnover intention and not the short-term fluctuation in the turnover intention. For future studies, they recommended using an alternative measurement of critical events because the frequency of critical events may differ depending on the industry. Therefore, this study proposes to use a daily diary approach to measure the relationship between work characteristics, well-being, and turnover intention to better capture hotel employees' immediate reactions regarding their thoughts about work.

Job characteristics, including job demands and job resources, have been shown to have an influential impact on organizational-related outcomes, such as employee well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and turnover intention (Knudsen, Ducharme, & Roman, 2009). According to the job demands-resources model (The JD-R model) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), job demands and job resources influence job performance through work engagement and burnout. Work

engagement and burnout are two concepts that can be linked to employees' well-being (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014). Research has shown that employees who experience high burnout report more psychological and physical health problems, which is an indication of lower well-being (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Some studies have linked work engagement to the factors related to well-being, such as positive emotions (Schaufeli & Van Rhenen, 2006) and good health (Demerouti, Bakker, De Jonge, Janssen, & Schaufeli, 2001). Job demands and resources can interactively influence both work engagement and burnout (Bakker et al., 2014). For example, for employees who experience high role stress (a type of job demand), receiving social support from their co-workers could mitigate the influence of that high job demand on their well-being.

The inclusion of personal-resources or individual differences is an extension of the JD-R model (Bakker et al., 2014). Offering necessary job resources to employees is important to improve their subjective well-being (SWB) and reduce turnover intention. Because of the nature of jobs in the hotel industry, employees are expected to engage with guests through frequent face-to-face communication (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009) and resolve guest challenges. Therefore, the job tasks can also vary considerably even on a daily basis depending on the guest issues. Studies that have been done in this area have focused on making the between-person comparisons, which may not capture hotel employees' SWB and turnover intention dynamism. Given that hotel employees work with different supervisors and co-workers and face various guest situations during each shift, these employees may face high work stress, high workload, and role conflict. Therefore, SWB and turnover intention can be influenced not only by each day's interactions with guests and colleagues, but also by individuals' personal resources (e.g., how quickly people can bounce back from the negative pressure). An integrated model that

considers both day level and person level influence is needed to study the role of job demands, job resources, and individual differences on hotel employees' SWB and turnover dynamism.

1.2 Statement of Problem

Although the traditional between-person approach provided important insights in understanding employee well-being and turnover intention, it assumes that key variables remain stable over time, missing the potentially changing nature of well-being and turnover intention. Employing a daily diary study is necessary to capture the fluctuation of job demands and resources and their impact on subjective well-being (SWB) and turnover intention. Using the JD-R model to understand hotel employees' short-term variability of SWB and turnover intention is appropriate because the hotel industry has unique characteristics of lower wages, longer working hours, heavy workloads, and instabilities (Akgunduz & Bardakoglu, 2017). Therefore, the balance between job demands and resources may be a more serious issue faced by employees in the service industry (De Ruyter, Wetzels, & Kleijnen, 2001). Furthermore, employees in this industry are often requested to perform non-routine tasks, for example, dealing with an unexpected guest issue, working in under-staffed situations due to employees not coming to work or high turnover, etc. Therefore, their work is highly associated with high job demand variability (Chiang et al., 2014). In order to better address the impact of variability in job demands, job resources, SWB, and turnover intention, this study measures these constructs on a daily basis and proposes strategies for hotel managers.

1.3 Research Purpose and Objectives

An integrated theoretical framework that combines state-like and trait-like capacities is proposed to study the impact of individual attributes and organizational attributes on SWB and turnover intention. This study draws upon the JD-R model, Affective Events Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cronzapano, 1996), and the unfolding model of turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) to explain the changing nature of hotel employees' job characteristics, SWB, and turnover intention. The purpose of this study is to investigate the dynamic nature of SWB and turnover intention among employees in the hotel industry and to understand the impact of daily hotel job demands/job resources on employees' SWB and turnover intention. There are four research objectives:

- To examine the impact of daily job demands on hotel employees' momentary SWB and turnover intention.
- To explore how individual differences influence the relationship between daily job demands and the organizational outcomes, including SWB and turnover intention.
- To determine the impact of daily job resources on hotel employees' momentary SWB and turnover intention.
- To study the moderating effects of daily job resources on the relationship between daily job demands and the organizational outcomes, including SWB and turnover intention.

1.4 Overview of the Model

A theoretical conceptual model is introduced to reflect the variables and the relationships that are studied (See Figure 1). The conceptual model shows the relationships in day-level, person-level, and cross-level. The JD-R model is used to explain the relationships among job demands, job resources, personal resources, SWB, and turnover intention. Due to the guest-

facing nature of service employees' work, it is more likely for the employees to experience different types of guests issues. Based on AET (Weiss & Cronzapano, 1996), guest issues can be defined as a type of work event. In this study, AET is used to explain the short-term variability in SWB. The concept of "work events" in AET and the concept of "shocks to the system" in the unfolding model of turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) are used to explain the short-term variability in turnover intention.

In this study, emotional dissonance, hindrance stressors, and challenge stressors are used to represent job demands. Supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy are used to represent job resources. Self-efficacy and resilience are two personal resources and are relatively stable. In the literature review, the importance and the relevance of these variables to hotel employees are discussed. The relevant theories and the rationale of building each hypothesis are presented.

Person-Level

Day-Level

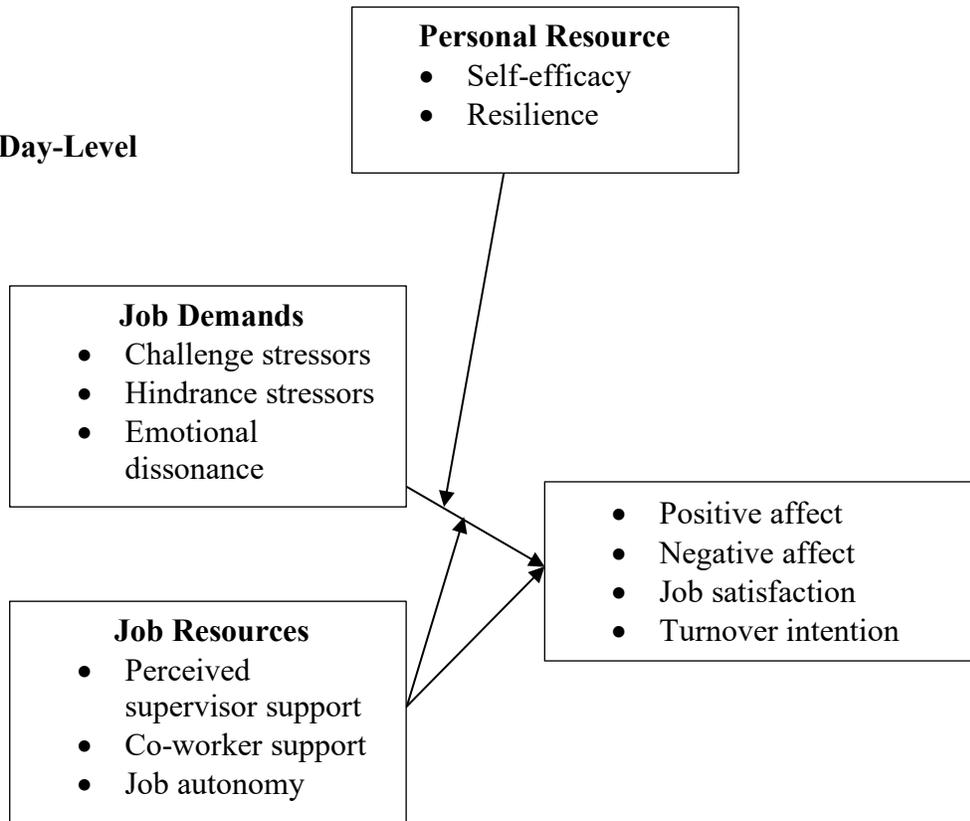


Figure 1. Proposed Conceptual Model

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study helps to address the calls for future research regarding well-being dynamism. For example, Sonnentag (2015) called for future studies to pay more attention to individual differences in well-being variability. Bakker et al. (2014) mentioned that well-being is usually perceived as trait-like experiences, but a within-person view is needed to examine the situational predictors of well-being.

Secondly, to the researcher's knowledge, turnover intention has not been studied in a daily context. Considering the dynamic work nature of the hotel industry, it is likely that individual employees may experience different levels of turnover intention on a daily basis. By

using the AET and the unfolding model of turnover, this study will provide evidence that the turnover intention may not always be a stable phenomenon among hotel employees.

Thirdly, this study treats hotel job demands/resources, SWB, and turnover intention as a time-varying state instead of a trait. Based on previous literature, timing issues have not been considered in studies related to hotel employees. Duration and rate as timing issues reflect a construct's change over time and the length of time that a construct lasts in a steady state (Shipp & Cole, 2015). Based on the job characteristics of most of the jobs in the hotel industry, the job demands and job resources are more likely to be different on a daily basis because the supervisors/co-workers with whom employees work are different and the guests with whom employees deal are different. This study will contribute to the methodology in the area of hotel employees by using the experience sampling method to study the dynamism of SWB and turnover intention. It also fills the call for future studies to focus on timing issues, such as duration and time lags, in almost every area of research (Shipp & Cole, 2015).

Fourthly, if the daily job demands, job resources, and the interaction between daily job demands and resources are shown to influence hotel employees' daily SWB and turnover intention, top management of the hotels could take actions to establish a work environment that better balances job demands and resources on a daily basis. Furthermore, the results will reveal which job demands and resources have a more significant impact on hotel employees. It will give a hotel management team information about which ones they need to prioritize in their daily employee well-being management. The HR practices regarding performance evaluations can be tailored for a daily, weekly, or monthly use for the managers.

Lastly, practitioners typically measure employee engagement and/or job satisfaction once per year in the hotel industry. Using a static way to measure predictors may not be able to

capture the dynamic nature of those predictors and may ignore the changes that can occur between measurement periods. The work setting in the hotel is quite dynamic with job demands and job resources most likely to fluctuate on a daily basis. This study would help managers to better understand employees' feelings on a daily basis. Some tools or apps, such as pulse surveys, have been developed to help give immediate insights into the health of company's workforce, but these tools have not been widely used in the hotel industry.

1.6 Full-Service Hotels as the Study Setting

For the purpose of this study, hourly employees who are in guest-facing positions in food & beverage department and front office department in full-service hotels were surveyed. According to the definition offered by Smith Travel Research (2020), a full-service hotel is defined as upscale and luxury properties with various amenities, such as food & beverage, catering & conference services, gym, and spa. Examples of full-service hotels are Westin, Sheraton, Marriott, Hyatt Regency, etc. Examples of luxury hotels are Four Seasons, Ritz-Carlton, Fairmont, JW Marriott, InterContinental, Grand Hyatt, etc. The job demands and job resources of employees who are in guest-facing positions in operational departments may fluctuate more frequently than employees from non-operational departments. For example, the work schedules of employees who are in operational departments typically vary daily depending on the hotel occupancy rate or each department's demand where non-operational departments, such as human resources, finance, sales & marketing, etc., may have the same staffing levels regardless of business volume. Therefore, it is possible that operational department employees may work with different supervisors and coworkers on each shift. Due to the nature of service work, their job demands may vary depending on the guests they are dealing with every day. As job demands may vary depending on the level of hotel, only employees from full-service upscale

hotels and luxury hotels were recruited for this study. Participants with multiple jobs, meaning that they also work for a second company besides the hotel, were excluded.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Subjective Well-being

2.1.1 Overview of Subjective Well-being

Subjective well-being (SWB) is a term with diverse meanings. The studies on SWB cover many aspects, such as happiness, satisfaction, and positive affect (Diener, 1984). Diener (1984) summarized that there are three categories under the definition of SWB. The first category is labelled with virtue or holiness because happiness is thought to be a desirable quality or can be defined as success. He explained that this category of SWB is not an individual's subjective framework, but a framework that leads individuals to form their concept of SWB. The second category of SWB has been associated with life satisfaction. It relies on how an individual determines the criteria of a good life. The third category of SWB reflects every day's positive affect and negative affect. Furthermore, Diener (1984) explained that SWB has three important characteristics. Firstly, it is subjective. Therefore, it is based on the unique experience of the individual. Secondly, it reflects an individual's positive aspect of his/her life, not just the absence of the negative part. Thirdly, consistent with the second category of SWB's definition, it is associated with all the aspects in someone's life. Therefore, the domain satisfaction, such as job satisfaction, financial satisfaction, and family satisfaction, are also parts of SWB.

Integrating the meaning of SWB from the previous studies, Diener, Suh, Lucas, and Smith(1999) defined SWB as “a general area of scientific interest rather than a single specific construct” (Diener et al., 1999, p. 277). As a multi-aspect concept, SWB includes pleasant affect, unpleasant affect, life satisfaction, and domain satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999). The following section explains affect, life satisfaction, and job satisfaction respectively.

2.1.2 Components of SWB

Moods and emotions together are defined as affect (Diener et al., 1999). Positive affect (PA) means good feeling and negative affect (NA) is defined as bad feeling (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Examples of PA are joy, happiness, and affection. Examples of negative affect are stress, sadness, and anxiety (Diener et al., 1999). PA is not exactly the opposite of NA (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Both PA and NA should be measured when studying SWB (Diener et al., 1999). For example, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) explained that if people are scored high in NA, it does not mean they are low in PA. It has been found that PA and NA are two separate constructs, and are not strictly orthogonal (Diener, Smith, & Fujita, 1995).

Besides affect, life satisfaction is another component that SWB scholars have studied. Life satisfaction includes desire to change life, satisfaction with current/past/future life, and significant others' views of one's life (Diener et al., 1999). Compared with other components of SWB, life satisfaction is a relatively stable concept. Life satisfaction is a cognitive and judgmental process. It depends on a comparison between individuals' current circumstances and the expectations regarding what is thought to be (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). It is an important component of SWB because individuals have their own criteria to judge life satisfaction. The judgement is based on the criteria each person sets for himself/herself, and not imposed by external factors (Diener et al., 1985).

Domain satisfactions include satisfactions toward work, family, leisure, health, finances, self, and one's group (Diener et al., 1999). Because this study focuses on SWB at the workplace, job satisfaction is used to represent domain satisfaction. Job satisfaction is the most studied component of work-related SWB (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011). Different from affect, job satisfaction is an attitude (Weiss, 2002). Job satisfaction is defined as "a positive (or negative) evaluative judgement one makes about one's job or job situation" (Weiss, 2002, p. 175).

Therefore, job satisfaction is an overall attitude about the favorability of a job (Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017). Dalal (2012) summarized that the antecedents of job satisfaction could be understood by using the Cornell model (Hulin, 1991), Comparison-level model (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), Value-percept model (Locke, 1976), Person-environment fit model (Kristof, 1996), Job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), and Affective Events Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The Cornell model is based on Adams's (1965) equity theory, emphasizing the influences of work-role inputs (e.g., time, effort, training) and work-role outcomes (e.g., compensation, working conditions). The Cornell model contributes to the job satisfaction literature by arguing that both inputs and outcomes influence job satisfaction depending on employees' reference of comparison (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985). For example, from the inputs perspective, if an employee works 50 hours per week and the rest of the employees in his department work an average of 60 hours per week, the employee may not view it as a dissatisfaction after comparing with other employees because others work more hours than he does. The Comparison-level model focuses on the comparison between someone's previous job and current job. A worse comparison outcome will bring job dissatisfaction (Dalal, 2012). According to the Value-percept model (Locke, 1976), the discrepancy between what people expect and what they actually have causes the job dissatisfaction. When explaining job satisfaction, the person-environment fit model is similar to the Value-percept model because it also focuses on the discrepancy. The Job characteristics model states that job characteristics, including skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback serve as the factors that influence job satisfaction (Dalal, 2012). All of the theories that have been discussed so far mainly emphasize the cognitive part of job satisfaction, ignoring the affective part of job satisfaction. To rectify the imbalance, Weiss and

Cropanzano (1996) proposed AET. AET argues that because of the affective components in job satisfaction, job satisfaction should be treated as a construct which can vary on a frequent basis. In the following section, AET is used to explain the short-term changing nature in PA, NA, and job satisfaction.

2.1.3 Variability of SWB

Individuals may experience job stressors, job resources, work-home interface, etc., and the changing nature of these factors may cause a fluctuation of well-being. Therefore, Sonnentag (2015) argues that well-being can vary within shorter time periods, such as weeks, days, and even hours. Some studies have provided evidence to show the fluctuation of SWB. For example, Ilies and Judge's (2002) 19-workday (27 employees) daily diary study found that a total of 36% of the differences in the rating of job satisfaction was caused by within-person variability. Dimotakis et al. (2011) conducted a two-week diary study with 60 employees showed 42% of the variance in PA is attributable to within-person variation and 27% of the variance in NA is attributable to within-person variation. Sonnentag, Binnewies, and Mojza (2008) found that morning affect differed significantly within persons. A total of 46.7% of the total variance of PA was within-person and 84.3% of the total variance of NA was contributed by within-person variations. These studies highlighted the importance of considering the within-person variability in studying the components of SWB.

Affective reactions will be influenced by various work events that are triggered by work environment features, causing different work attitudes and affect driven behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Based on AET, time is a critical parameter when examining affect and satisfaction. This feature distinguishes AET from other traditional theories, such as cognitive judgement approach and social influences approach. According to the traditional models,

satisfaction can influence performance, turnover, absenteeism, and organizational citizenship directly. AET adds the potential influence of affective events and states that affective reactions can influence judgement driven behaviors through affect driven behaviors and work attitudes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Ignoring “time” factors when studying affect and job satisfaction assumes the effects of environmental features are relatively stable (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Additionally, AET focuses on the “structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work” (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p.11). It considers that affective experiences may influence the process between features of work environment and judgement process while traditional satisfaction theories only focus on the process itself between work environment features and the judgement process, ignoring the role of individuals’ affective reactions. AET considers that people are not only influenced by the features of the work environment, but also influenced by things happening in the work settings. Work events cause different affective reactions and result in different judgement process (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). It was found that the correlations between PA and NA differ significantly depending on the time period (Diener & Emmons, 1984). A mood state cannot reflect mood traits. Diener and Emmons (1984) checked both between-person correlations and within-person correlations between PA and NA. The results of participants’ trait PA/NA and momentary PA/NA were different. The negative correlations between PA and NA decrease as the time periods increase. Therefore, the shorter the time period, the stronger the negative relationship between the two affects. The results demonstrated that it is hard for people to experience both PA and NA at the same moment and highlighted the importance of considering time when studying PA and NA.

Job satisfaction, as an attitude, has both affective and cognitive components (Dalal, 2012). As AET explained, affect can be momentary and emotional. Momentary affect can

influence cognitive evaluations of work events (Ilies & Judge, 2002). Job satisfaction can also be viewed as an emotional state which comprises both individual affective response to the work situation and job affect from the cognitive evaluations of this situation (Ilies & Judge, 2002). The positive affective states increase the tendency that people make positive evaluations about their jobs. In contrast, the negative affective states increase the possibilities of making negative assessments (Ilies & Judge, 2002). Therefore, job satisfaction can be momentary.

As a daily diary study, this study does not focus on life satisfaction because it is a relatively stable construct. For example, a study analyzed longitudinal annual panel data of 17 years and found that there is modest stability in life satisfaction over the long periods of time (Fujita & Diener, 2005). Although they found that approximately 9% of the respondents changed at least three scales in terms of their life satisfaction rating, and there are some degrees of instabilities, the instabilities are still yearly based. Although the three components of SWB have been studied in the hotel employee literature, existing studies have treated SWB as a stable phenomenon and measured it only at one time. The following section summarizes some of the findings from the hotel employees' well-being studies.

2.1.4 SWB in the Hotel Industry

Well-being in the hospitality context has been examined from many aspects, such as stress management (Min, Kim, & Lee, 2015; O'Neill & Davis, 2011), recovery experience (Lee et al., 2016), work-family interface (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008a), emotional labor (Karatepe, 2011), and burnout (Karatepe, 2011). Employee work stress and well-being are significant issues in the hospitality industry (Gordon & Adler, 2017; O'Neill & Davis, 2011). Work stress has the potential to influence both hourly paid staff and senior management staff in this industry (Ross, 1995). Interpersonal tensions and work overloads are the two most common stressors that

influence hotel employees' well-being (O'Neill & Davis, 2011). O'Neill and Davis (2011) interviewed hotel employees (98 managers and 66 hourly employees) for eight consecutive days and found that participants reported stress on 40% to 62% of the days. They suggest that reporting higher physical symptoms, such as headaches and dizziness, at work may indicate a relatively higher stress among employees and it will increase the employee health care costs. Their study revealed that although both managers and hourly employees experience high stress and have a lower well-being, the situation is much worse for managers because they have more responsibilities. In their study, managers reported an average of 57 working hours per week and hourly employees reported an average of 36 hours per week, indicating that managerial well-being is more of a concern for the hotel industry. Lee et al. (2016) showed that the stressful working environment and situation might drive employees to actively pursue recovery during off-days. They found that hotel employees' recovery experience, including psychological detachment, relaxation, mastery experiences, and control, influence their career satisfaction and life satisfaction. Karatepe (2011) looked at the role of emotional labor in well-being and found that experiencing emotional dissonance has a positive relationship with burnout.

Regarding each specific component of SWB, between-person studies conducted in the hotel industry showed the importance of all three factors. For example, Yang (2010) found that hotel employees' job satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intention through commitment and absenteeism. Also, a recent review paper (Kong, Jiang, Chan, & Zhou, 2018) summarized the outcomes of job satisfaction in the context of hospitality and tourism from 143 refereed papers that were published from 1984 to 2017 in some of the top hospitality journals. They found that the top two individual influencing factors of job satisfaction in the hospitality field include skills (e.g., skill variety, creativity, professional competence, ability, etc.) and demographics. The

top four organizational influencing factors of job satisfaction are training, salary, work environment (e.g., working conditions), and management style (e.g., supervision, recognition, feedback, etc.). Regarding outcomes, they found that turnover (e.g., turnover intention, exit planning) and organizational commitment are the two that have been extensively reported. Other important outcomes include job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and service behaviors/quality.

Gordon et al. (2019) found that affect mediates the relationship between perceived supervisor support and turnover intention. PA and NA have been shown to have influences on employees' turnover intention through family-work conflict and marital satisfaction (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008a). In addition, Chu, Baker, and Murrmann (2012) examined the role of affect under the context of emotional labor. They found that positive affect is negatively related to emotive dissonance and emotive effort. Negative affect is positively associated with the emotive effort.

Most of the above studies used a between-person approach to either explore the antecedents or the outcomes of well-being. O'Neil and Davis (2011) applied a within-person approach by interviewing hotel employees for eight days. The purpose of the study was to identify the most common stressors for hotel employees and explore the stressor difference based on positions, gender, and marital status. The design of the study is more of a within-person approach, but the research objective focuses more on the between-person comparison. Therefore, there is still a necessity to design a study to explore the dynamic nature of hotel employees' SWB.

In addition to arguing the short-term changing nature in hotel employees' SWB, this study also propose that the turnover intention can fluctuate in a shorter period of time. The

following sections focus on explaining the concept of turnover intention and using AET and the unfolding model of turnover to argue its variability.

2.2 Turnover Intention

2.2.1 Defining Turnover Intention

The study of turnover intention can be traced back to Mobley's (1977) turnover decision process model. Mobley's (1977) model states that job dissatisfaction may lead employees to think about quitting the organization. Thinking of quitting leads employees to evaluate the expected utility and the cost of quitting. If the cost of quitting is not high, employees may consider searching for a new job. If the comparison favors the new job option, it will stimulate employees to make the decision to quit the current organization. Turnover intention occurs between the time when employees make the comparison and make the final decision. It is defined as "a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p.262). Lee and Mitchell (1994) commented on Mobley's (1977) model that the contribution of this model is to consider the psychological process between the evaluation of the existing job and the turnover decision. According to Wanous (1978), there are two types of turnover, including voluntary turnover and involuntary turnover. Voluntary turnover involves employees who voluntarily leave the organization. Involuntary turnover means that organizations end the employee-employer relationship. The high turnover rate in the hotel industry is primarily caused by voluntary turnover (Pizam & Thornburg, 2000). Therefore, it is more important to reduce employees' turnover intention.

Yang, Wan, and Fu (2012) found five factors which contribute to the high turnover rate in the hotel industry: company factors, compensation and promotion, personal emotions, the nature of the hotel industry, and work contents. There are many sub-factors under each factor.

For example, management support and working environment under the company factors are related to job demands and job resources. Jang and George (2012) found that polychronicity is a unique factor that influences hotel employees' turnover intention. Polychronicity refers to the extent that employees prefer to do multiple tasks in the same time period. Working in the hotel industry requires employees to be able to deal with different tasks at the same time. For example, a restaurant host may answer the phone and direct the guests to the table simultaneously. A restaurant server may switch back and forth among the following tasks: taking the order, serving the food, checking the satisfaction, dealing with guest issues, and cleaning the table. Employees with polychronicity orientation who feel comfortable in the above situations are less likely to have a high turnover intention (Jang & George, 2012). Hwang, Lee, Park, Chang, and Kim (2014) found that occupational stress has a detrimental influence on luxury hotel employees' personal lives, such as well-being related problems and depression, which possibly increase turnover intention. They summarized that there are six distinguished factors of occupational stress that can impact hotel employees' turnover intention. They are: family related issues, pay related issues, conflicts with job responsibilities, unfair treatment, a shortage of support, and organizational culture. Based on their finding, many factors are related to job demands and job resources. For example, hotel employees may receive conflicting job demands which require them to work on multiple job tasks simultaneously, but they may not receive adequate support from their supervisors or coworkers to do so.

The existing studies on turnover intention, including the studies in the field of hospitality, mainly used the between-person approach. Although there are few studies which applied a longitudinal approach to study the changing nature of turnover intention (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005), the longitudinal design

may only capture the intraindividual change (long-term change) of turnover intention, but not the intraindividual variability (short-term change) of turnover intention. Therefore, AET and the unfolding model of turnover intention are introduced in the next section to explain the intraindividual variability of turnover intention among hotel employees.

2.2.2 The Fluctuation of Turnover Intention in the Hotel Industry

The fluctuation of turnover intention can be explained by using the unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) and AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The unfolding model of turnover includes “shocks to the system” and the psychological processes that are involved in the decision making (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). A shock to the system is defined as “a very distinguishable event that jars employees toward deliberate judgments about their jobs and, perhaps, to voluntarily quit their job” (Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p. 60). Shocks can be positive, neutral, or negative (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Lee and Mitchell (1994) suggested that there are three categories of shocks, including personal events that are related to non-work domain, personal events that are related to work domain, and organizational events. Personal events that are related to non-work domain could be any non-work related events, such as winning a lottery or having a new family member. Examples of work-related personal events for operational employees in the hotel industry are: dealing with guest issues, receiving good or bad comments from guests, having an argument with supervisor, receiving help from coworkers, etc. Examples of organizational events are downsizing or a change in the management company, among others. Based on AET (Weiss & Cropazano, 1996), a shock can be defined as a work event, which triggers the attitudes through individuals’ affective reactions. Turnover intention is one type of work attitude as it has the cognitive component (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). As this study focuses on the relationship between job characteristics (e.g., job

demands and job resources) and turnover intention, work-related personal events are mainly discussed.

Although the concept of “shocks to the system” contributes to the turnover literature, the frequency of receiving shocks has not been explored. Based on AET (Weiss & Cropazano, 1996), the changing of work events will influence individuals’ affect driven behaviors. The service industry expects operational employees to have frequent face-to-face interactions with guests (Zapf & Holz, 2006). The work events may vary depending on the guests whom employees deal with during each work shift. Therefore, it is likely for employees who work in operational departments to receive shocks more frequently. Lee and Mitchell (1994) also argued that shocks can be expected or unexpected. Shocks in the hotel industry can be expected because having to deal with guest issues is part of the job demands for most of service workers. Shocks can also be unexpected (random events) as the work events cannot be predicted. For example, it cannot be predicted that whether a front office agent will deal with nice guests or demanding guest on a certain day or that a co-worker will not show up requiring the employee to work overtime. In addition, random or unexpected events at work can cause conflicts between work and life domains (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Due to the unpredictable nature of shocks at the hotel workplace, the turnover intention may vary depending if employees perceive the shocks more as a positive event or negative event in each work shift.

In the next section, the JD-R model as an overall theoretical framework is introduced. The JD-R model serves as a foundation to explain the influences of job demands and job resources on SWB and turnover intention.

2.3 The JD-R Model

2.3.1 The Development of the JD-R model

The development of Job demands-resources model (the JD-R model) can be traced back to the Job demands-control model (the JD-C model) (Karasek Jr, 1979). According to the JD-C model, job demands are the stressors from the work and job control is labeled as job decision latitude. Job control is defined as “the working individual’s potential control over his tasks and his conduct during the working day.” (Karasek Jr, 1979, pp. 289-290). The essence of the JD-C model is to argue that the combination of high job demands and low job control leads to job strain. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) argued that the JD-C model has its limitation because it lies on the assumption that employees can decide how to meet job demands without experiencing job strains. They explained that although some empirical findings showed that job control moderates the negative influences of job demands on well-being, the results are not consistent. For example, in Van der Doef and Maes’s (1999) review article regarding the relationship between the JD-C model and well-being, they firstly summarized that there are two hypotheses of the JD-C model. One is the strain hypothesis: employees who are under high job demands and low job control situation experience the lowest well-being. The second one is the buffer hypothesis that states the moderating role of job control between job demands and well-being. By examining 63 related articles that were published between 1979 and 1997, they found that the strain hypothesis received more consistent support than the buffer hypothesis in the areas of psychological well-being and job-related well-being. The results suggest that job control may only partly buffer the influence of high job demands on employees’ well-being and it may not be relevant for all job positions.

Compared to the JD-C model, the JD-R model is applicable to the universe of job positions because job resources represent a broader category of the positive resources in the

organizational environment than job control does (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, De Jonge, et al., 2001). The JD-R model expands to a broader category based on the foundation of the JD-C model. This theory can be also tailored to a specific occupation in a specific industry (Bakker et al., 2014).

The first key assumption of the JD-R model is every occupation has its unique risk factors that are related to the job stress and the factors can be classified into two broader categories, including job demands and job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands can be defined as the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require employees to put in continuous effort (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003). Job resources can be defined as the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that have the functions of reducing job demands, stimulating personal learning and development, and helping to achieve work goals (Bakker et al., 2003). Examples of job demands include workload, shift work, physical work environment, emotional demands, physical demands, and work-home interference (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). Job resources can be offered at different levels, including the organizational level, interpersonal level, work level, and task level (Bakker et al., 2003). Examples of job resources include compensation, job security, supervisor and co-worker support, role clarity, performance feedback, autonomy, organizational climate, innovativeness, appreciation, and job control (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker et al., 2005; Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, et al., 2001). Job resources are not only important to reduce the job demands, but also important for the protection and maintenance of individuals' own resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

The second assumption of the JD-R model is that there are two different psychological processes, including the health impairment process and the motivational process. Both job demands and job resources influence employment-related outcomes, such as employees health problems and involvement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to the health impairment process, poorly designed jobs with extremely high demands exhaust employees' mental and physical resources, leading to strain and negative organizational outcomes, such as exhaustion and cynicism (Bakker et al., 2005). Based on the motivational process, the model assumes that job resources have the motivational function which can increase employees' affective commitment and work dedication (Bakker et al., 2003).

2.3.2 The Application of the JD-R model in the Hotel Industry

The JD-R model has also been applied in studies that were conducted in the hotel industry. Examples of job resources in the hotel industry are coworker support, supervisory support, training, empowerment, rewards, and job autonomy (Babakus, Yavas, & Karatepe, 2008; Karatepe, 2011; Karatepe, Keshavarz, & Nejati, 2010; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009). Examples of job demands are work overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, emotional dissonance, customer incivility, challenge stressors, and hindrance stressors (Babakus et al., 2008; Karatepe, 2011, 2013; Min et al., 2015).

There are also studies which adopted part of the model, using either the health impairment process or the motivational process. For example, Karatepe (2013) drew upon the health impairment process assumption in the JD-R model and found that work overload negatively influences job embeddedness and job performance through emotional exhaustion among hotel frontline employees. Another study (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009) focused on the motivational process of the JD-R model and focused on exploring the relationship among

supervisory support, personal resources (self-efficacy and trait competitiveness), and work engagement. Contrary to the motivational process assumption of the JD-R model, the study found there was no significant relationship between supervisory support and work engagement. Besides the small sample size ($N=130$), the authors mentioned that they treated both job resource and two personal resources as independent variables in the model, which possibly attenuate the effects of supervisory support on employees' work engagement. Karatepe et al. (2010) also focused on the motivational process and found that coworker support positively influences vigor and dedication.

Besides testing the whole model and testing part of the JD-R model, there is also a study which used the JD-R model as a theoretical foundation to argue that psychological capital (self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience) is positively associated with work engagement (Karatepe, Beirami, Bouzari, & Safavi, 2014). Their arguments are based on the idea that personal resources also contribute to job resources. For example, a resilient person may have the ability to control and manage his/her surroundings at work successfully. The extension of the JD-R model proposes that there is also a mutual relationship between job resources and personal resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Based on above review of the literature in the hotel context, it can be summarized that the studies which applied the JD-R model have three streams: (1) using the whole JD-R model; (2) using either the motivational process assumption or the health impairment assumption; and (3) using the JD-R model as a foundation to argue the relationship between personal resources and work-related outcomes. To the author's knowledge, none of the above streams looked at the interactions between job demands and job resources in the hotel industry.

Based on the review of the previous JD-R studies and those that have been applied in the hospitality industry, this study uses perceived supervisor support, co-worker support, and job autonomy to represent job resources. Challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, and emotional dissonance are used to represent job demands. In the following sections, the importance of the selected job demands and job resources in the hotel industry is discussed and the related hypotheses are proposed.

2.4 Job Demands

2.4.1 Defining Work Stressors

Work stressors can be considered as job demands (LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005). Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, and Boudreau (2000) summarized that the findings regarding the relationship between work stress and work-related outcomes are not consistent throughout the literature. For example, they mentioned that some studies found that there is a negative relationship between managers' self-reported work stress and work outcomes. However, there are also studies which found that the negative relationship is modest or does not exist. Giving attention to the inconsistent findings of the relationship between stress and work-related outcomes, Cavanaugh et al. (2000) proposed that it is possible some of the self-report stressors are associated with positive work outcomes and some are related to negative work outcomes. Therefore, they categorized stressors into challenge stressors and hindrance stressors. Based on the review of the literature regarding job demands, Cavanaugh et al. (2000) defined challenge stressors as the challenging job demands that can produce opportunities for personal development although they may be stressful. Examples of challenge stressors are high workload, time pressure, responsibility, and scope of the work. Hindrance stressors are defined as those job demands which involve undesirable constraints that hinder individuals' abilities to achieve their

goals. Examples of hindrance stressors include job security, role ambiguity, role conflict, and organizational politics (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Cavanaugh et al. (2000) found that both challenge stressors and hindrance stressors are related to work-related outcomes but with opposite directions. For example, challenge-related stressors are found to be positively related to job satisfaction and hindrance-related stressors are negatively associated with job satisfaction.

Overall, previous between-person studies, meta-analysis studies (LePine et al., 2005; Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007), and a within-person study (Tadić, Bakker, & Oerlemans, 2015) have confirmed the results from Cavanaugh et al.'s (2000) study. For example, LePine et al. (2005) found that challenge stressors are positively associated with motivation and performance and hindrance stressors are negatively related to these two outcomes. Additionally, the meta-analysis conducted by Podsakoff et al. (2007) found that both hindrance and challenge stressors are positively associated with strain. But hindrance stressors are negatively associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment while challenge stressors are the opposite. Furthermore, hindrance stressors are positively associated with turnover intention and turnover, while challenge stressors have the opposite influence.

2.4.2 Work Stressors in the Hotel Industry

Studying stressors is important for the hospitality industry because of the stressful and demanding situations in the service industry. Considering the nature of the hotel industry (labor intensive and constant request face-to-face contact), employees may endure more stressful situations than those who work in other industries (Faulkner & Patiar, 1997). Babakus et al. (2008) found that role conflict and role ambiguity increase hotel frontline employees' turnover intention through the effect of emotional exhaustion. Some of the jobs may have a much higher job demand. For example, for the jobs in the housekeeping department, employees are required

to push heavy trolleys, vacuum, dust, and constantly bend (Faulkner & Patiar, 1997). These tasks may be associated with work overload, time pressure, and job insecurity. For the jobs in the front office department, employees are required to constantly process check-ins and check-outs and deal with various guest issues with patience all the time (Faulkner & Patiar, 1997). These tasks could be related to work overload, time pressure, role ambiguity, and role conflict.

In the stressor studies conducted in the hotel industry, the results are not consistent regarding the relationship between challenge stressors and work engagement. A study found that challenge stressors are positively related to work engagement (Karatepe et al., 2014), whereas another study found that challenge stressors are negatively related to work engagement (Min et al., 2015). However, when considering individual differences, including self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism, Min et al. (2015) found that the relationship between challenge stressors and work engagement is negative for employees with low psychological capital, but is positive for those with high psychological capital. As Min et al. (2015) explained, it is possible that challenge stressors may be viewed more as hindrance stressors depending on individual differences and different situations. Although a stressor could be viewed primarily as either a challenge stressor or a hindrance stressor, it could also be viewed as both types of stressors depending on the role of appraisal (Webster, Beehr, & Love, 2011).

Employees in the hospitality industry experience extremely stressful situations on a daily basis because of the repetitive tasks, longer working hours, and shift work (Pienaar & Willemse, 2008). As the hospitality industry is defined as a guest-focused industry, employees in this industry experience more accentuated stressors than employees from other industries (Zohar, 1994). A previous study showed that workload, which is a type of challenge stressor, ranked as the most important stressor among both housekeeping and front office staff (Faulkner & Patiar,

1997). Therefore, it is possible that hospitality employees may treat challenge stressors more as hindrance stressors. Among the studies which found a positive relationship between challenge stressors and work engagement, the sample they used were high-level managers from the US (Cavanaugh et al., 2000) and primary school teachers (Tadić et al., 2015). These occupations are different from hospitality jobs. People who are in these positions may be more likely to view work overload and responsibilities as a challenge to stimulate personal development. On the contrary, hotel employees may view both stressors as hindrance stressors which may exhaust their energies. Therefore, this study hypothesizes:

Hypothesis 1. Within hotel employees, daily challenge stressors will (a) negatively influence PA, (b) negatively influence job satisfaction, (c) positively influence NA, and (d) positively influence turnover intention.

Hypothesis 2. Within hotel employees, daily hindrance stressors will (a) negatively influence PA, (b) negatively influence hotel employees' job satisfaction, (c) positively influence NA, (d) and positively influence turnover intention.

2.4.3 Emotional Dissonance

Showing appropriate emotions in face-to-face communication is a type of job demand for many employees in the service-related industries (Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008; Pugh et al., 2011; Zapf & Holz, 2006). Emotional labor is defined as “the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions” (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p. 987). There are four dimensions of emotional labor, including frequency of appropriate emotional display, attentiveness to required display rules, the variety of emotions

required to be expressed, and emotional dissonance (Morris & Feldman, 1996). It was found that emotional dissonance has the most negative influence on well-being (Zapf & Holz, 2006).

Emotional dissonance is defined as the discrepancy or incongruence between what is required to be displayed and what someone feels (Zapf & Holz, 2006). Humphrey, Ashforth, and Diefendorff (2015) summarized that there are two process of conceptualizing emotional dissonance. The first one is emotion-display dissonance. For example, employees may display desired emotions even when they are not in a good mood as it is not possible for service workers to always be in a good mood at work. The second one is called emotion-rule dissonance. For example, when employees are mistreated by the guests, they are still expected to show positive emotions even when they are not feeling positive because it is part of their job responsibilities. This incongruence may cause lower job satisfaction, increased burnout or health-related issues (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015).

Based on the emotional labor theory, doing surface acting is likely to lead to emotional dissonance (Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting means people just put on a fake smile or other emotional displays that are expected and these displays do not reflect their true feelings (Humphrey et al., 2015). Therefore, regulating emotions through surface acting is more likely to cause emotional dissonance and is more detrimental to well-being, such as high emotional exhaustion (Pugh, Groth, & Hennig-Thurau, 201; Grandey, 2003). Emotional dissonance reduces well-being because the incongruent feeling will crease inauthenticity and faking requires people to devote additional monitoring, which exhausts more energy and resources (Humphrey et al., 2015).

2.4.4 Emotional Dissonance in the Hotel Industry

Emotional dissonance is highly related to the hotel industry. For example, the hotel industry is associated with emotional labor, and employees encounter highly demanding guests frequently (Kim, 2008). It means that employees may display desired emotions even when they are not in a good mood as it is not possible for service workers to always be in a good mood at work. The incongruence may cause lower job satisfaction, increased burnout or health related issues (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Studies conducted in the hospitality industry showed that emotional dissonance has a positive impact on employees' turnover intention, emotional exhaustion, disengagement, and depersonalization (Karatepe, 2011; Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Zapf & Holz, 2006). Therefore, depending on the guest issues that hotel employees deal with every day, emotional dissonance is likely to influence SWB and turnover intention on a daily basis. This study proposes that:

Hypothesis 3. Within hotel employees, daily emotional dissonance will (a) negatively influence PA, (b) negatively influence job satisfaction, (c) positively influence NA, and (d) positively influence turnover intention.

2.5 Personal Resources

2.5.1 Defining Personal Resources

When using the JD-R model to explore the relationship between job demands and work related outcome, such as SWB and turnover intention, it is very critical to consider the influences of personal resources or individual differences (Bakker et al., 2014). Personal resources are defined as “aspects of the self that are generally linked to resiliency” (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003, p. 632). It has been found that many personal resources, such as self-efficacy and

self-esteem, influence well-being in a positive way. For example, Pierce, Gardner, Dunham, and Cummings (1993) found that organization-based self-esteem reduces the negative influences of job demands, such as role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload. For example, the negative relationship between role ambiguity and satisfaction is weaker for those with higher organization-based self-esteem. Makikangas and Kinnunen (2003) found that both self-esteem and optimism mitigate the negative influences of psychological work stressors. Additionally, studies in the area of positive organizational behavior (POB) summarized some important POB related capacities, which are also defined as personal resources, including confidence (being defined the same as self-efficacy), hope, optimism, and resiliency (Luthans, 2002). Furthermore, in the area of POB, a term called psychological capital was developed to represent individuals' motivational components of their inner life, including efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience (Luthans, 2002).

2.5.2 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is also called confidence (Luthans, 2002). The most accepted definition of self-efficacy is from Bandura (1982), whom defined self-efficacy as “how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations” (p.122). Self-efficacy is an individual's confidence about his or her abilities to successfully conduct a task (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Individuals with a higher self-efficacy may have more confidence to believe they can do what is necessary to be successful even under negative and uncertain situations (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Bandura and Wessels (1997) summarized four sources of self-efficacy, including be able to control the most parts of life (mastery), modeling influences, social persuasion, and building a positive mood. Have mastery experience is thought to be the most effective way to create a sense

of self-efficacy (Bandura & Wessels, 1997). The meaning of confidence within the definition of self-efficacy is a type of mastery experience because people with self-efficacy have a strong belief of they can succeed (Bandura & Wessels, 1997). Modeling influences mean that self-efficacy can be strengthened by observing from social models through the process of modeling influences. Social persuasion helps to create and enhance self-efficacy by enhancing individuals' confidence in their capabilities. The last resource is to use some ways to reduce individuals' negative mood.

Bandura and Wessels (1997) explained that there are four processes under the efficacy-activated processes. Under the cognitive processes, the stronger the individuals' perceived self-efficacy, the higher the goal they will set for themselves and the more confidence they believe they can achieve it. Under the motivational processes, self-efficacy plays an important role in generating motivations. Under the affective process, individuals with a higher perceived self-efficacy have a stronger belief that they can control the stressful situation and depressions. Overall, the first three processes focus more on self-efficacy enabling individuals to create a beneficial environment. Under the selection processes, self-efficacy is activated or reflected when individuals apply different capabilities to deal with problems depending on the situations they inherit or to undertake the responsibilities which they believe they can handle.

An examination of previous studies indicates that self-efficacy is negatively associated with psychological strain (Jex, Bliese, Buzzell, & Primeau, 2001), and positively related to job performance and job satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001). For example, Jex et al. (2001) found that self-efficacy influences the relationship between stressors (including work overload and role clarity) and strain through copying behaviors. The results indicate that having a higher self-efficacy helps to alleviate the relationship between stressors and strain for those who reported

using active coping methods (e.g., an individual may pre-plan to do the work in advance to avoid the occurrence of stressors).

According to the self-determination theory (SDT) (Ryan & Deci, 2000), well-being should not only be captured by measuring “happiness”, humans are self-motivated and experience well-being when their three basic needs been fulfilled, including the need for competence, the need for autonomy, and the need for relatedness. The one that is related to self-efficacy is the need for competence. Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang, and Rosen (2016) defined the need for competence as “the need to feel a sense of mastery over the environment and to develop new skills” (p.1198). Furthermore, Van den Broeck et al. (2016) summarized that psychological growth, internalization, and well-being are three major outcomes being examined in the studies focused on SDT. In Van den Broeck et al.’s (2016) review paper, they operationalized well-being with measures of positive affect, negative affect, life satisfaction, and some other well-being related measures (e.g., strain, burnout). Their meta-analysis showed that the need for competence is positively related to positive affect, engagement, general well-being, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. The need for competence is found to be negatively related to negative affect, strain, and burnout.

As an important personal resource, self-efficacy is probably more important for employees who work in the hotel industry because they are required to constantly deal with guest issues and display positive emotions. A previous study showed that the positive relationship between emotional job demands and emotional dissonance only existed for low-efficacious employees (Heuven, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Huisman, 2006). By using participants from the airline industry, Heuven et al. (2006) also found that the positive relationship between emotional

dissonance and emotional exhaustion and the negative relationship between emotional dissonance and work engagement only existed for those who have lower level self-efficacy.

2.5.3 Resilience

Compared with other POB capacities, such as self-efficacy and optimism, resilience in the area of POB is a relatively new capacity (Luthans, 2002). Resilience was treated as a unique or extraordinary capacity that only a few people possess. By integrating the studies of adaptive systems in human development with the studies in resilience, Masten (2001) argued that resilience is developmental. Being in a negative situation with risks is an assumption for a person to be considered as resilient (Masten, 2001). Masten's (2001) conclusion that resilience is not an extraordinary process and is developed during the period of risk and problems builds the connections between resilience and positive psychology. Based on the literature, the studies of resilience are rooted in clinical psychology and emerged in the management area. In the literature of POB, resilience is defined as "the positive psychological capacity to rebound, to 'bounce back' from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure or even positive change, progress and increased responsibility" (Luthans, 2002, p. 702). Masten (2001) stated that the occurrence of resilience requires two types of judgement. The first type of judgement addresses the risk part, which means there must be current threats or past threats that have threatened the individuals' normative development. The second type of judgement is that the developmental outcomes of resilience should be positive. Therefore, the studies of resilience lie on the assumption that the threat leads to good adaption (Masten & Reed, 2002).

Masten and Reed (2002) mentioned that good developmental outcomes of resilience include happiness and life satisfaction. Masten (2001) outlined the risk-focused model and asset-focused model to understand resilience. Stressors are examples of risk factors and risk factors are

often associated with negative outcomes (Masten & Reed, 2002). On the contrary, an asset is often related to positive outcomes. Resources, including human, social, or material capital are examples of an asset (Masten & Reed, 2002). Based on the risk-focused model and asset-focused model, when faced with risks, such as under a stressful situation, people who are more resilient focus more on utilizing assets to reduce the level of adverse impact from stressful situations. Instead of only focusing on the prevention of risks or utilizing the asset, Masten and Reed (2002) also offered a third strategy, which is called a process-focused model. It refers to building self-efficacy and utilizing the human adaptational system power to achieve positive outcomes. For example, assets may not exist in all the situations. When it is possible to predict risks, intervention efforts can be introduced to minimize the negative outcomes.

The broaden-and-build theory can be used as a framework to understand the relationship between resilience and well-being. According to the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotion (Fredrickson, 2001), “certain positive emotions – including job, interest, contentment, pride, and love – although phenomenologically distinct, all share the ability to broaden people’s momentary thought-action repertoires and build their enduring personal resources” (p. 3). The theory suggests that the ability to bounce back from negative situations may be caused by the experiences of having positive emotions (Fredrickson, 2001). Positive emotions can momentarily broaden individuals’ thought-action repertoires come to mind, and negative emotions can momentarily narrow someone’s thoughts and actions (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Over time, with repeated positive emotional experience, the broaden mindset will become a habit, which in turn, improves well-being (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). As an enduring personal resource, resilience has been found to improve physical and psychological well-being (Fredrickson, 2001).

Youssef and Luthans (2007) found that employees' resilience is positively related to job performance, job satisfaction, and work happiness.

Resilience is another important individual characteristic for employees in the hotel industry. Working in the hotel industry requires employees to constantly show positive emotions and respond to all types of guests' requests promptly. Resilience is viewed as positive bounce-back reaction to the stressful and dramatically changing situation (Luthans, 2002), such as a high volume check-in day or an upset guest. Highly resilient people showed more positive moods (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004) and can quickly return back to the baseline level of physiological state after experiencing negative emotions (Tugade, Fredrickson, & Feldman Barrett, 2004).

In summary, it is proposed that the person-level individual differences, self-efficacy and resilience, mitigate the negative influence of job demands on SWB and turnover intention. Given this, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 4. Trait (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience will moderate the relationship between daily challenge stressor and SWB & turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily challenge stressor will be mitigated for the people who are high in (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience.

Hypothesis 5. Trait (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience will moderate the relationship between daily hindrance stressor and SWB & turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily hindrance stressor will be reduced for the people who are high in (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience.

Hypothesis 6. Trait (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience will moderate the relationship between daily emotional dissonance and SWB & turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily emotional dissonance will be weaker for the people who are high in (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience.

Based on the JD-R model, job resources can have a direct impact on work-related outcomes, such as SWB and turnover intention (Bakker et al., 2014). Besides that, job resources can mitigate the negative influences of job demands on SWB and turnover intention. In the following sections, three job resources, including supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy are discussed. The hypotheses related to the direct impact of job resources and the moderating role of job resources are proposed.

2.6 Job Resources

2.6.1 Defining Social Support

Both supervisor support and coworker support can be defined as a type of social support. Social support at work is defined as “overall levels of helpful social interaction available on the job from both co-workers and supervisors” (Karasek & Theorell, 1990, p. 69). Social support means the social cohesion in the overall workgroup, also known as structural support (Beehr, Jex, Stacy, & Murray, 2000). It can also be defined as instrumental social support, which means receiving specific support either from supervisors or co-workers (Karasek & Theorell, 1990).

Perceived supervisor support is defined as employees’ perceptions regarding how their supervisors care about their well-being (Eisenberger, Florence, Christian, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). Co-worker support refers to co-workers providing necessary help to get things done (Beehr et al., 2000). Karasek and Teorell (1990) stated that social support can influence well-

being through diverse mechanisms. Firstly, social support can alleviate the negative relationship between psychological stress and health-related outcomes. Secondly, receiving social support helps to maintain long-term health. Thirdly, it will help to stimulate productive behaviors. Lastly, social support contributes to fostering collective goals and improving well-being.

Co-worker support and supervisor support have each individually been found to predict job satisfaction and mental health in within-person studies and in between-person studies. For example, a within-person study conducted by Simbula (2010) found that day-level co-workers' support influences school teachers' day-level job satisfaction through day-level work engagement. A between-person study conducted by Bakker, Demerouti, and Verbeke (2004) showed that job resources, including supervisor support and coworker support, are the most important predictors of extra-role performance through the influence of work engagement.

2.6.2 Defining Job Autonomy

Job autonomy is an important job characteristic because it was found to have a negative relationship with stress and turnover intention (Thompson & Prottas, 2005). Job autonomy refers to employees' abilities to decide how to execute the job without too much unnecessary restriction (Clark, 2001). Job autonomy is a perception of control. In JD-C model, it is the key factor of job control. Karasek (1979) used decision authority and intellectual discretion to measure job control and mentioned that these measures are similar to job autonomy and variety of skills. Before the development of the JD-R model, job control was the only job resource that reduces strain in the JD-C model, indicating the critical role of job autonomy in influencing well-being and other work-related outcomes.

The relationship between job autonomy and employees' psychological outcomes have been discussed in the literature. In general, autonomy has been found to predict well-being (e.g.,

positive emotions, work engagement, life satisfaction or well-being in general) in both between-person studies (Bakker et al., 2007; Thompson & Prottas, 2006; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009a) and within-person studies (Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009b, 2012). For example, a study found that job autonomy is negatively related to stress and turnover intention and positively associated with job, family and life satisfaction through its contribution to perceived control (Thompson & Prottas, 2006).

2.6.3 Job Resources in the Hotel Industry

Babakus et al. (2008) applied the whole JD-R model and showed that hotel frontline employees, such as food servers and front office agents, who experienced high job demands, including role ambiguity and role conflict, had higher emotional exhaustion and higher turnover intention. In contrast, for those who received job resources, including supervisory support, training, empowerment, and rewards, reported that they had lower emotional exhaustion and turnover intention. Additionally, Karatepe (2011) found that experiencing emotional dissonance increases exhaustion and disengagement, while receiving job autonomy reduces the influence of emotional dissonance on disengagement.

It has been found that supervisor support and co-worker support influence hotel employees' well-being (Karatepe et al., 2010; Karatepe & Uludag, 2008b). Regarding job autonomy, a combination of high job demands and low job control resulted in a higher level of job stress. These three job resources are particularly important to the employees in the hotel industry because employees in operational departments serve different guests and work with different coworkers and supervisors every day. It is possible that they could experience different levels of job autonomy and support from coworkers and supervisors from one day to another

(Xanthopoulou et al., 2012). Furthermore, job autonomy is important because employees in the operational departments need to work under uncertain situations and be given some degree of autonomy to make decisions such as resolving guest problems.

Although the between-person studies conducted in the hospitality industry found that there is a positive relationship between job resources and well-being, the within-person perspective has not been explored. It has been found that it is more likely for fast-food restaurant employees to experience different levels of supervisor and coworker support because they may work with different supervisors every day (Xanthopoulou et al., 2012), which is often true for those employees in the hotel industry, too. Hence, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 7. Within hotel employees, daily supervisor support will (a) positively influence PA, (b) positively influence job satisfaction, (c) negatively influence NA, and (d) negatively influence turnover intention.

Hypothesis 8. Within hotel employees, daily coworker support will (a) positively influence PA, (b) positively influence job satisfaction, (c) negatively influence NA, and (d) negatively influence turnover intention.

Hypothesis 9. Within hotel employees, daily job autonomy will (a) positively influence PA, (b) positively influence job satisfaction, (c) negatively influence NA, and (d) negatively influence turnover intention.

2.6.4 The Interactions between Job Demands and Job Resources

Job demands and job resources not only influence well-being independently, but also affect well-being jointly (Bakker et al., 2014). Job resources can buffer the negative relationship between job demands and well-being. Receiving social support from coworkers, engaging a high quality relationship with supervisors, having high job autonomy, and receiving performance feedback can reduce the negative influence of workload on exhaustion (Bakker et al., 2005). A diary study on the moderating role of job resources showed that receiving support from coworkers and supervisors buffers the negative relationship between stress and work engagement (Tadić et al., 2015). Thus, this study considers the moderating role of job resources on the relationship between job demands and SWB and proposes:

Hypothesis 10. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily challenge stressors and SWB, such that the negative influence of daily challenge stressor will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

Hypothesis 11. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily hindrance stressors and SWB, such that the negative influence of daily hindrance stressor will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

Hypothesis 12. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily emotional dissonance and SWB, such that the negative influence of daily emotional dissonance will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

Hypothesis 13. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily challenge stressor and turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily challenge stressor will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

Hypothesis 14. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily hindrance stressor and turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily hindrance stressor will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

Hypothesis 15. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily emotional dissonance and turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily emotional dissonance will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The current research includes two pilot studies and one major study. The purposes of the two pilot studies were to: explore if the daily variables in this study fluctuate from the perspectives of hotel employees, examine if there are any items that confuse participants, and confirm the daily variables that are used for the major study. For the major study, experience sampling method (ESM) was used to assess participants' momentary job demands, job resources, subjective well-being (SWB), and turnover intention. ESM can be used to capture participants' reactions at a certain time during the day. It can also be designed as a study which captures participants' reactions to some events (Christensen, Barrett, Bliss-Moreau, & Kaschub, 2003).

The current study was designed with a one-time baseline survey and two daily surveys per day for up to 15 days. At the beginning, the participants were asked to do the one-time baseline survey, which contained the questions of demographics, trait PA, trait NA, self-efficacy, and resilience. There were two daily surveys per day. The first one was measured before participants began their work shift. PA and NA were measured to control the "good and bad days effect" in diary studies as suggested by Sheldon, Ryan, and Reis (1996). At the end of the work shift, all the daily variables, including three job demands, three job resources, turnover intention, and the three components of SWB were measured.

3.1.1 Participants

Participants in the major study are hourly-paid full-time employees who are in guest-facing positions in the food & beverage department or front office department in full-service upscale hotels or luxury hotels in the United States.

The first pilot study was a semi-structured interview with twelve hotel employees from the following departments: food & beverage, front Office, human resource, and executive office. All the 12 employees work in full-service upscale hotels or luxury hotels in the United States. Participants were asked to answer how often do they think job demands, job resources, SWB, and turnover intention fluctuate (e.g., daily, weekly, monthly, relatively stable, etc.). The meaning of each variable was briefly explained by the interviewer to participants at the beginning of the interview. For the interviewees who perceived that job demands, job resources, SWB, and turnover intention fluctuate on a daily basis, they were asked if they think the daily job demands and job resources can influence their SWB and turnover intention on a daily basis and how. At the end of the interview, participants were also asked if there are any other factors which might fluctuate on a daily basis at work. The interviews were between 30 and 45 minutes and were conducted on the phone or through Skype. The interviews were not audio recorded. The interviewer took notes during the interview.

In the second pilot study, ten full-time employees from full-service upscale hotels or luxury hotels in the US were recruited to take the daily diary study. According to Hektner, Schmidt, and Csikszentmihalyi (2007), for a five to ten day diary study, a pilot sample of 10 to 20 individuals would be acceptable. Eight of them are hourly paid and two of them are monthly paid. Two are from non-operational departments and eight are from operational departments. Two participants did a six-day diary study and eight participants did five-day diary study for a total of 52 level-1 (day-level) observations.

Employees from non-operational departments, such as human resources and executive office, were included in the two pilot studies. Because of the guest-facing nature (e.g., dealing with different guests in every shift) of the work for employees who are in operational departments, their job demands and job resources may vary more frequently than employees who are in non-operational departments. If there is within-person variability in the daily variables of interest in the sample with both operational employees and non-operational employees, it is more likely to see the within-person variability when using the sample with only operational employees in the major study.

3.1.2 Power Analysis

The power analysis was conducted by using the simulation method recommended by Bolger and Laurenceau (2013). As suggested by Lane and Hennes (2018), the rationale of power simulation is to randomly generate data for a hypothetical study. This can be done thousands of times and can simulate thousands of studies. Then, results from all studies can be aggregated to get the percentage of significant result, which is power. All the hypotheses in this study were analyzed by using the data from the second pilot study for conducting the simulation to calculate the sample size for both person-level variables and day-level variables. Mean, variances, and parameter estimates were generated. The simulation was set-up to be repeated 1,000 of times to simulate 1,000 of studies. For testing the day-level relationship among variables of interest, the power generated by the combination of day-level variables with sample size of 3,4,5, and 6 days and person-level variables with sample size of 30, 40, 50, 60, and 70 people was calculated. The number from the hypothesis which requires the largest sample size for generating a power of 0.8 was chosen. Thus, the sample size for participants is 60 and for days is 5 days.

For testing the cross-level moderating effects of trait resilience, a sample size of 70 participants with 4 days, 60 participants with 5 days, or 50 participants with 6 days are needed to generate a power of 0.8. Combined with the above results, it was decided that a minimum of 60 participants with a minimum of 5 days per participant should be collected. The expected total observations for the major study is a minimum of 300.

3.1.3 Data Collection Procedure

After obtaining Purdue University Institutional Review Board approval, a recruitment flyer describing the study purpose and compensation information was posted on the researcher's social media, including Facebook and LinkedIn, to recruit participants. The data collection was from July to October, 2019. Participants who were interested in participating in the study took a qualification survey. Only the participants who are currently employed in full-service upscale hotels or luxury hotels in the United States, are working as full-time hourly employees in guest-facing positions in the food & beverage and front office departments, and who did not have a second job with another organization were deemed qualified. The qualified participants were directed to a page and were asked to leave their preferred email for the researcher to contact them. The researcher emailed the qualified participants detailed instructions on how to participate in the study. Data was collected by using an app called ExpiWell, which is designed to conduct daily diary studies. To maintain confidentiality and anonymity, participants were asked to enter a random code they selected in the qualification survey and to use the same code for each of the surveys. At the beginning of each survey, they were asked to enter this same code every time for the researcher to link the data. Participants only needed to do the survey during their workdays. As most of the employees' work schedule are not the same every day, they were

given the opportunity to enter their schedules in the app and set up reminders based on each day's work schedule.

In order to receive any compensation, participants needed to complete the one-time baseline survey and at least three daily surveys. For the daily surveys, participants needed to complete both the one before and the one after their work shift. The compensation for the one-time baseline survey was \$3 and the compensation for the two surveys on each working day was \$5 as long as 90% of the items for each survey were answered. Therefore, the minimum compensation participants could earn was \$18 and the maximum compensation they could earn was \$28. Participants were paid by Amazon gift card for the total amount they earned. After the data collection, the researcher also raffled off a \$100 Amazon gift card to one participant.

Given the demanding nature of an ESM design, usable responses were obtained from 65 of the original 75 participants who qualified and agreed to participate. An individual with usable data is defined as one who completed the one-time baseline survey and at least five days of daily surveys with at least 90% of the items completed. Given that 65 employees completed the study and some participated for more than five days, the total number of daily observations across all employees are 416.

3.2 Measurements

3.2.1 One-time Baseline Survey Measures

Resilience. Resilience was measured by using the 6-item scale developed by Smith et al., 2008. Sample statements include: "I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times", "It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event", and "It is hard for me to snap back when something bad happen (a reverse-coded item)." In the scale, there are three reverse-coded items. The Cronbach alpha is 0.76.

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was measured by using the 10-item scale developed by Schwarzer, Bäßler, Kwiatek, Schröder, and Zhang (1997). The sample items are: “I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough”, “If someone opposes me, I can find means and ways to get what I want”, “I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities”, and “When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.” The Cronbach alpha is 0.92.

Control Variables. Participants’ trait PA and NA were used as control variables. The 12-item short version PANAS scale developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) was used. PA includes active, interested, excited, strong, inspired, and alert. NA includes distressed, upset, irritable, nervous, jittery, and afraid. The Cronbach alpha of trait PA is 0.76 and the Cronbach alpha of trait NA is 0.85.

Demographics. Gender, age, highest level of education, marital status, responsibility of taking care of family members, responsibility of taking care of kids, department (food & beverage or front office), type of hotels (five star luxury hotel or four star or three star upscale hotel) were captured as demographic variables.

3.2.2 Daily Before-Shift Survey Measures

Before participants started their work shift, they were asked to rate their PA and NA. The before shift survey took participants between 30 seconds and 1 minute to finish. The same 12-item short version PANAS scale was used. It was also used by Sonnentag, Binnewies, and Mojza (2008) in a daily diary study. To evaluate the reliability of daily variables, the within-person reliability (R_c) was used. R_c measures the precision of the measurement of changes of persons over days, which is suggested by Cranford, Shrout, Iida, Rafaeli, Yip, and Bolger (2006). To evaluate the value of R_c , Shrout’s (1998) reliability cutoff range was used. According to Shrout

(1998), if the value is between the range of 0.41 and 0.61, the reliability is considered fair. If the value is between 0.61 and 0.80, the reliability is considered moderate. If the value is between 0.91 and 1.0, the reliability is considered as substantial. The Rc of PA_before is 0.67. The Rc for NA_before is 0.52.

3.2.3 Daily After-Shift Survey Measures

Participants were asked to rate the daily job demands, job resources, SWB, and turnover intention after they completed their work shift. The after-shift survey took participants approximately ten to fifteen minutes to finish.

Job demands. The day level challenge stressors and hindrance stressors were assessed by using Rodell and Judge's (2009) 16-item scale. Sample items of the challenge stressors are: "Today at work, I've had to work on a large number of projects and/or assignments", "Today, my job has required me to work very hard", and "Today, my job has required me to use a number of complex or high-level skills." Sample items of the hindrance stressors are: "Today, my duties and work objectives have been unclear to me", "Today, I have not fully understood what is expected of me", and "Today, I have had many hassles to go through to get projects/assignments done." Emotional dissonance was measured by using a 5-item scale from Diestel, Rivkin and Schmidt (2014). The scale is adapted from the Frankfurt Emotion Work Scales developed by Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini and Isic (1999). The items are "In the last few hours, how often did you have to show feelings at work that you did not really feel?", "In the last few hours, how often did you have to suppress your own feeling to give a 'natural' impression?", "In the last few hours, how often did you unable to show your spontaneous feelings?", "In the last few hours, how often did you have to express positive feelings towards customers while you actually feel indifferent?", and "In the last few hours, how often did you have to react with

understanding to annoying customers?” The Rc for daily challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, and emotional dissonance are 0.74, 0.51, and 0.74 respectively.

Job Resources. Daily supervisor support was measured by using a 3-item scale from Bakker and Bal (2010). It comprised of “my supervisor used his/her influence to help me with problems at work”, “my supervisor informed me whether he/she is satisfied with my work”, and “my supervisor was friendly and open.” The coworker support scale was adapted from the coworker social support part of the job content questionnaire developed by Karasek et al. (1998). The five items are: “Today, the people I worked with/my coworkers showed their care for me”, “Today, the people I worked with/my coworkers were friendly”, “Today, the people I worked with/my coworkers were helpful”, “Today, the people I worked with/my coworkers were hostile (a reverse coded item)”, and “Today, the people I worked with/my coworkers collaborated in getting the job done.” Job autonomy was measured by using the two-item scale from the study of Xanthopoulou et al. (2012). The Rc for daily supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy are 0.66, 0.62, and 0.75 respectively.

SWB. Daily SWB has three components, including daily PA, NA, and job satisfaction. The same 12-item short version PANAs scale was used to measure PA and NA right after participants completed their work. Job satisfaction was assessed by using the 5-item daily job satisfaction survey from the studies of Ilies, Wilson, and Wagner (2009) and Ilies and Judge (2004). The daily scale was adapted from the five item Brayfield-Rothe Index from Brayfield and Rothe (1951). The items are: “Right now, I find real enjoyment in my work”, “During most of the past hours, I have felt enthusiastic about my work”, “At this very moment, I feel fairly satisfied with my job”, “Right now, each minute of work seems like it will never end (a reverse

coded item)”, and “At the present time, I consider my job rather unpleasant (a reverse coded item).” The Rc for daily PA, NA, and job satisfaction are 0.63, 0.53, and 0.77 respectively.

Turnover Intention. Daily turnover intention was measured by using a four-item scale. The items were adopted from Colarelli’s (1984) turnover scale and were revised to fit into the daily context. The four items are: “Today, during my shift, I thought of quitting my job”, “Today, during my shift, I thought of searching for a new job”, “Today, during my shift, I considered leaving the hotel for a new employer”, and “Today, during my shift, I did not think about leaving the hotel for a new employer (a reverse coded item).” The Rc for daily turnover intention is 0.64.

At the end of the after shift survey, participants were also asked to answer an open-ended question: “Was there any special event happening at the hotel or other special situation in the workplace which may have influenced your overall mood today(e.g., big group check-in, rude guests, fire alarm, etc.)?”

Besides the demographics and open-ended questions, all the items were measured on a five-Likert scale.

3.3 Data Analysis

To model the relationship among daily job demands (hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, and emotional dissonance), daily job resources (supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy), daily SWB (PA, NA, and job satisfaction), and daily turnover intention within employees and to examine the moderating effects of personal resources (self-efficacy and resilience), multilevel linear modeling (MLM), which is also called hierarchical linear modeling (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992), was used for data analysis. MLM is typically used when the data

has a nested structure, such as individuals nested within organizations and time nested within persons.

In the current study, the first level of analysis includes the daily repeated measures of job demands, affect measure before participants started their work shift, job resources, SWB, and turnover intention. The second level variables include trait PA, trait NA, self-efficacy, resilience. The data structure of this study is day nested within each person. Therefore, level 1 variables are nested within level 2 variables. Following Hofmann and Gavin's (1998) centering strategy, level 1 variables were centered at the respective person mean to remove the between-person variance. Level 2 variables were centered at the grand mean. *R* studio was used for conducting the data analysis.

3.4 Centering Strategy

To interpret the estimates as representing strictly within-individual relations, centering strategy (Enders & Tofight, 2007) with multilevel models was used before doing the hypothesis testing. Level 1 variables were centered on the respective person mean ("group mean") because the study's main focus is on within-person effects. Centering day-level variables at the person mean can remove the between-person variance in those variables and is thought to be the most appropriate form of centering when level 1 predictors are of substantive interest (Enders & Tofight, 2007). Then, level 2 variables were centered at the grand mean.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

This chapter shows the results to answer the research objectives and stated hypotheses. The purpose of this study was to explore the dynamic nature of SWB and turnover intention among frontline employees in the hotel industry and to understand the impact of daily challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, and emotional dissonance on SWB and turnover intention. In addition, the roles of daily job resources (supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy) and the personal resources (resilience and self-efficacy) were examined. Firstly, the within-person variability and the between-person variability in each daily-measured variable (hindrance stressors, challenge stressors, emotional dissonance, supervisor support, coworker support, job autonomy, PA measured before and after the work shift, NA measured before and after the work shift, job satisfaction, and turnover intention) were calculated to show the appropriateness of using multilevel linear modeling (MLM). Secondly, the direct within-person relationship between each job demand and SWB & turnover intention were examined. Each component of SWB (PA, NA, and job satisfaction) were tested separately. Thirdly, the cross-level moderating effects of resilience and self-efficacy on the above relationships were tested. Lastly, the direct influence and the moderating role of each job resource were examined. Descriptive statistics, participants' profile, correlations, and the hypotheses testing results are presented.

4.1 Descriptive Data

Means, standard deviations, and correlations of all variables in the study are presented in Table 1. The Pearson correlations for the studied variables are congruent with the proposed hypotheses. For example, daily emotional dissonance positively correlates with turnover

intention ($r = .30, p < .001$), negatively correlates with PA_after ($r = -.17, p < .001$), and negatively correlates with job satisfaction ($r = -.26, p < .001$). Daily supervisor support is positively correlated with PA_after ($r = .23, p < .001$), negatively correlated with NA_after ($r = -.54, p < .001$), positively correlated with job satisfaction, $r = .30, p < .001$), and negatively correlated with turnover intention ($r = -.34, p < .001$).

4.2 Participant Profile

Table 2 shows the profile of the participants of this study. Of the 65 hotel participants who completed the surveys, the sample is characterized by gender as 33 females (51%), 31 males (48%), and 1 non-binary/third gender (1%); by education as 47 participants (73%) completed at least bachelor's degree; and by age as 51 (79%) participants are in the age group from 18 to 34. A total of 40 (62%) participants are either single, separated, or widowed. Fifty (77%) participants do not have the responsibility of taking care of family members besides kids and 44 (68%) participants do not have the responsibility of taking care of kids. Thirty-four (52%) participants are from front office departments and the rest are from food & beverage departments. Thirty-four (52%) participants work in five star luxury hotels and the rest are from four star or three star upscale hotels in the United States.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics

	<i>M</i>	<i>SDs</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. hstressors	2.64	.66															
2. cstressors	3.27	.95	.33**														
3. dissonance	2.77	1.20	.45**	.33***													
4. supervisor	3.30	1.08	.04	.26***	.04												
5. coworker	3.50	1.06	-.24**	.25***	.04	.16*											
6. autonomy	3.70	1.17	-.22**	.19***	-.10	.26**	.27***										
7. pa_before	3.05	.97	-.17**	.13*	-.15*	.21***	.26***	.19**									
8. na_before	1.99	1.02	.39**	-.03	.05	-.03	-.51***	-.19**	-.19*								
9. pa_after	2.91	.95	-.12*	.13*	-.17**	.30***	.23***	.21**	.53**	-.11*							
10. na_after	2.00	1.06	.40**	-.01	.06	-.04	-.54***	-.19**	-.16*	.76***	-.09						
11. job	3.25	1.01	-.26**	.01	-.26***	.36***	.30***	.35**	.36**	-.20***	.48**	-.27					
12. turnover	2.55	1.13	.31**	.00	.30***	-.18***	-.34***	-.21**	-.37*	.33***	-.43*	.41*	-.63				
13. trait pa	3.52	.84	-.11*	.23***	-.01	.10*	.39***	.26**	.44**	-.37***	.37**	-.43	.31*	-.40			
14. trait na	2.14	.96	.46**	.00	.16*	-.05	-.44***	-.21**	-.19*	.67***	-.23*	.63*	-.24	.32*	-.40		
15. efficacy	3.63	1.00	-.25**	.23***	.10*	.07	.56***	.36**	.17**	-.57***	.18**	-.61	.16*	-.30	.62*	-.64	
16. resilience	3.65	.84	-.32**	.13*	-.04	.07	.49***	.28**	.14**	-.52***	.24**	-.53	.27*	-.32	.49*	-.67	.76*

Note. pa_after = pa measured after shift, na_after = na measured after shift, job = job satisfaction, pa_before = pa measured before shift, na_before = na measured before shift, job = job satisfaction, hstressors = hindrance stressors, cstressors = challenge stressors, turnover = turnover intention, efficacy = self-efficacy * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 2. Participant Profile

	Category	Frequency	(%)
Gender	Male	31	48%
	Female	33	51%
	Non-binary/Third Gender	1	1%
Education	High School Diploma or Equivalent	10	15%
	Associate's Degree	8	12%
	Bachelor's Degree	32	49%
	Master's Degree	13	20%
	Do not prefer to answer	2	4%
Age	18-24	20	31%
	25-34	31	48%
	35-44	10	15%
	45-54	2	3%
	55-64	1	1.5%
	65 and over	1	1.5%
Marital Status	Single	36	55%
	Married	17	26%
	Separated	3	5%
	Living with spouse, partner, or significant other	8	12%
	Widowed	1	2%
Family Responsibility	Yes	15	23%
	No	50	77%
Kids Responsibility	Yes	21	32%
	No	44	68%
Department	Food & Beverage	31	48%
	Front Office	34	52%
Hotel Type	Luxury Hotel	34	52%
	Upscale Hotel	31	48%

4.3 Partitioning of Variance Components

Before testing the hypotheses with MLM, the proportion of variance attributed to the two levels of analysis were examined. The intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) was calculated for the variables that were measured on a daily basis. The ICC is defined as “the percentage of variance between persons, with the remainder of the variance being attributable to either within-person variability or measurement error. An ICC of 1 indicates each person’s value on the

variable in question is completely stable over time (i.e., all variance is between person), whereas an ICC of 0 indicates that there is no consistency within each person (i.e., all variance is within persons)” (Mueller et al., 2005, p.650). Equation 1 shows an example of the null model for daily emotional dissonance with the intercept only in the model. In equation 1, $Dissonance_{ti}$ is person i 's emotional dissonance on day t .

$$\begin{aligned} Dissonance_{ti} &= \beta_{0i} + e_{ti} \\ \beta_{0i} &= \gamma_{00} + \mu_{0i} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

The null model with only intercept as predictor was created for each daily variable to calculate the ICC, which shows the variance across clusters. As this study is day-nested within-person, ICC indicates the between-person variance. The within-person variance is calculated by using 1 minus the between-person variance. In line with the hypothesized daily-level fluctuations, the results of variance decomposition necessitate the application of using MLM (See Table 3).

Table 3. Parameter Estimates and Variance Components of Null Models for the Variables were Measured at Day-level.

Day-level Variables	Intercept (γ_{00})	Within-Person Variance (σ^2)	Between-Person Variance (τ_{00})	% Variability Between-Person	% Variability Within-Person
PA (before)	3.10***	.44	.53	55%	45%
NA (before)	1.88***	.28	.71	71%	29%
Hindrances	2.63***	.25	.18	42%	58%
Stressors					
Challenge Stressors	3.31***	.52	.40	44%	56%
Emotional Dissonance	2.80***	.93	.51	36%	64%
Supervisor Support	3.33***	.76	.42	36%	64%
Coworker Support	3.61***	.53	.60	53%	47%
Job Autonomy	3.71***	.84	.58	41%	59%
PA (after)	2.95***	.43	.52	55%	45%
NA (after)	1.87***	.32	.73	70%	30%
Job Satisfaction	3.30***	.63	.44	41%	59%
Turnover Intention	2.59***	.63	.71	53%	47%

Note.

γ_{00} = pooled intercept representing the average level of daily measured variables across individuals; σ^2 = within-person variance in the daily measured variables; τ_{00} = between-person variance in the daily measured variables; ICC was computed as $\frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + \tau_{00}}$.

*** $p < .001$

4.4 Hypothesis Testing

All models in the hypothesis testing controlled for trait PA, trait NA, and PA & NA measured before participants started to work. Trait PA and trait NA are second level (person-level) variables. PA and NA measured before employees' work shifts are first level (day-level) variables.

4.4.1 Direct relationships between Daily Job Demands and SWB & Turnover Intention

The first three hypotheses test the relationships between each daily job demand and the outcome variables (PA, NA, job satisfaction, and turnover intention). Below are the three hypotheses:

H1. Within hotel employees, daily challenge stressors will (a) negatively influence PA, (b) negatively influence job satisfaction, (c) positively influence NA, and (d) positively influence turnover intention.

H2. Within hotel employees, daily hindrance stressors will (a) negatively influence PA, (b) negatively influence hotel employees' job satisfaction, (c) positively influence NA, (d) and positively influence turnover intention.

H3. Within hotel employees, daily emotional dissonance will (a) negatively influence PA, (b) negatively influence job satisfaction, (c) positively influence NA, and (d) positively influence turnover intention.

Table 4 presents the multilevel estimates for models predicating three components of SWB and turnover intention by using daily challenge stressors (H1). Equation 2 shows an example of testing H1a, the daily relationship between challenge stressors and PA. In equation 2, β_{0i} is the level 1 (day level) intercept, β_{1i} is individuals' slopes for predicting momentary PA with challenge stressors, β_{2i} is individuals' slopes for predicting momentary PA with PA measured before work shift, β_{3i} is individuals' slopes for predicting momentary PA with NA measured before work shift. γ_{00} is the average person-specific intercept. γ_{01} is the level 2 (person level) slope for predicting β_{0i} with trait PA. γ_{02} is the level 2 (person level) slope for predicting β_{0i} with trait NA. γ_{10} is the pooled slope for predicting momentary PA with challenge stressors. γ_{20} is the pooled slope for predicting momentary PA with PA measured

before work shift. γ_{30} is the pooled slope for predicting momentary PA with NA measured before work shift. e_{ti} is day (nested in person) specific error. μ_{0i} is the unique effect of person i on PA. μ_{1i} is the unique effect of person i on challenge stressors – PA slope. γ_{10} is the parameter for testing H1. Based on model 1 in table 4, day-specific challenge stressors does not have a relationship with PA ($p = ns.$). Model 2 in table 4 shows that day-specific challenge stressors has a positive relationship with NA ($\gamma_{10} = .10, p < .05$). Model 3 in table 4 indicates that day-specific challenge stressors has negative association with job satisfaction ($\gamma_{10} = -.10, p < .05$). According to model 4 in table 4, there is no relationship between day-specific challenge stressors and turnover intention ($p = ns.$). The results suggest that H1a and H1d are not supported, but H1b and H1c are supported. In summary, the results indicate that higher daily challenge stressors, such as high workload and time pressure, may trigger a higher negative feeling and lower job satisfaction after controlling for hotel frontline employees' trait-level affect and their momentary affect before they started their work shift. The results also show that experiencing high daily challenge stressors does not decrease employees' positive feelings at work nor increase their intention to quit the organizations.

$$\begin{aligned}
 PA_{ti} &= \beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}(Cstressor_{ti}) + \beta_{2i}(PA_{beforeti}) + \beta_{3i}(NA_{beforeti}) + e_{ti} \\
 \beta_{0i} &= \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(trait_PA_i) + \gamma_{02}(trait_NA_i) + \mu_{0i} \\
 \beta_{1i} &= \gamma_{10} + \mu_{1i} \\
 \beta_{2i} &= \gamma_{20} \\
 \beta_{3i} &= \gamma_{30}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{2}$$

Table 4. Multilevel Estimates for Testing the Relationships Between Daily Challenge Stressors and SWB & Turnover Intention

	PA_after Model 1	NA_after Model 2	Job Model 3	Turnover Model 4
Parameters				
Fixed Effects				
γ_{00} = Intercept	2.91(.08)***	1.95(.07)***	3.26(.08)***	2.54(.09)***
γ_{10} = cstressors	.04(.06)	.10(.04)*	-.10(.06) *	.06(.06)
γ_{20} = PA_before	.20(.05)***	-.01(.04)	.09(.06)	-.10(.06)
γ_{30} = NA_before	-.05(.06)	.20(.06)***	-.14(.08)*	.13(.08)*
γ_{01} = Trait PA	.39(.10)***	-.22(.09)*	.33(.10)**	-.43(.11)***
γ_{02} = Trait NA	-.14(.09)	.59(.08)***	-.17(.09)*	.25(.10)*
Random Effects				
e_{ti} = Residual	.38	.30	.62	.62
Variance at level 1				
μ_{0i} = Residual	.37	.31	.32	.45
Variance at level 2				
μ_{1i} = Variance linear slope (cstressors)	.05	.01	.00	.01

Note.

Cstressors = challenge stressors; PA_before = PA measured before participants started their shifts; NA_before = NA measured before participants started their shifts

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 5 presents the multilevel estimates for models predicating the three components of SWB and turnover intention by using daily hindrance stressors (H2). Similar equations like equation 2 were used for testing the daily influence of hindrance stressors on SWB and turnover intention. In table 5, model 1 shows that daily hindrance stressors does not have a relationship with PA ($p = ns.$). Model 2 shows that daily hindrance stressors has a positive relationship with NA ($\gamma_{10} = .13, p < .05$). Model 3 indicates that daily hindrance stressors is negatively associated with job satisfaction ($\gamma_{10} = -.27, p < .01$). Finally, model 4 shows that hindrance stressors is positively associated with turnover intention ($\gamma_{10} = .16, p < .05$). In result, H2a is not supported. H2b, H2c, and H2d are supported. Overall, the results show that daily hindrance stressors influence hotel frontline employees' daily NA, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. Experiencing more hindrance stressors, such as receiving multiple requests simultaneously and

not knowing work objectives, results in higher daily negative feelings, lower daily satisfaction with their work, and experiencing higher intentions of quitting their jobs after controlling for employees' trait affect and their momentary affect before they started their daily work shift.

Daily hindrance stressors are not found to influence employees' daily positive feelings.

Table 5. Multilevel Estimates for Testing the Relationships Between Daily Hindrance Stressors and SWB & Turnover Intention

	PA_after Model 1	NA_after Model 2	Job Model 3	Turnover Model 4
Parameters				
Fixed Effects				
γ_{00} = Intercept	2.91(.08)***	1.95(.07)***	3.23 (.08)***	2.54(.09)***
γ_{10} = hstressors	-.06(.10)	.13(.06)*	-.37(.11)**	.16(.08)*
γ_{20} = PA_before	.20(.05)***	.01(.05)	.01(.06)	-.08(.06)
γ_{30} = NA_before	-.05(.06)	.20(.06)***	-.16(.08)*	.13(.08)
γ_{01} = Trait PA	.41(.10)***	-.26(.09)**	.33(.09)***	-.43(.12)***
γ_{02} = Trait NA	-.13(.09)	.55(.08)***	-.14(.09)	.26(.10)*
Random Effects				
e_{ti} = Residual variance at level 1	.36	.30	.54	.62
μ_{0i} = Residual variance at level 2	.38	.31	2.36	.45
μ_{1i} = Variance linear slope (hstressors)	.15	.03	.18	.20

Note.

hstressors = hindrance stressors; PA_before = PA measured before participants started their shifts; NA_before = NA measured before participants started their shifts.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

To test the influence of daily emotional dissonance on SWB and turnover intention (H3), the same procedures used to test H1 and H2 are used. Table 6 shows the results. Model 1 in Table 6 shows that the impact of daily emotional dissonance on employees' PA is significantly negative ($\gamma_{10} = -.09, p < .05$). Model 2 shows that the association between daily emotional dissonance and NA is positive ($\gamma_{10} = .10, p < .01$). Model 3 shows that daily emotional dissonance has the significant negative relationship with job satisfaction ($\gamma_{10} = -.15, p < .05$).

Model 4 shows that daily emotional dissonance has a significant positive relationship with employees' turnover intention ($\gamma_{10} = .15, p < .05$). In sum, the results show support for H3a, b, c, and d. Results suggest that controlling for the variables in the previous hypotheses testing, experiencing daily emotional dissonance, such as suppressing employees' own feelings and displaying positive emotions when serving guests, influences both daily SWB and turnover intention. Specifically, when hotel frontline employees experience higher levels of daily emotional dissonance, they will have fewer positive emotions, higher negative emotions, feel less satisfied in their jobs, and think more about leaving their jobs.

Table 6. Multilevel Estimates for Testing the Relationships Between Daily Emotional Dissonance and SWB & Turnover Intention

	PA_after Model 1	NA_after Model 2	Job Model 3	Turnover Model 4
Parameters				
Fixed Effects				
γ_{00} = Intercept	2.91(.08)***	1.94(.07)***	3.26(.08)***	2.54(.09)***
γ_{10} = dissonance	-.09(.05)*	.10(.03)**	-.15(.05)*	.15(.06)*
γ_{20} = PA_before	.17(.05)***	-.01(.04)	.07(.06)	-.06(.06)
γ_{30} = NA_before	-.06(.06)	.21(.06)***	-.14(.08)*	.13(.08)*
γ_{01} = Trait PA	.38(.10)***	-.24(.09)*	.33(.10)**	-.43(.12)***
γ_{02} = Trait NA	-.18(.09)*	.56(.08)***	-.19(.09)*	.26(.10)*
Random Effects				
e_{ti} = Residual variance at level 1	.37	.30	.57	.52
μ_{0i} = Residual variance at level 2	.38	.31	.33	.47
μ_{1i} = Variance linear slope (dissonance)	.04	.01	.05	.11

Note.

dissonance = emotional dissonance; PA_before = PA measured before participants started their shifts; NA_before = NA measured before participants started their shifts

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

4.4.2 The Cross-level Moderating Role of Self-efficacy and Resilience

Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 test the moderating effects of trait self-efficacy and resilience.

Below are the three hypotheses:

H4. Trait (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience will moderate the relationship between daily challenge stressors and SWB & turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily challenge stressors will be mitigated for the people who are high in (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience.

H5. Trait (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience will moderate the relationship between hindrance stressors and SWB & turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily hindrance stressors will be reduced for the people who are high in (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience.

H6. Trait (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience will moderate the relationship between daily emotional dissonance and SWB & turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily emotional dissonance will be weaker for the people who are high in (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience.

Trait self-efficacy and trait resilience were added in the level 2 equations respectively. Equation 3 shows an example of examining the moderating role of trait resilience on the daily relationship between emotional dissonance and PA. Compared with equation 2, the effects of trait resilience were added in the model. γ_{03} is the level 2 (person level) slope for predicting β_{0i} with trait resilience. γ_{11} is the level 1 slope for predicting level 1 PA slope with resilience. γ_{11} is the parameter used for testing the cross-level moderating effects of self-efficacy and resilience.

$$\begin{aligned}
PA_{ti} &= \beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}(dissonance_i) + \beta_{2i}(PA_{before_{ti}}) + \beta_{3i}(NA_{before_{ti}}) + e_{ti} \\
\beta_{0i} &= \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(trait_PA_i) + \gamma_{02}(trait_NA_i) + \gamma_{03}(resilience_i) + \mu_{0i} \\
\beta_{1i} &= \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}(resilience_i) + \mu_{1i} \\
\beta_{2i} &= \gamma_{20} \\
\beta_{3i} &= \gamma_{30}
\end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

Hypothesis 4 states the moderating effects of self-efficacy on the daily influence of daily challenge stressors on SWB and turnover intention. Hypothesis 4b states the moderating effects of resilience. The cross-level moderating effects of trait self-efficacy and resilience were tested by using the simple slope analyses recommended by Preacher, Curran, and Bauer (2006). A simple slope is defined as the regression of the dependent variable on the independent variable at a given value of the moderator. The participants are classified into two groups, one group has higher self-efficacy (one *SD* above the mean, +1 *SD*) and the other group has lower self-efficacy (one *SD* below the mean, -1 *SD*). Firstly, the moderating role of self-efficacy on daily challenge stressors and SWB & turnover intention relationship was examined. Model 1 in table 7 shows that self-efficacy is a significant cross-level predictor of the within-individual slopes between daily challenge stressors and PA ($\gamma_{11} = -.12, p < .05$). A simple slope test shows that there is a positive relationship between challenge stressors and PA for those who are high in self-efficacy ($b = .21, p < .05$). Based on the results in model 3, model 5, and model 7, self-efficacy does not moderate the challenge stressors – NA, challenge stressors – job satisfaction, and challenge stressors – turnover intention relationships ($p = ns.$). For testing the moderating effects of resilience, the participants are classified into two groups, one group has higher resilience (+1 *SD*) and the other group has lower resilience (-1 *SD*). Models 2, 4, 6, and 8 show the moderating effects of resilience. The results in model 2 show that resilience moderates challenge stressors – PA relationship ($\gamma_{11} = -.15, p < .05$). The simple slope test shows that there is a positive relationship between challenge stressors and PA for individuals who are high in resilience (b

= .22, $p < .05$). The results in models 4, 6, and 8 show that resilience does not moderate challenge stressors – NA, challenge stressors – job satisfaction, and challenge stressors – turnover intention relationships ($p = ns.$). Therefore, the results show that trait self-efficacy and resilience moderate the challenge stressors – PA relationship, partially supporting H4a and H4b. In summary, the results indicate that self-efficacy and resilience influence the relationship between daily challenge stressors and daily PA. For individuals who are more confident and who can recover from stressful situations easily, receiving multiple tasks at the same time or working under high pressure helps them to be more happy at work daily. The daily influences of challenge stressors on negative feelings, satisfaction about work, and intention to leave does not change based on employees' self-efficacy and resilience.

Hypothesis 5 proposes the moderating role of (a) trait self-efficacy and (b) resilience on the relationship between daily hindrance stressors and the outcome variables. Specifically, hypothesis 5a states the moderating effects of self-efficacy on the daily influence of hindrance stressors on SWB and turnover intention. Hypothesis 5b stated the moderating effects of resilience on the above relationships. Table 8 shows the results of testing these hypotheses. Model 1 and Model 8 show that self-efficacy moderates daily hindrance stressors – PA ($\gamma_{11} = -.11, p < .05$) and daily hindrance stressors – turnover intention ($\gamma_{11} = .23, p < .001$). A simple slope test shows that the negative relationship between hindrance stressors and PA only exists in people who are low in self-efficacy ($b = -.18, p < .05$). The positive relationship between hindrance stressors and turnover intention was only found among people who are low in self-efficacy ($b = .64, p < .001$). Model 3 and model 5 show that self-efficacy does not moderate daily hindrance stressors – NA and daily hindrance stressors – job satisfaction relationships ($p = ns.$). Regarding the moderating role of resilience, model 2 and model 8 indicated that resilience

moderates hindrance stressors – PA ($\gamma_{11} = -.14, p < .05$) and hindrance stressors – turnover intention ($\gamma_{11} = .23, p < .05$) relationships. The negative relationship between hindrance stressors and PA was found among people who are low in resilience ($b = -.21, p < .05$). The positive relationship between hindrance stressors and turnover intention was only found among people who are low in resilience ($b = .54, p < .05$). Model 4 and model 6 indicate that resilience does not moderate hindrance stressors – NA and hindrance stressors job satisfaction relationships ($p = ns.$). H5a and H5b are partially supported. In summary, the results show that self-efficacy and resilience both influence the daily relationships between hindrance stressors and PA and between hindrance stressors and turnover intention. For people who are less confident and less likely to recover from negative situations, receiving multiple requests simultaneously or not knowing work objectives decreases their happiness at work. Meanwhile, they are more likely to think about leaving the organizations. Self-efficacy and resilience are not found to influence the daily influences of hindrance stressors on employees' negative feelings and job satisfaction at work, meaning that the daily influences of receiving multiple requests at the same time or not clearly understanding work objectives on employees' negative feelings and job satisfaction will not change regardless of their self-efficacy (e.g., being as a more confident person) and resilience (e.g., being able to recover from the negative situation quickly) .

Hypothesis 6 states the moderating role of (a) trait self-efficacy and (b) resilience on the relationship between daily emotional dissonance and the outcomes variables. Hypothesis 6a states the moderating effects of self-efficacy on the daily influence of emotional dissonance on SWB and turnover intention. Hypothesis 6b stated the moderating role of resilience on the above relationships. Table 9 displays the results for testing these hypotheses. H6a is mostly supported. Model 1, 3, and 5 show that self-efficacy moderates the emotional dissonance – PA ($\gamma_{11} =$

.10, $p < .05$), emotional dissonance – NA ($\gamma_{11} = .05, p < .05$), and emotional dissonance – job satisfaction ($\gamma_{11} = -.07, p < .05$) relationships. By conducting a simple slope test, results showed that the negative relationship between emotional dissonance and PA only exists among people who are low in self-efficacy ($b = -.29, p < .001$). The positive relationship between emotional dissonance and NA exists in people who are low in self-efficacy ($b = .17, p < .01$). The negative relationship between emotional dissonance and job satisfaction was found among people who are low in self-efficacy ($b = -.28, p < .01$). The moderating role of self-efficacy on emotional dissonance – turnover intention is not supported ($p = ns.$, See model 7 in table 9). H6b is fully supported as resilience moderates emotional dissonance – PA ($\gamma_{11} = -.16, p < .01$, See model 2 in table 9), emotional dissonance – NA ($\gamma_{11} = .06, p < .05$, See model 4 in table 9) emotional dissonance – job satisfaction ($\gamma_{11} = -.13, p < .05$, See model 6 in table 9) and emotional dissonance – turnover intention ($\gamma_{11} = .13, p < .01$, See model 8 in table 9) relationships. Based on the results of the simple slope test, the negative relationship between emotional dissonance and PA is stronger for people who are low in resilience ($b = -.40, p < .001$) than for those who are high in resilience ($b = -.08, p < .05$). The positive relationship between emotional dissonance and NA only exists among people who are low in resilience ($b = .20, p < .05$). The negative relationship between emotional dissonance and job satisfaction is stronger for people who are low in resilience ($b = -.39, p < .001$) than for those who are high in resilience ($b = -.14, p < .001$). The positive relationship between emotional dissonance and turnover intention is stronger for those who are low in resilience ($b = .38, p < .001$) than for those who are high in resilience ($b = .12, p < .001$). H6a is partially supported and H6b is fully supported. In summary, the results show that self-efficacy influences the relationship between daily emotional dissonance and SWB. To be more specific, the findings indicate that for people who are low in self-efficacy,

they may not be able to deal with the daily negative influence of emotional dissonance on SWB. This means that for employees who are less confident, their well-being is more likely to be influenced by showing positive emotions to guests when they themselves are not happy. Thus, they may feel less happy and dissatisfied with their work when they try to fake their emotions. Self-efficacy is not found to influence the daily relationship between emotional dissonance and turnover intention, suggesting that showing positive emotions to guests when employees themselves are not happy triggers their intention to leave their organizations no matter if they are confident or not. Regarding the results of resilience, the employees who are low in resilience may not be able to deal with the negative influences of daily emotional dissonance on SWB. This means that for employees who are less likely to recover from negative situations, faking their emotions in front of guests daily is more likely to make them unhappy in general and less satisfied with their jobs. Also, for employees who are low in resilience, their turnover intention are more likely to be influenced by daily emotional dissonance than those who are high in resilience. This means that employees are more likely to think about leaving their organizations when they fake their emotions in front of guests if they are the type of person who is less likely to recover from negative situations.

Table 7. Moderating Roles of Self-efficacy and Resilience on the Relationship Between Daily Challenge Stressors and SWB & Turnover Intention

	PA_after Model 1	Model 2	NA_after Model 3	Model 4	Job Model 5	Model 6	Turnover Model 7	Model 8
Parameters								
Fixed Effects								
γ_{00} = Intercept	2.92(.08)***	2.91(.08)***	1.96(.07)***	1.95(.08)***	3.26(.08)***	3.26(.08)***	2.54(.09)***	2.54(.09)***
γ_{10} = cstressors	.09(.05)	.07(.06)	.11(.05)*	.10(.04)*	-.10(.07)	-.09(.06)	.02(.07)	.04(.06)
γ_{20} = PA_before	.19(.05)***	.20(.05)***	-.01(.05)	-.01(.04)	.09(.06)	.09(.06)	-.08(.06)	-.09(.06)
γ_{30} = NA_before	-.05(.06)	-.04(.06)	.20(.06)***	.21(.06)***	-.14(.08)*	-.14(.08)	.13(.08)	.13(.08)
γ_{01} = Trait PA	.48(.12)***	.37(.10)**	-.07(.10)	-.22(.10)*	.42(.12)***	.28(.10)*	-.48(.14)***	-.41(.12)**
γ_{02} = Trait NA	-.20(.10)*	-.10(.11)	.47(.09)***	.54(.10)***	-.24(.10)*	-.10(.11)	.29(.12)*	.22(.13)*
γ_{03} = Efficacy	-.16		-.28(.11)*		-.17(.12)		.09(.14)	
γ_{11} = cstressors*efficacy	-.12(.06)*		-.04(.05)		-.01(.08)		.11(.08)	
γ_{03} = Resilience		.09(.14)		-.07(.12)		.15(.13)		-.08(.15)
γ_{11} = cstressors*resilience		-.15(.07)*		-.02 (.05)		-.04(.07)		.10(.07)
Random Effects								
e_{ti} = Residual variance at level 1	.41	.38	.30	.31	.62	.62	.61	.62
μ_{0i} = Residual variance at level 2	.36	.38	.28	.31	.31	.32	.46	.46
μ_{1i} = Variance linear slope (cstressors)	.00	.05	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00

Note.

cstressors = challenge stressors; PA_before = PA measured before participants started their shifts; NA_before = NA measured before participants started their shifts

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 8. Moderating Roles of Self-efficacy and Resilience on the Relationship Between Daily Hindrance Stressors and SWB & Turnover Intention

	PA_after Model 1	Model 2	NA_after Model 3	Model 4	Job Model 5	Model 6	Turnover Model 7	Model 8
Parameters								
Fixed Effects								
γ_{00} = Intercept	2.92(.08)***	2.91(.08)***	1.96(.07)***	1.95(.08)***	3.27(.08)***	3.26(.08)***	2.54(.09)***	2.54(.09)***
γ_{10} = hstressors	-.06(.07)	-.08(.07)	.08(.06)	.08(.06)	-.37(.11)**	-.34(.09)***	20(.08)*	.20(.11)*
γ_{20} = PA_before	.18(.05)***	.18(.05)***	.01(.05)	.00(.05)	.01(.06)	.05(.06)	-.05(.06)	-.05(.06)
γ_{30} = NA_before	-.05(.06)	-.04(.06)	.21(.06)***	.21(.06)***	-.15(.08)*	-.13(.08)*	.13(.08)*	.09(.08)
γ_{01} = Trait PA	.48(.12)***	.37(.11)**	-.08(.11)	-.22(.10)*	.41(.12)***	.28(.11)*	-.48(.14)***	-.42(.12)**
γ_{02} = Trait NA	-.20(.10)*	-.10(.11)	.46(.09)***	.54(.10)***	-.24(.10)*	-.10(.11)	.29(.12)*	.21(.13)
γ_{03} = Efficacy	-.16(.12)		-.28(.11)*		-.17(.12)		.09(.14)	
γ_{11}	-.11(.07)*		.04(.06)		-.12(.11)		.23(.06)***	
=hstressors*efficacy								
γ_{03} = Resilience		.08(.14)		-.07(.12)		.16(.13)		-.08(.15)
γ_{11}		-.14(.07)*		.01(.06)		-.09(.08)		.23(.12)*
=hstressors*resilience								
Random Effects								
e_{ti} = Residual variance at Level 1	.41	.41	.31	.31	.54	.60	.60	.55
μ_{0i} = Residual variance at Level 2	.36	.37	.28	.32	.32	.32	.46	.47
μ_{1i} = Variance linear slope (hstressors)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.25	.00	.00	.27

Note.

hstressors = hindrance stressors; PA_before = PA measured before participants started their shifts; NA_before = NA measured before participants started their shifts

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 9. Moderating Roles of Self-efficacy and Resilience on the Relationship Between Daily Emotional Dissonance and SWB & Turnover Intention

	PA_after Model 1	Model 2	NA_after Model 3	Model 4	Job Model 5	Model 6	Turnover Model 7	Model 8
Parameters								
Fixed Effects								
γ_{00} = Intercept	2.92(.08)***	2.91(.08)* **	1.96(.07)***	1.95(.08)***	3.27(.08)***	3.26(.08)***	2.54(.09)***	2.54(.09)***
γ_{10} = dissonance	-.09(.04)*	-.08(.04)*	-.28(.11)*	.07(.03)*	-.17(.12)	-.14(.04)**	.13(.04)**	.12(.04)**
γ_{20} = PA_before	.17(.05)***	.17(.05)**	.00(.05)	.00(.05)	.07(.06)	.07(.06)	-.07(.06)	-.07(.06)
γ_{30} = NA_before	-.05(.06)	-.04(.06)	.21(.06)***	.20(.06)***	-.13(.08)*	-.13(.08)	.12(.08)	.12(.08)
γ_{01} = Trait PA	.46(.12)***	.35(.11)**	-.08(.11)	-.22(.10)*	.42(.12)***	.28(.11)*	-.48(.14)***	-.41(.12)**
γ_{02} = Trait NA	-.21(.10)*	-.11(.11)	.46(.09)***	.54(.10)***	-.24(.10)*	-.10(.11)	.29(.12)*	.22(.13)*
γ_{03} = Efficacy	-.16(.12)		-.28(.11)*		-.17(.12)		.09(.14)	
γ_{11} =Dissonance*efficacy	-.10(.03)*		.05(.03)*		-.07(.04)*		.05(.04)	
γ_{03} = Resilience		.08(.14)		-.07(.12)		.16(.13)		-.08(.15)
γ_{11} = Dissonance*resilience		-.16(.05)**		.06(.04)*		-.13(.05)*		.13(.05)**
Random Effects								
e_{ti} = Residual variance at level 1	.37	.37	.30	.30	.60	.60	.61	.60
μ_{0i} = Residual variance at level 2	.37	.38	.27	.31	.31	.32	.46	.46
μ_{1i} = Variance linear slope (dissonance)	.02	.02	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00

Note.

dissonance = emotional dissonance; PA_before = PA measured before participants started their shifts; NA_before = NA measured before participants started their shifts

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

4.4.3 Direct Relationships between Daily Job Resources, SWB, and Turnover Intention

Hypotheses 7, 8, and 9 propose day-specific relationships between daily job resources and SWB & turnover intention. Below are the three hypotheses:

H7. Within hotel employees, daily supervisor support will (a) positively influence PA, (b) positively influence job satisfaction, (c) negatively influence NA, and (d) negatively influence turnover intention.

H8. Within hotel employees, daily coworker support will (a) positively influence PA, (b) positively influence job satisfaction, (c) negatively influence NA, and (d) negatively influence turnover intention.

H9. Within hotel employees, daily job autonomy will (a) positively influence PA, (b) positively influence job satisfaction, (c) negatively influence NA, and (d) negatively influence turnover intention.

Table 10 shows the results for testing H7, the direct relationships from daily supervisor support and SWB & turnover intention. Table 10 shows that daily supervisor support has a positive relationship with PA ($\gamma_{10} = .11, p < .01$) and job satisfaction ($\gamma_{10} = .24, p < .001$). A negative relationship is found with NA ($\gamma_{10} = -.10, p < .01$) and turnover intention ($\gamma_{10} = -.17, p < .05$). H7a, H7b, H7c, and H7d are all supported. The results indicate that after controlling for hotel frontline employees' trait affect and daily affect before they began their work shifts, employees who perceive higher level of supervisor support (e.g., supervisors are friendly, supervisors offer necessary support to help employees to get things done) experience more happiness at work and are more satisfied in their jobs, and will have lower levels of negative feelings and be less likely to want to leave their jobs.

Table 10. Multilevel Estimates for Testing the Relationship Between Supervisor Support and SWB & Turnover Intention

	PA_after Model 1	NA_after Model 2	Job Model 3	Turnover Model 4
Parameters				
Fixed Effects				
γ_{00} = Intercept	2.91(.08)***	1.95(.07)***	3.26(.08)***	2.54(.09)***
γ_{10} = supervisor	.11(.04)**	-.10(.04)**	.24(.06)***	-.17(.07)*
γ_{20} = PA_before	.19(.05)***	.00(.04)	.08(.06)	-.07(.06)
γ_{30} = NA_before	-.02(.06)	.19(.06)***	-.08(.08)	.06(.08)
γ_{01} = Trait PA	.39(.10)***	-.24(.09)*	.31(.10)**	-.41(.11)***
γ_{02} = Trait NA	-.14(.09)	.58(.08)***	-.15(.09)*	.20(.10)*
Random Effects				
e_{ti} = Residual	.40	.30	.50	.52
variance at level 1				
μ_{0i} = Residual	.37	.31	.34	.45
variance at level 2				
μ_{1i} = Variance	.08	.01	.09	.10
linear slope (supervisor)				

Note.

supervisor = supervisor support; PA_before = PA measured before participants started their shifts; NA_before = NA measured before participants started their shifts

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 8 states the direct relationship from daily coworker support to SWB and turnover intention. Based on the results from table 11, daily coworker support has a positive relationship with PA ($\gamma_{10} = .09$), $p < .05$, See model 1 in table 11) and with job satisfaction ($\gamma_{10} = .13$, $p < .05$, See model 3 in table 11). Model 2 and model 4 indicated that daily coworker support is negatively associated with NA ($\gamma_{10} = -.13$, $p < .05$) and turnover intention ($\gamma_{10} = -.19$, $p < .05$). H8a, H8b, H8c, and H8d are all supported. In summary, similar to the role of daily supervisor support, daily coworker support is found to be related to both frontline employees' SWB and turnover intention. Employees who perceive higher levels of coworker support (e.g., employees work with each other to get things done or receive help from coworkers

in a difficult situation) are happier, are more satisfied with their jobs, and are less likely to quit their jobs.

Table 11. Multilevel Estimates for Testing the Relationship Between Coworker Support and SWB & Turnover Intention

	PA_after Model 1	NA_after Model 2	Job Model 3	Turnover Model 4
Parameters				
Fixed Effects				
γ_{00} = Intercept	2.91(.08)***	1.94(.07)***	3.26(.08)***	2.55(.09)***
γ_{10} = coworker	.09(.05)*	-.13(.05)*	.13(.06)*	-.19(.08)*
γ_{20} = PA_before	.19(.05)***	.01(.04)	.09(.06)	-.08(.06)
γ_{30} = NA_before	-.03(.06)	.21(.06)***	-.12(.08)	.05(.08)
γ_{01} = Trait PA	.39(.10)***	-.24(.09)**	.33(.10)**	-.43(.11)***
γ_{02} = Trait NA	-.14(.09)	.55(.08)**	-.17(.09)*	.27(1.10)**
Random Effects				
e_{ti} = Residual variance at level 1	.41	.28	.62	.52
μ_{0i} = Residual variance at level 2	.37	.31	.32	.46
μ_{1i} = Variance linear slope (coworker)	.07	.05	.16	.17

Note.

coworker = coworker support; PA_before = PA measured before participants started their shifts; NA_before = NA measured before participants started their shifts

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 9 proposes the direct relationship between daily job autonomy and SWB & turnover intention. Results in table 12 show that within individuals, daily job autonomy has a positive relationship with PA ($\gamma_{10} = .12, p < .05$, See model 1 in table 12), a positive relationship with job satisfaction ($\gamma_{10} = .27, p < .001$, See model 3 in table 12) and a negative relationship with turnover intention ($\gamma_{10} = -.19$, See model 4 in table 12). The within-person relationship between job autonomy and NA is not significant ($p = ns.$, See model 2 in table 12). H9a, H9c, and H9d are supported. H9b is not supported. The results show that hotel frontline employees who perceive higher levels of daily job autonomy (e.g., employees are able to control

the pace of work and can decide how to implement certain types of work) are happier at work, more satisfied with their jobs, and are less likely to leave their organizations. The negative relationship between daily job autonomy and NA is not found, suggesting that receiving high levels of daily job autonomy does not help hotel frontline employees to reduce their negative feelings on that day.

Table 12. Multilevel Estimates for Testing the Relationship Between Job Autonomy and SWB & Turnover Intention

	PA_after Model 1	NA_after Model 2	Job Model 3	Turnover Model 4
Parameters				
Fixed Effects				
γ_{00} = Intercept	2.92(.09)***	1.93(.08)***	3.28(.08)***	2.55(.09)***
γ_{10} = autonomy	.12(.04)*	-.06(.04)	.27(.06)***	-19(.08)*
γ_{20} = PA_before	.20(.05)***	-.01(.04)	.09(.06)	-.08(.06)
γ_{30} = NA_before	-.05(.07)	.19(.06)**	-.16(.08)*	.05(.08)
γ_{01} = Trait PA	.43(.10)***	-.24(.09)**	.32(.10)**	-.43(.11)***
γ_{02} = Trait NA	-.17(.09)*	.56(.08)***	-.17(.09)*	.27(.10)**
Random Effects				
e_{ti} = Residual variance at level 1	.39	.27	.52	.52
μ_{0i} = Residual variance at level 2	.37	.30	.32	.47
μ_{1i} = Variance linear slope (autonomy)	.02	.02	.05	.17

Note.

autonomy = job autonomy; PA_before = PA measured before participants started their shifts; NA_before = NA measured before participants started their shifts

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

4.4.4 The Moderating Role of Daily Job Resources

Hypotheses 10, 11, and 12 test the moderating role between each daily job demand and SWB. Below are the hypotheses:

H10. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily challenge stressors and SWB, such that the negative influence of daily challenge stressors will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

H11. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily hindrance stressors and SWB, such that the negative influence of daily hindrance stressors will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

H12. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily emotional dissonance and SWB, such that the negative influence of daily emotional dissonance will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

Equation 4 shows an example of testing the moderating role of daily supervisor support on the relationship between emotional dissonance and PA.

$$\begin{aligned}
 PA_{ti} &= \beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}(dissonance_i) + \beta_{2i}(PA_{before_{ti}}) + \beta_{3i}(NA_{before_{ti}}) \\
 &\quad + \beta_{4i}(dissonance_i * supervisor_i) + e_{ti} \\
 \beta_{0i} &= \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(trait_PA_i) + \gamma_{02}(trait_NA_i) + \mu_{0i} \\
 \beta_{1i} &= \gamma_{10} + \mu_{1i} \\
 \beta_{2i} &= \gamma_{20} \\
 \beta_{3i} &= \gamma_{30} \\
 \beta_{4i} &= \gamma_{40}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{4}$$

Specifically, hypothesis 10 states the moderating roles of (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy on the relationship between day-specific challenge stressors and SWB. Daily supervisor support was found to moderate the relationship between challenge stressors and PA ($\gamma_{40} = -.11, p < .05$). The moderating role of supervisor support on

challenge stressors – NA and challenge stressors – job satisfaction relationships were not found ($p = ns.$). The moderating role of daily coworker support on the above relationship were not found ($p = ns.$). Daily job autonomy was found to moderate the challenge stressors – PA ($\gamma_{40} = -.13, p < .05$) and challenge stressors – NA relationships ($\gamma_{40} = -.10, p < .05$), but not the challenge stressors – job satisfaction relationship ($p = ns.$). H10 is partially supported. Based on the results of the simple slope test, there is a positive relationship between challenge stressors and PA for people who received high supervisor support ($b = .21, p < .05$). For the people who received higher levels of job autonomy, there is a positive relationship between challenge stressors and PA ($b = .20, p < .01$). In summary, the results indicate that for employees who perceive higher levels of supervisor support, receiving multiple work tasks simultaneously under time pressure increases their positive feelings at work. Among the employees who perceive lower levels of supervisor support, the influence of daily challenge stressors on PA is not found, indicating their positive feelings do not change regardless of the stressors despite not receiving as much support from their managers. The relationships between daily challenge stressors and NA and between daily challenge stressors and job satisfaction are not found to be influenced by the levels of perceived daily supervisor support. Furthermore, the daily relationship between challenge stressors and SWB is not influenced by the levels of perceived coworker support. As for the role of daily job autonomy, it is found that on the days when employees perceive they have more control over their jobs and how to perform them, the negative influences of daily challenge stressors on their happiness are mitigated.

Hypothesis 11 states the moderating roles of (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy on the relationship between day-specific hindrance stressors and SWB. Daily supervisor support and daily job autonomy were not found to moderate the relationship

between hindrance stressors and the three components of SWB ($p = ns.$). Daily coworker support was found to moderate the relationship between daily hindrance stressors and job satisfaction ($\gamma_{40} = .17, p < .05$). The negative relationship between hindrance stressors and job satisfaction is stronger for people who received low coworker support ($b = -.60, p < .01$) than for those who received high coworker support ($b = -.26, p < .001$). H11 is partially supported. In summary, the results show that the day-specific relationship between hindrance stressors and SWB does not change because of the changing of daily supervisor support and job autonomy. Daily coworker support influences the relationship between day-specific hindrance stressors and job satisfaction. On the days when employees perceive higher levels of coworker support, the negative relationship between hindrance stressors and job satisfaction is weaker than on the days when they perceive lower levels of coworker support.

Hypothesis 12 states the moderating roles of (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy on the relationship between day-specific emotional dissonance and SWB. The moderating role for daily supervisor support and coworker support were not found to moderate the emotional dissonance – SWB relationships ($p = ns.$). Daily job autonomy was found to moderate the emotional dissonance – NA relationship ($\gamma_{40} = -.07, p < .05$). The simple slope test shows that the positive relationship between emotional dissonance and NA only exists for people who have low job autonomy ($b = .17, p < .001$). Thus, H12 is partially supported. In summary, the results show that the daily relationship between emotional dissonance and SWB does not change because of the changing of daily supervisor support and coworker support. But the changing of daily job autonomy influences the daily relationship between emotional dissonance and NA. For people who perceive higher level of daily job autonomy, the positive relationship between emotional dissonance and NA is weaker. This

means that when they feel they have more control over their jobs and tasks, the act of displaying positive emotions when serving guests does not cause them to have as many negative feelings. The relationships between emotional dissonance and the other two components of SWB (PA and job satisfaction) do not change based on the perceived levels of daily job autonomy.

Hypotheses 13, 14, and 15 test the moderating role between each daily job demand and turnover intention. Below are the hypotheses:

H13. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily challenge stressors and turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily challenge stressors will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

H14. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily hindrance stressors and turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily hindrance stressors will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

H15. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily emotional dissonance and turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily emotional dissonance will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.

Hypothesis 13 is not supported. The results indicate that the changing of the three daily resources, including perceived supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy, does not influence the day-specific relationship between challenge stressors and turnover intention. This means that the daily influence of challenge stressors, such as receiving multiple tasks under time pressure, on employees' intention to quit the company is not influenced by the levels of support

they receive from their supervisors and coworkers in a specific day. Also, the influence of these stressors is not influenced by the job control employees are given on that specific day.

Hypothesis 14 is not supported. The moderating roles of three job resources are not found in the hindrance stressors – turnover relationship. The results show that the day-specific relationship between hindrance stressors and turnover intention is not influenced by the perceived levels of the three daily job resources. This means that the daily influence of hindrance stressors, such as receiving multiple requests simultaneously and not knowing work objectives, on employees' intention to quit their jobs is not influenced by the resources they receive at work, for example, the levels of the support they receive from their supervisors and coworkers or the levels of job control they are given by their supervisors in a specific day.

Regarding hypothesis 15, it is found that daily job autonomy moderates the emotional dissonance – turnover relationship ($\gamma_{12} = -.11, p < .05$). The simple slope test shows that the positive relationship between emotional dissonance and turnover intention only exists for employees who perceive they have low job autonomy ($\gamma_{30} = .25, p < .01$). H15 is partially supported. In general, the results of H15 show that the day-specific relationship between emotional dissonance and turnover intention is influenced by the levels of perceived job autonomy. On the days when employees perceive they have less control over their work, the act of displaying positive feelings when serving guests leads them to think about leaving their jobs. The relationship between day-specific emotional dissonance and turnover intention is not found to be influenced by the levels of perceived daily supervisor support and coworker support, meaning that employees suppressing their own feelings and displaying positive emotions when serving guests trigger their turnover intention daily regardless of the levels of job resources, such as receiving support from supervisors and coworkers.

4.4.5 Additional Interpretation

The main hypotheses of this study were tested by using the fixed effects in the MLM. Using equation (2) above as an example, γ_{10} is used for testing the relationship between challenge stressors and PA within an individual across days. All the γ in the equations represent the fixed effects and all the μ in the equations represent the random effects. Random effects indicate that the effect vary across individuals. For example, μ_{0i} indicates that if there is a person difference in PA, μ_{1i} indicates if the relationship between challenge stressors and PA changes by days across individuals. The uniqueness of using MLM is to consider the random effects, meaning accounting for the individual differences. In the above hypotheses testing, the random intercept and the random slope for the independent variables of interests were considered. The significant random intercept in equation (2) means there are person differences in PA. The significant random slope of challenge stressors in equation (2) means the changing rate of challenge stressors on PA varies across individuals. The results from the random intercept and random slope testing further provide evidence that individual differences should be considered when considering the daily relationship between job demands and outcome variables or between job resources and outcome variables.

$$\begin{aligned} PA_{ti} &= \beta_{0i} + \beta_{1i}(cstressor_{ti}) + \beta_{2i}(PA_{beforeti}) + \beta_{3i}(NA_{beforeti}) + e_{ti} \\ \beta_{0i} &= \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(trait_PA_i) + \gamma_{02}(trait_NA_i) + \mu_{0i} \\ \beta_{1i} &= \gamma_{10} + \mu_{1i} \\ \beta_{2i} &= \gamma_{20} \\ \beta_{3i} &= \gamma_{30} \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

4.4.6 Unsupported Hypotheses

In this section, the potential reasons for the unsupported hypotheses are put forward. In the hypotheses regarding the direct relationships between daily work stressors (including challenge stressors and hindrance stressors) and SWB & turnover intention, the results do not support all of them. For example, the direct relationships of challenge stressors – PA, challenge stressors – turnover intention, and hindrance stressors – PA are not supported. However, when self-efficacy and resilience are added in the models, a positive relationship of challenge stressors – PA is found to exist in people who are high in self-efficacy or high in resilience. The negative influences of challenge stressors on PA and turnover intention are found to exist in people who are low in self-efficacy or low in resilience. Based on the literature review regarding these two types of work stressors, the findings of the consequences are mixed. Some research found that challenge stressors have motivating effects and hindrance stressors have demotivating effects. There are also studies found that both challenge and hindrance stressors have demotivating influences. Although this study does not find the relationship between the two stressors and PA, the relationships between the two stressors and job satisfaction are found. This may be because PA only has an affective component and job satisfaction has both affective and cognitive components. Thus, the two work stressors may not have an influence on positive affect but may influence individuals' positive cognitions. In addition, as is mentioned above, when the trait level moderating effects are added in the model, some of the relationships appear only for people who are low in self-efficacy and resilience (e.g., the negative relationship between hindrance stressors and PA, and the positive relationship between hindrance stressors and turnover intention) or only for people who are high in self-efficacy and resilience (e.g., the positive relationship between challenge stressors and PA). This may indicate the importance of considering personal resources

as moderators when examining the relationships between work stressors and the outcome variables as suggested by previous studies (e.g., Min et al., 2015; Kang & Jang, 2019).

Secondly, not all of the cross-level moderating effects of personal resources are supported. This is possibly because a minimum of five days may not be long enough to capture the influence of the trait personal resources. The working environment in the hotel industry is very dynamic. Some individuals may experience fluctuating job demands and job resources daily. However, some individuals may experience more stable job demands such as in times when the hotel occupancy rate is low. Being a person with high resilience and high self-efficacy may help them to deal with tough situations, such as experiencing high work stress and solving multiple guest issues at work. But considering the situation that job demands may be stable in certain time periods, the influences of resilience and self-efficacy may not show up on some days. For example, when a hotel has low occupancy, the frontline staff in front office and food and beverage may not need to deal with multiple guest issues in one work shift and may be less likely to have to fake their emotions when serving guests. As another example, when it is not busy in the hotel, front office employees are less likely to receive multiple requests (e.g., questions regarding amenity delivery, upgrading VIP guests' rooms, etc.) simultaneously from other departments, such as the housekeeping and food & beverage departments.

Thirdly, it is found that all of the daily job resources fluctuate on a daily basis and most of the direct relationships between daily job resources and SWB & turnover intention are supported. However, most of the hypotheses related to the moderating roles of daily job resources are not supported. The potential reason could be that an ESM study was conducted instead of an ecological momentary assessment (EMA). As Tay (2020) indicated, ESM focuses more on the influences of general activities and experiences daily, while EMA captures people's

reactions towards specific events. In this study, some of the daily moderating effects of daily job resources are established, showing they are still important to reduce the negative influences of daily job demands. Meanwhile, it may also indicate that a future study could potentially conduct an EMA to capture how supervisors' and coworkers' supportive behaviors help employees during certain types of unusual work events, for example, when employees deal with guest abuse or when the hotel is preparing for a natural disaster such as a hurricane or blizzard or when the hotel has a 100% occupancy turn in one day.

4.4.7 Summary of Hypotheses Results

Table 13 presents a detailed summary of the hypotheses testing results. To visually show the hypothesis testing results, figure 2, figure 3, and figure 4 are presented. Figure 2 shows the direct daily influences of the three daily job demands and the three daily job resources on SWB & turnover intention. Figure 3 displays the cross-level moderating effects of trait resilience. Figure 4 shows the cross-level moderating effects of trait resilience. The moderating effects of the daily job resources are not presented as most of the related hypotheses are not supported.

Table 13. Hypotheses Results

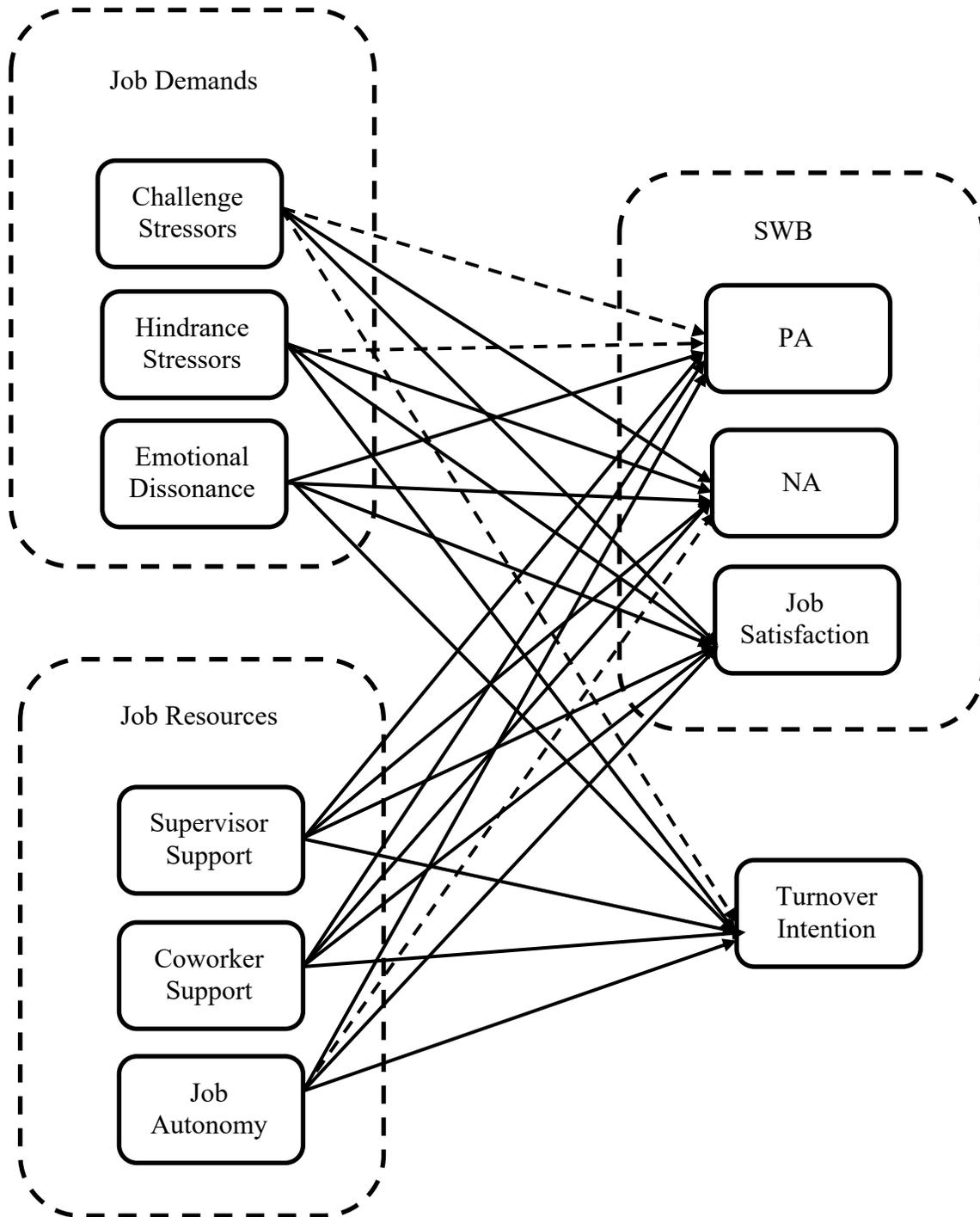
Hypothesis	Result
Direct Relationships between Daily Job Demands and SWB and Turnover Intention	
Hypothesis 1. Within hotel employees, daily challenge stressors will (a) negatively influence PA, (b) negatively influence job satisfaction, (c) positively influence NA, and (d) positively influence turnover intention.	H1b, H1c are supported (See results in table 4)
Hypothesis 2. Within hotel employees, daily hindrance stressors will (a) negatively influence PA, (b) negatively influence hotel employees' job satisfaction, (c) positively influence NA, (d) and positively influence turnover intention.	H2b, H2c, H2d are supported (See results in table 5)
Hypothesis 3. Within hotel employees, daily emotional dissonance will (a) negatively influence PA, (b) negatively influence job satisfaction, (c) positively influence NA, and (d) positively influence turnover intention.	Supported (See results in table 6)

Table 13. continued

The Cross-level Moderating Role of Self-efficacy and Resilience	
Hypothesis 4. Trait (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience will moderate the relationship between daily challenge stressors and SWB & turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily challenge stressors will be mitigated for the people who are high in (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience.	Partially supported, the moderating role of self-efficacy and resilience are found in challenge stressors – PA relationship. (See results in table 7)
Hypothesis 5. Trait (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience will moderate the relationship between daily hindrance stressors and SWB & turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily hindrance stressors will be reduced for the people who are high in (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience.	Partially supported, the moderating role of self-efficacy and resilience are found in hindrance stressors – PA & turnover relationships. (See results in table 8)
Hypothesis 6. Trait (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience will moderate the relationship between daily emotional dissonance and SWB & turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily emotional dissonance will be weaker for the people who are high in (a) self-efficacy and (b) resilience.	H6a is partially supported, self-efficacy moderates the dissonance – SWB relationship. H6b is supported. (See results in table 9)
Direct Relationships between Daily Job Resources and SWB and Turnover Intention	
Hypothesis 7. Within hotel employees, daily supervisor support will (a) positively influence PA, (b) positively influence job satisfaction, (c) negatively influence NA, and (d) negatively influence turnover intention.	Supported (See results in table 10)
Hypothesis 8. Within hotel employees, daily coworker support will (a) positively influence PA, (b) positively influence job satisfaction, (c) negatively influence NA, and (d) negatively influence turnover intention.	Supported (See results in table 11)
Hypothesis 9. Within hotel employees, daily job autonomy will (a) positively influence PA, (b) positively influence job satisfaction, (c) negatively influence NA, and (d) negatively influence turnover intention.	H9a, H9c, H9d are supported (See results in table 12)
The Moderating Role of Daily Job Resources	
Hypothesis 10. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily challenge stressors and SWB, such that the negative influence of daily challenge stressors will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.	Partially supported, daily supervisor support is found to moderate challenge stressors – PA relationship, daily job autonomy moderates challenge stressors – PA & NA relationships.
Hypothesis 11. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily hindrance stressors and SWB, such that the negative influence of daily hindrance stressors will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.	Partially supported, daily coworker support is found to moderate hindrance stressors – job satisfaction relationship.

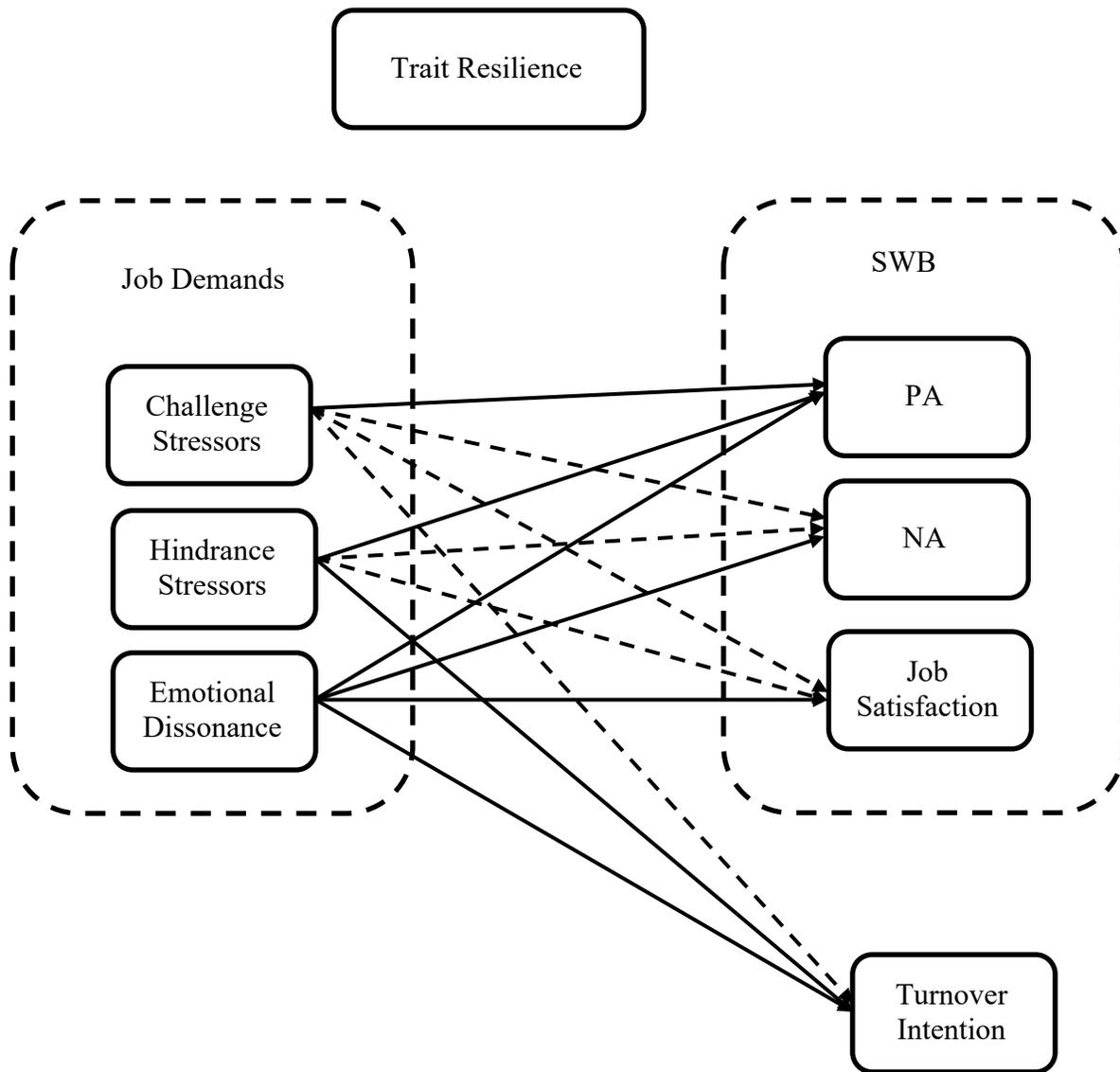
Table 13. continued

<p>Hypothesis 12. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily emotional dissonance and SWB, such that the negative influence of daily emotional dissonance will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.</p>	<p>Partially supported, daily job autonomy is found to moderate dissonance – NA relationship.</p>
<p>Hypothesis 13. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily challenge stressors and turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily challenge stressors will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.</p>	<p>Not supported</p>
<p>Hypothesis 14. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily hindrance stressors and turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily hindrance stressors will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.</p>	<p>Not supported</p>
<p>Hypothesis 15. Daily (a) supervisor support, (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy will moderate the relationship between daily emotional dissonance and turnover intention, such that the negative influence of daily emotional dissonance will be weaker for the people who receive higher (a) supervisor support), (b) coworker support, and (c) job autonomy.</p>	<p>Partially supported, daily job autonomy moderates the dissonance – turnover relationship.</p>



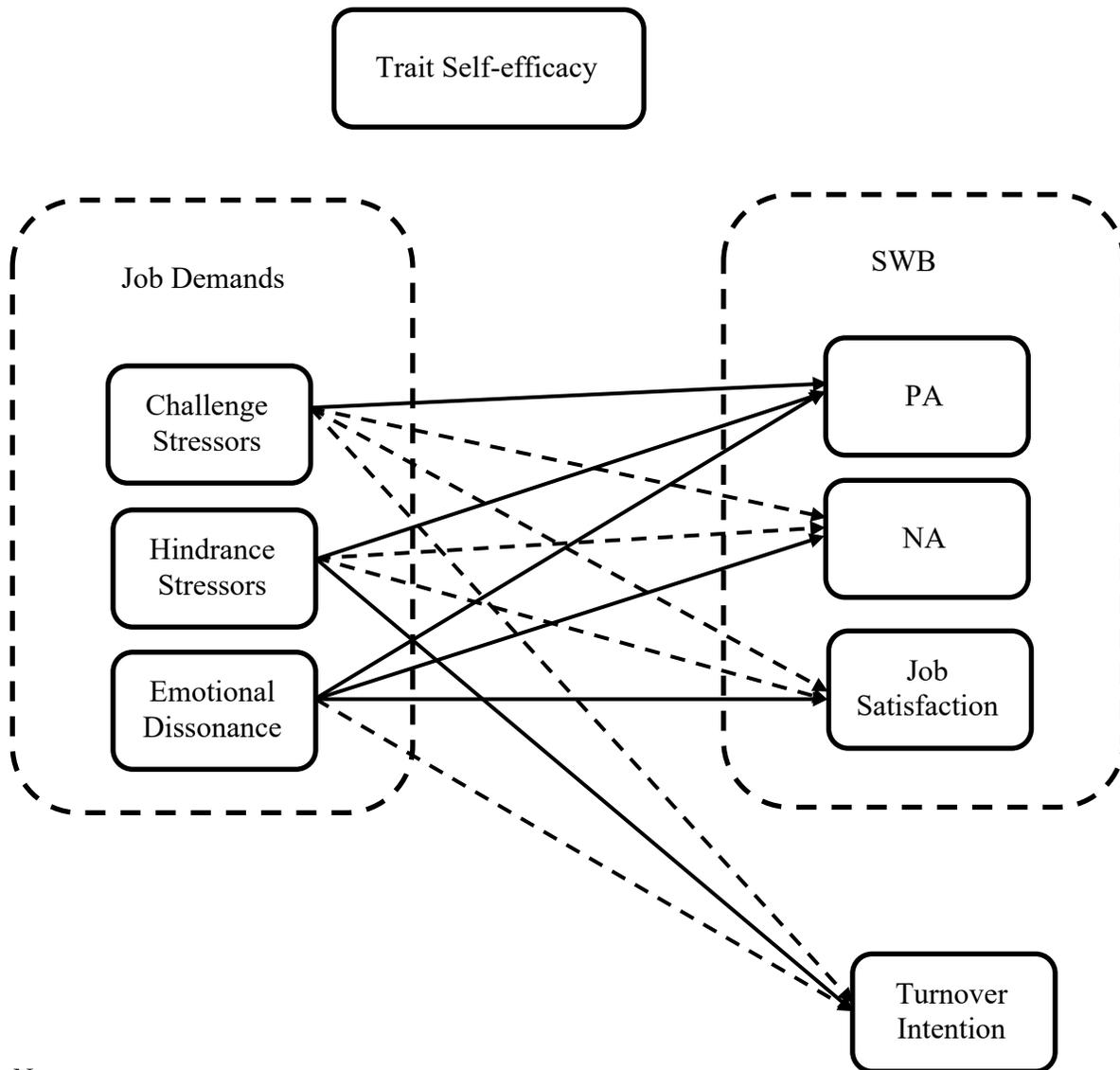
Note.
 Solid lines represent supported hypotheses
 Dotted lines represent unsupported hypotheses

Figure 2. Hypotheses Testing Results for the Daily Direct Relationships



Note.
 Solid lines represent supported hypotheses
 Dotted lines represent unsupported hypotheses

Figure 3. The Cross-level Moderating Effects of Trait Resilience



Note.
 Solid lines represent supported hypotheses
 Dotted lines represent unsupported hypotheses

Figure 4. The Cross-level Moderating Effects of Trait Self-efficacy

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study was designed to understand the within-person relationships among day-specific job demands (challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, and emotional dissonance), job resources (supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy), SWB, and turnover intention. A daily diary study was conducted to capture the dynamic nature of SWB and turnover intention among hotel employees who are in guest-facing positions. Meanwhile, the day-level moderating effects of job resources and the cross-level moderating effects of personal resources (self-efficacy and resilience) were examined.

In this chapter, key findings from hypotheses testing, theoretical implications, practical implications, and limitations and future research directions are discussed. Key findings are summarized into four major sections: (1) direct relationships between daily job demands and SWB and turnover intention, (2) the cross-level moderating role of self-efficacy and resilience, (3) direct relationships between daily job resources and SWB and turnover intention, and (4) the moderating role of daily job resources.

5.1 Discussion of Key Findings from Hypotheses Testing

5.1.1 Direct Relationships between Daily Job Demands and SWB and Turnover Intention

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 stated the relationships between each of the daily job demands (challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, and emotional dissonance) and SWB and turnover intention. SWB includes PA, NA, and job satisfaction. The percentage of within-person differences showed that employees' daily job demands varied within each person on a daily basis, meaning that hotel frontline employees' job tasks and work stressors may be different each day they work. For example, frontline employees in full-service hotels may not need to deal with

guest issues and demanding guests each day. Employees may experience more work stressors on the days when they deal with more highly demanding guests than on the days when they only deal with few highly demanding guests.

Furthermore, the results showed that daily challenge stressors influenced part of the daily SWB, including NA and job satisfaction. This means that controlling for individual differences, including individuals' general level of positive and negative feelings, on the days when employees experience a high workload under time pressure, they are more likely to have negative feelings and lower job satisfaction. Although the daily direct relationships between challenge stressors and PA and turnover intention was not found, a positive relationship was found between daily challenge stressors and PA when considering the day-level supervisor support, day-level job autonomy, person-level self-efficacy, and person-level resilience. This may indicate that for employees who are in hotel industry guest-facing positions and who more easily recover from negative situations or who are more confident, receiving job resources, such as receiving support and are given autonomy at work, consistently on a daily basis helps them to better manage a demanding workload and increased scope of the work in a day.

It is noticeable that the direct relationship between daily challenge stressors and NA is positive, and the relationship between daily challenge stressors and job satisfaction is negative. These results indicate that having a high workload and working on multiples job tasks have a negative impact on full-service hotel frontline employees' overall satisfaction about their work and have a positive influence on increasing employees' negative feelings. In this study, it was argued that challenge stressors are not perceived by frontline employees in full-service hotels in the same way as employees who work standard hours (e.g., employees who work from 9 AM to 5 PM and Monday to Friday). The hindrance stressors and challenge stressors framework of

Cavanaugh et al. (2000) and Crawford et al. (2010) was developed by surveying employees who work standard hours. When employees are occasionally given challenge stressors, they may view those stressors, such as being given opportunities to work on multiple tasks and more job responsibilities, as a type of good stressor which has motivating effects. However, challenge stressors, such as increased scope of the work, high workload, and time pressure, may not have motivating effects for full-service hotel frontline employees because of the frequency with which frontline employees experience these stressors.

As some of the interviewees mentioned in the pilot study, if they were asked to take on multiple tasks, such as helping food & beverage outlets, guest service, and concierge, in the hotel every day for a week, they would not treat receiving multiple tasks as motivational or engaging. Instead, they said they would feel exhausted at work. The finding that challenge stressors may have a negative impact on hotel frontline employees' well-being in this study can be explained by Webster et al. (2011). They stated that individuals' perceptions regarding challenge stressors and hindrance stressors may vary based on different industrial settings, indicating that the working environment may determine how employees perceive different types of work stressors. The results of this study are consistent with some hospitality studies which used a between-person approach. For example, Kang and Jang (2019) found that there is a positive relationship between hospitality employees' work overload (a type of challenge stressors) and turnover intention. Wen, Zhou, Hu, and Zhang (2020) also found that there is a positive relationship between hindrance stressors and burnout among frontline hotel employees. The result of the present study further reveals that work stressors, especially challenge stressors may exert a different influence on hotel employees, and their influence on different work-related outcomes may need to be examined separately.

Daily hindrance stressors were found to be associated with part of SWB (NA and job satisfaction) and turnover intention. The daily relationships between hindrance stressors and NA and turnover intention are positive and the hindrance stressors – job satisfaction relationship is negative. This suggests that every day, employees who receive multiple requests simultaneously, experience role conflict (e.g., receiving conflicting requests from different managers, having conflict between work and non-work), or do not clearly know the work objectives may have more negative feelings at work, think more about leaving the organizations, and feel less happy about their work, and that these negative feelings and intentions to quit can vary each day for the same employee. The results regarding hindrance stressors are consistent with the argument proposed in the hindrance stressors and challenge stressor framework (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Crawford et al., 2010).

Daily emotional dissonance was found to be associated with all three components of SWB and turnover intention. For hotel frontline employees, experiencing emotional dissonance, such as faking emotions or pretending to be happy in front of guests, on a daily basis is a common phenomenon as the guests they deal with are different every day. The results reveal that when full-service hotel frontline employees fake their emotions in front of guests, they are more likely to have negative feelings and think about leaving their organizations, and that from day to day, these feelings and thoughts can vary for each person. Meanwhile, they are less likely to have positive feelings and are less satisfied with their jobs, which can also change on a daily basis for an individual employee.

Although some of the relationships have been examined in previous studies, using a within-person approach to examine the relationship is scarce in the field of hospitality management. The advantage of using MLM is that the model accounts for the individual

differences by adding a random intercept and a random slope in the model. Based on the results from the additional analysis in Chapter 4, each individual's SWB (PA, NA, and job satisfaction) and turnover intention are different (as indicated by the random intercept). Additionally, the influences of each of the daily job demands on SWB and turnover intention is different for each individual (as indicated by the random slope of the daily job demands). The results further support the decision to examine the role of personal resources in this study as they explain the day-level relationships between three job demands and the outcome variables (SWB and turnover intention).

5.1.2 The Cross-level Moderating Role of Personal Resources

Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 stated the cross-level moderating effects of self-efficacy and resilience in the relationships hypothesized between daily job demands and SWB & turnover intention.

Although the direct relationship between daily challenge stressors and PA was not found, a positive relationship was found when considering self-efficacy and resilience. The results showed that a positive relationship only exists among employees who are high in self-efficacy and resilience. The results indicate that among the hotel frontline employees who are high in resilience (e.g., easily recover from negative emotions) or high in self-efficacy (e.g., more confident), experiencing challenge stressors, such as receiving multiple tasks and being asked to complete those tasks within a short time period, is more likely to increase their positive feelings. This finding shows that being resilient and having self-efficacy are critical for hotel employees who are in guest facing positions to better manage the daily challenge stressors. As hotel frontline employees typically deal with guest issues daily, they may be more prone to slipping

into a negative mood after receiving guest abusive treatment, so personal resources, such as resilience and self-efficacy, help them to quickly recover from these negative emotions.

Hypotheses 5 and 6 were not fully supported. However, self-efficacy and resilience were found to reduce the negative influence of hindrance stressors and emotional dissonance on turnover intention and at least part of SWB. The results from hypotheses 5 to 6 further reveal that although hotel frontline employees' demands vary daily, the relatively stable personal resources can help them to better manage the negative influences from these daily job demands from day to day. Specifically, the findings regarding the moderating roles of self-efficacy and resilience (H5) contribute to understanding the influence of daily challenge stressors and helps to explain the inconsistent findings regarding if challenge stressors are viewed more as hindrance stressors by hotel frontline employees. As argued in the literature review, self-efficacy and resilience are two important personal resources for hotel employees. Responding to Min et al.'s (2015) recommendation for future research to consider individual characteristics when examining the challenge stressors and hindrance stressors framework, this study considered self-efficacy and resilience. In addition, the study and its results serve as a response to Kang and Jang's (2019) call for future research to use a diary study to examine how personal resources influence the daily influence of work stressors as work stressors vary due to the dynamics (e.g., flexible work schedules, dealing with different guests daily, working with different people, work contents are not the same daily, etc.) of the work environment in the hotel industry.

Lastly, regarding the role of self-efficacy and resilience in mitigating the negative effect of daily emotional dissonance (H6), the results showed that self-efficacy reduced the influences of daily emotional dissonance on PA, NA, and job satisfaction. Resilience mitigated the influences of emotional dissonance on both SWB (PA, NA, and job satisfaction) and turnover

intention. In general, it indicates that employees who are high in self-efficacy and resilience can better manage the daily negative influences of emotional dissonance on their well-being and intention to leave their jobs even as these change for each individual from day to day. Although emotional dissonance is a common job demand for most service employees, many studies have focused on testing the antecedents and outcomes of emotional dissonance. For example, emotional dissonance has been found to exert negative influences on work-life balance (Hoffmann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2017) and life satisfaction (Alrawadieh, Cetin, Dincer, & Dincer, 2020). However, emotional dissonance may not be viewed as something negative by all individuals. Based on the JD-R model (Bakker et al., 2014), researchers are recommended to consider personal resources when examining the influences of job demands as personal resources could be potential factors to explain individuals' different reactions regarding dealing with same type of job demands. This study shows that for employees who are high in self-efficacy and resilience, experiencing a high emotional dissonance may not always bring negative effects.

5.1.3 Direct Relationships between Daily Job Resources and SWB and Turnover Intention

Although the three job resources were not found to be studied as variables which fluctuate on a daily basis among employees who are in the guest-facing positions and have flexible work schedules prior to this study, many studies conducted among employees who work standard work shifts in less variable environments found they do vary on a daily basis (e.g., Binnewies & Wörnlein, 2011; Pow, King, Stephenson, & DeLongis, 2017; Simbula, 2010). The work schedule for hotel operational employees tends to be different every day. Therefore, it is very common that employees work with different supervisors and coworkers every day. If daily fluctuations can be found in perceived social support and job autonomy among employees who perform standard work, it is likely that employees who perform non-standard work would also

experience fluctuations in these variables and perhaps to a higher degree. This study found that 64% of the variance in perceived supervisor support was attributable to within-person difference, 47% of the variance in coworker support was due to within-person difference, and 59% of the variance in job autonomy was attributable to within-person difference. The within-person differences in these three job resources were found to be higher than the within-person differences of job resources from previous studies using employees who have relatively stable work schedules as the sample. For example, Simbula (2010) found that among public school teachers, 42 % of the variance in coworker support was due to within-person viability. By surveying employees from governmental, health and welfare, and financial industries, Demerouti, Bakker, and Halbesleben (2015) found that a 40% of the variance in job autonomy was attributable to within-person difference. Xanthopoulou et al. (2009b) found a 32% of the variance in supervisor support was due to within-person difference among restaurant employees. Although Xanthopoulou et al. (2009b) used restaurant employees, the participants had the same work schedule daily so most likely worked with the same supervisors each day, and as such did not find as high a variability as this study.

Hypotheses 7, 8, and 9 stated the direct relationships between each daily job resource (supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy) and SWB and turnover intention. Daily supervisor support and coworker support were found to have a positive relationship with daily PA and job satisfaction. A negative relationship was found with daily NA and turnover intention. The results indicate that receiving daily social support from supervisors or coworkers helps to improve employees' positive feelings and their satisfaction with their jobs and reduce negative feelings and desire to quit their jobs. Though the relationships between social support and SWB and turnover intention have been studied, limited studies in the field of hospitality

industry examined the relationship from a within-person perspective. Besides finding the daily relationships between each social support and SWB and turnover intention, the results of ICC also showed that the levels of support that each employee received from their supervisors and coworkers varied on a daily basis for individual employees. Different from employees who work standard hours, such as 9AM to 5PM Monday to Friday, in other industries, and who work with the same people every day, hotel frontline employees may work with different supervisors and coworkers on each shift. Thus, the finding confirms that the daily job resources they receive may vary depending on their work schedules. This may be because employees perceive some supervisors to be more generous in their support, such as helping an employee deal with guest issues, or some coworkers to be better team players, such as agreeing to cover a half-day shift to deal with a family emergency, despite not consistently working with the same people every day.

Regarding the results of daily job autonomy, it was found that job autonomy has a positive relationship with PA and job satisfaction, and a negative relationship with turnover intention. The percentage of within-person differences also indicated that the levels of perceived job autonomy for each employee varied daily. As discussed above, due to the fact that hotel frontline employees may work with different supervisors each day, the job autonomy they are given by each of their supervisors is possibly different. Previous between-person studies on job resources, such as perceived supervisor support, indicated the important role of job resources on improving well-being and reducing turnover intention (e.g., Karatepe et al., 2010; Gordon et al., 2019). Beyond this, the current study used a within-person approach and showed the importance of keeping job resources consistent on a daily basis for individual hotel frontline employees.

Besides discussing the direct influences of daily job resources on SWB and turnover intention, the moderating effects regarding daily job resources are also discussed in the following section.

5.1.4 The Moderating Effects of Daily Job Resources

Hypotheses 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15 stated the moderating effects of daily supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy on the relationships between job demands (daily challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, and emotional dissonance) and SWB and turnover intention. Three of the hypotheses were partially supported. It was found that daily supervisor support and daily job autonomy each moderated the relationship between challenge stressors and SWB, meaning that on the days when employees experienced higher supervisor support and job autonomy, the negative influence of daily challenge stressors was reduced. This suggests that on days when employees multi-tasked more under tight deadlines, supportive actions by supervisors (e.g., supervisors inform employees whether he/she is satisfied with employees' work, supervisors are friendly, and show willingness to offer help) or being given the freedom to determine how to achieve their tasks, alleviated negative feelings and a desire to leave their jobs and induced positive feelings and satisfaction with their jobs. Daily coworker support (e.g., receiving help from coworkers to collaborate in getting the job done, coworkers show willingness to offer helping behaviors in dealing with guest issues, etc.) was found to moderate the daily hindrance stressors and job satisfaction relationship, indicating that on the days when employees felt that they and their coworkers worked together as a team, the negative relationship between daily hindrance stressors (e.g., receiving assignments without enough resources to execute them, receiving conflicting requests from different supervisors, working with multiple work groups who operate differently, etc.) and job satisfaction on that day was reduced. In

addition, it was found that on the days when employees received higher job autonomy, the positive relationship between emotional dissonance and NA did not exist meaning that when employees felt they had more control over their job or freedom in determining how to perform tasks, they did not experience negative feelings even when they had to engage in faking their feelings to deal with a guest or work situation. Daily job autonomy was also found to moderate the emotional dissonance – turnover intention relationship, indicating that employees' day to day thoughts of leaving their jobs after encountering emotional dissonance, were lower when they felt they had more freedom in their work. Although not all of the daily moderating effects of the three job resources on the relationships between job demands and SWB and turnover intention were found, the results indicated that daily job resources can buffer the negative influences caused by daily job demands. A possible reason for the unsupported hypotheses related to the daily moderating role of job resources is that the design of this study aimed at capturing the general daily within-person variability instead of individuals' immediate reactions right after the occurrence of certain work events. For example, it was not found that the three daily job resources moderate the daily relationship between work stressors and turnover intention. It is possible that supervisors or coworkers may only offer help after certain events happen. Therefore, beyond focusing on the general within-person variability, future studies could also examine the supportive behaviors of supervisors and coworkers after various work events by using an ecological momentary assessment.

In summary, a high within-person variability was found in three job resources in this study, showing that employees could receive different levels of supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy on a daily basis. The important roles of supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy have been recognized in many hospitality studies (e.g., Dhar, 2016;

Gordon et al., 2019; Jaiswal & Dhar, 2017; Pow et al., 2017; Shi & Gordon, 2019). Based on the existing findings, this study further found that when full-service hotel frontline employees received different levels of supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy daily, the relationships between job demands and SWB and turnover changed. The findings regarding the within-person variability in this study suggest that future research on hotel frontline employees' well-being or turnover intention should consider the varying levels of job resources instead of treating them as stable constructs.

5.2 Major Conclusions

In conclusion, this study suggests that full-service hotel organizations and managers should care about individual frontline employees' SWB and turnover intention on a more frequent basis. This study shows that frontline employees' SWB and turnover intention may vary on a daily basis; these are not stable phenomena. Thus, one day an employee may experience high well-being, but the next day have low well-being, and one day it may not ever cross an employee's mind to quit his job, but the next day can bring many thoughts of quitting. The primary conclusions under each research objective are summarized below:

The first research objective states a direct relationship between daily job demands and SWB and turnover intention. Overall, it was found that:

- For employees' who are in guest-facing positions in full-service hotels, hindrance stressors (e.g., receiving conflicting requests from different supervisors simultaneously, not clearly knowing work objectives), challenge stressors (e.g. receiving multiple tasks at the same time, working under high pressure), and emotional dissonance (e.g., faking emotions in front of guests even when employees are in a negative mood) can fluctuate on a daily basis by individual employee.

- Controlling for individual differences, including trait PA and trait NA and the momentary PA and NA from employees' non-work domains, receiving these challenge stressors and hindrance stressors are detrimental to employees' daily well-being and both stressors may trigger employees to start thinking about quitting their jobs.
- Controlling for individual differences, including trait PA and trait NA and the momentary PA and NA from employees' non-work domains, experiencing daily emotional dissonance is harmful to frontline employees' daily SWB and turnover intention. The inconsistent levels of emotional dissonance can cause employees' well-being to fluctuate such that on days when an employee engages in faking his emotions more, his well-being may suffer. Furthermore, this may lead to more thoughts of finding another job.

The second research objective states that the person-level moderating effects of self-efficacy and resilience influence the direct relationship between daily job demands and SWB and turnover intention. In general, this study shows that:

- Being able to bounce back from negative situations (resiliency) or having more confidence helps frontline employees to better manage the negative influences of daily work stressors and the negative emotions caused by faking emotions in front of guests.

The third research objective states a direct relationship between daily job resources and SWB and turnover intention. The results indicate that:

- For employees' who are in guest-facing positions in full-service hotels, levels of support from supervisors and coworkers and the ability to perform job tasks independently vary on a daily basis.
- Controlling for individual differences, including trait PA and trait NA and the momentary PA and NA from employees' non-work domains, receiving daily support from

supervisors and coworkers helps to improve individual employee well-being where days with higher levels of support can mean higher employee well-being and lower employee thoughts of leaving.

- Controlling for individual differences, including trait PA and trait NA and the momentary PA and NA from employees' non-work domains, being given the consistent freedom to perform job tasks independently like job autonomy, helps to improve employees' SWB and reduce their intention to quit their jobs.

The last research objective states the moderating effect of daily job resources. Findings indicate that:

- Although daily job demands may vary and exert negative influences on individual employees' SWB and turnover intention, receiving support at work helps to reduce these negative influences in a specific day. For example, on the days when employees receive more support from their coworkers, the negative influence of hindrance stressors, such as receiving conflicting directions from supervisors or not understanding what needs to be accomplished during the shift, on their individual job satisfaction is weaker than on the days when they receive less coworker support.

5.3 Theoretical Implications

This study contributes to the existing literature of hotel employees' SWB and turnover intention in a number of ways.

First of all, by using a within-person approach, this study reveals that hotel frontline employees' SWB is not a stable phenomenon. This study contributes to the theory related to SWB by showing that the differences in SWB not only exist between each person, but also vary within each person on a daily basis among hotel frontline employees. It challenges the traditional

way of only measuring SWB at one timepoint as was done in most of the previous hospitality management SWB studies. Responding to Sonnetag's (2015) call for future research that well-being's changing nature should be highlighted, this study treated SWB (PA, NA, and job satisfaction) as variables that fluctuate on a daily basis. Sonnetag (2015) mentioned that employees' working environment links to the changes and fluctuations in well-being. The working environment in the hotel industry is highly associated with fluctuations in job demands as the guests whom employees serve and the situations they face are different every day. Therefore, SWB among hotel frontline employees should not only be viewed as a stable phenomenon. Consistent with what was argued, the results showed that 45% of variance in PA, 30% of variance in NA, and 59% of variance in job satisfaction were attributable to within-person variability. Drawing from AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), this study attempted to evaluate PA and NA both as a trait and a state. This study did not ignore the fact that individuals have both stable affect, which is a trait, and momentary affect, which is a state. When considering the influences of daily job demands and job resources of SWB (PA, NA, and job satisfaction), the trait PA and trait NA was also controlled. Although the relationship between trait affect and daily affect was not hypothesized, the results showed that individuals who have a higher trait PA, have a higher state PA measured both before and after their work shifts. A positive relationship between trait NA and state NA was also found. The results indicate that trait affect can influence state affect and confirmed the decision to control for trait affect when considering the daily relationship between job demands and SWB & turnover intention. The results show that daily job demands and resources influenced state affect even after controlling for the effects of trait affect. O'Neil and Davis's (2011) study served as a pioneer study to highlight the importance of examining well-being on a daily basis in the field of hospitality

management. They conducted interviews with hotel employees for eight days and examined the daily work stressors and job satisfaction. They took a qualitative approach and showed that employees may experience different levels of work stressors and job satisfaction. However, their study did not reflect what percentage was caused by within-person variability and between-person variability respectively. Furthermore, the present study found that job satisfaction also has the affective component as indicated by AET. As a variable which may change frequently, the traditional way of studying job satisfaction may not be ideal to show its dynamic nature.

Another important contribution is that the current study shows turnover intention among hotel frontline employees is not a stable phenomenon. The current study contributes to the existing hotel turnover literature by integrating AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and the unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). This study argued that a “shock to the system” in the unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover can be linked with the idea of “work events” in AET. Based on AET, work environmental features may cause a variety of work events, which in turn cause fluctuations in employees’ affective reactions. “Shocks to the system” are defined as different events, including events that happen at the workplace, which may influence employees’ turnover intention (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). If the frequency of work events increases, it is reasonable to infer that the variability in turnover intention may also increase. Noticeably, this study found that 47% of the variance in turnover intention was attributable to within-person variability, indicating that hotel frontline employees’ turnover intention can fluctuate daily within each person. Some studies have applied a longitudinal design to examine the changing nature of turnover intention (e.g., Chen et al., 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005; Vandenberghe, Panaccio, Bentein, Mignonac, & Roussel, 2011). However, these previous studies focused on the long-term changes in turnover intention

and might have ignored the idea that turnover intention may fluctuate in the short term depending on the characteristics of different industrial settings. This study advances the work in turnover literature to show that besides capturing the long-term changing nature of turnover intention, the short-term change in turnover intention should also be examined. Based on Shipp and Cole (2015), examining timing issues can reflect a construct's change over time. This study reveals that for employees who work in organizations which have more dynamic natures, turnover intention possibly fluctuates on a daily basis, and thus, future studies should consider this.

Thirdly, using a daily diary study can be viewed as a new approach for studying employees' well-being and turnover intention in the field of hospitality management. Employing a daily diary study reduces recall bias because the data are real-time data regarding individuals' perceptions or behaviors, and are collected in their natural work environments (Shiffman, Stone, & Hufford, 2007). Diaries are a class of methods, such as ESM, and ESM not only captures the changing state over time, but also indicates how trait-level emotions influence the affective momentary state (Ohly, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Zapf, 2010). In this study, besides capturing the relationships among the daily variables of interest and showing the within-person variability in these variables, trait PA and trait NA were also considered in the analysis. Results showed that individuals who are higher in trait PA experienced higher daily PA measured before and after they started their work shifts. In contrast, individuals who are higher in trait NA experienced higher daily NA measured before and after they started their work shifts. Considering the nested structure of data has many benefits as described by Bryk and Raudenbush (1992). MLM is also called a random coefficient model in which level 1 parameters are allowed to vary across person (in this study, the data structure is "days are nested within each person") and the variance and

covariance of level 2 residuals (person-level residuals) are also estimated. In this study, the random intercept and the random slope of the focal dependent variables were estimated, showing that individuals display different levels of PA, NA, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. In addition, the random slopes shows that the relationship between the focal independent variables (e.g., emotional dissonance) and SWB and turnover intention vary across person. This approach is different from ordinal least square regression (OLS) as OLS cannot separate level 2 (person-level) variance from level 1 (day-level) residuals and assumes that all of the parameters being estimated are fixed (Ohly et al., 2010). This study specifically considers day-level and person-level relationships. As most of the organizational data has the nested structure, it is recommended to consider team level (e.g., perceived team climate in innovation or as support) and organizational level influences by using MLM (e.g., perceived organizational support or organizational culture) beyond the findings from this study.

Fourthly, the above findings of the random intercept and random slope indicate the necessity of considering individual differences when examining the within-person relationships among job demands, job resources, SWB, and turnover intention. Besides controlling for trait PA and trait NA, this study also considered the role of trait resilience and trait self-efficacy as two important personal resources among hotel employees. Based on the hindrance stressors and challenge stressors framework, challenge stressors may more positively influence employees and hindrance stressors may exert negative influences. Although the work stressors – SWB & turnover intention relationships have been examined in previous studies, the results regarding the influences of hindrance stressors and challenge stressors are not consistent. For example, Crawford et al. (2000) showed that challenge stressors were found to be positively related to work engagement and hindrance stressors were found to be negatively related to work

engagement. Further, they found that both challenge stressors and hindrance stressors have a positive relationship with burnout. Karatepe et al. (2014) found a positive relationship between challenge stressors and work engagement among hotel frontline employees. Olugbade and Karatepe (2019) found that hotel guest-facing employees' challenge stressors were negatively related to work engagement. Stiglbauer (2018) showed that both hindrance stressors and challenge stressors are associated with highly activated unpleasant affect, such as feeling anxious, tense, upset, and discouraged among executive employees from the fields of production and retail. The present study contributes to the hindrance stressors and challenge stressors framework by considering the roles of self-efficacy and resilience. The results showed that for hotel frontline employees, they may view challenge stressors more as hindrance stressors, which may be different from employees who are doing standard work. Also, although a direct relationship between daily challenge stressors and PA was not found, it was found that there is a positive relationship between challenge stressors and PA for people who are high in self-efficacy or high in resilience. The roles of self-efficacy and resilience were also found to influence the relationships between two work stressors and other outcome variables. For example, it was found that the daily negative influences of hindrance stressors on PA and turnover intention only exist among individuals who are low in self-efficacy or low in resilience, meaning that the negative influences of having role conflicts from multiple supervisors or experiencing conflicts between work and non-work on a certain day only influences employees who are low in resilience or low in self-efficacy. The approach of considering person-level variables when examining the daily relationships between job demands and SWB & turnover intention also responded to the recommendations from Bakker (2015) and Bakker and Demerouti (2016) that integrating

multiple levels when using the JD-R theory helps to differentiate between trait and state variables and indicate their interactions.

The current study shows that personal resources play a pivotal role in influencing the direct relationship between daily job demands and SWB and turnover intention, and as such, future research should continue to consider the roles of other personality traits and also consider the influence of the overall working environment of different industries. Based on the findings from previous studies on work stressors and the findings from the current study, there is no confirmed answer regarding if challenge stressors consistently have positive influences or negative influences. The results may vary depending the specific outcome variables, the nature of the industry, and the individual differences being considered in the study.

Lastly, this study also considered how daily job resources influence the relationships between daily job demands and SWB & turnover intention. This study found that 64% variance in supervisor support, 47% variance in coworker support, and 59% variance in job autonomy were attributable to within-person differences, indicating that these job resources can fluctuate daily and showing the work environment in the hotel industry is very dynamic. Beyond that, this study further found that levels of daily job resources buffer the negative influences of daily job demands on SWB and turnover intention. For example, this study found that on the days when employees received high coworker support, the negative relationship between daily hindrance stressors and job satisfaction is weaker than on days when employees received low coworker support. This indicates that future studies should measure daily job resources on a more frequent basis as the levels of support hotel frontline employees receive from their supervisors and coworkers, and the levels of autonomy they are given can fluctuate frequently depending on the people with whom each employees will work.

In summary, by integrating AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), the unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994), and the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), this study found that the working environment for hotel frontline employees is quite dynamic as work stressors, emotional dissonance, support received from supervisors and coworkers, and perceived job autonomy can fluctuate on a daily basis. The affective and cognitive perceptions, such as SWB and turnover intention also vary on a daily basis. To reduce the possible negative influences of daily job demands, the roles of both daily job resources and personal resources were found to be useful, and thus, future academic work should consider these aspects.

5.4 Practical Implications

This study has several practical implications for managers and hotel companies.

5.4.1 The Importance of Measuring Daily SWB

As it was shown in the results, this study found that hotel frontline employees' individual SWB vary on a daily basis. It offers managers of full-service hotels, including upscale hotels and luxury hotels, important information regarding using different approaches to measure SWB related variables, such as job satisfaction, through annual surveys of employees. The traditional hotel employee job satisfaction or work engagement survey is usually conducted once or twice per year. Hotel companies typically use the results to evaluate whether or not their employees are happy. Considering that employees' well-being is not stable, using a static way to measure these variables may ignore the fact that employees' emotions may change depending on the work events. Although most relationships between daily job demands and SWB show similar directions (e.g., positive or negative) as results from between-person designed studies, this study

took a further step to show that there is a within-person variability in the variables that were tested, indicating that it is possible for an individual employee to perceive more positive emotions today, but more negative emotions tomorrow. For example, this may be due to the employee receiving more supervisor support and experiencing less emotional dissonance today, but receiving less supervisor support tomorrow and experiencing more emotional dissonance tomorrow. Measuring employees' perceptions on a more frequent basis gives hotel organizations a more realistic picture of how employee well-being fluctuates and also allows them to determine what situations or actions by others influenced them in a way that an annual survey cannot.

5.4.2 The Importance of Measuring Employees' Intention to Stay

As the first known study which found hotel frontline employees' turnover intention may vary on a daily basis, this study suggests that hotel organizations should give equal attention to the variables related to employees' intention to stay as to well-being related variables, such as job satisfaction and work engagement. In most hotel companies' annual surveys, turnover intention-related constructs are not covered. It is possible that using negative wording, such as turnover intention, may trigger employees' negative emotions and negative feelings. Therefore, based on the results of this study, it is recommended that hotel companies start measuring turnover intention, but that they rephrase it as intention to stay when they design questions for a survey. However, annual surveys are not representative of those who left throughout the year and thus, do not capture what may have caused their voluntary turnover. Since turnover intention can fluctuate on a daily basis, it is prudent to measure it on a frequent basis. Different from the traditional one-time survey approach, measuring intention to stay more often will capture employees' immediate thoughts about staying with an organization and help companies to implement preemptive strategies to retain employees.

In summary, this study's results help demonstrate to managers in the hotel industry the need to capture employees' momentary feelings on a regular basis. Furthermore, it provides evidence that managers should monitor individual employees who may be experiencing several days of low well-being or high turnover intention in order to intervene, which may otherwise go unnoticed. Managers can take immediate actions, such as talking to employees one-on-one to help them to solve the issues. Traditionally, managers are required to make departmental action plans after employees' completion of yearly employee work engagement or job satisfaction surveys, which may ignore individual employee needs since a "one size fits all" approach may not adequately improve individual employee well-being or retention of an individual employee. This traditional way is not proactive in addressing well-being or turnover related issues especially given that well-being and turnover intention may fluctuate daily based on the results from this study and vary by individual.

In the following section, the use of pulse surveys are discussed and recommended to help managers in full-service hotels capture employees' immediate thoughts.

5.4.3 Using Pulse Surveys to Capture Momentary SWB and Turnover Intention

Some tools, such as staff pulse surveys, have been developed to help managers understand employees' emotions in real-time, but may not been widely used in the hotel industry. The work environment is very dynamic and work events can be very different depending on aspects such as the occupancy rate, the number of events hosted in the hotel, the types of guests served, etc. A staff pulse survey can be implemented to capture individual employees' SWB, turnover intention, or other variables that hotels care about. The staff pulse survey is designed with the aim to capture employees' immediate insights and to understand employees' mental or health well-being in a more frequent basis, such as daily or weekly. Firstly,

it can be used to check if employees' daily SWB has improved after giving some interventions. For example, many full-service hotels have designed and implemented wellness related programs aimed at improving individual employees' mental and emotional well-being. Although most full-service hotels have wellness-related programs available, they may not have paid attention to whether or not the programs can satisfy employees' needs and if employees are engaged with the programs. It is recommended that the HR department do a pre-investigation survey regarding the types of wellness programs that employees desire. After deciding the type of the program that will be implemented, the HR department can get department heads involved in increasing employees' awareness and encouraging employees' participation. Then, a pulse survey strategy can be specifically designed to capture the real-time effectiveness of a program and pinpoint those employees who may need more support from the program. For example, a survey can be implemented before, during, and after the implementation of the program to examine if employees' well-being has improved. Another benefit of using the pulse survey is that the questions can be modified depending on the results from the first intervention. If the results from the pulse survey showed that the intervention does not make any difference in improving employees' daily SWB and management decides to change the intervention, the questions can be revised to check the effectiveness of the changes on a daily basis.

Secondly, a pulse survey can also be used to capture how certain types of work events influence employees' SWB and turnover intention. For example, many full-service hotels are very busy during the holiday season in December as they have a variety of holiday events, such as Christmas tree lighting events and New Year's celebrations for all hotel guests or several catered events for groups and organizations, which may include group guests who are staying at the hotel and local non-hotel group guests. The management team can design and implement an

employee job satisfaction survey before, during, and after major events in December to see how employees' SWB varies and if SWB is influenced by these major events. If employees frequently experience lower job satisfaction or higher negative emotions during December compared to other time periods, it may offer the management team information regarding the necessity of preventing employees from experiencing negative emotions during busy seasons or other times of high-volume. Using the pulse survey strategy, hotels can summarize a list of major work events that may influence employees' well-being and turnover intention. Many apps or websites that offer pulse survey also provide an online discussion function in a forum. During the occurrence of major events, employees can register an account anonymously and post daily challenges whenever they occur. Based on the concerns that employees post, managers can deal with the situation or escalate it to the senior leaders immediately. It is not suggested that employees and managers do it every day during the busy season. Managers can select a couple of days to ask employees to post their concerns if they want to know employees' well-being and intention to stay during a major event in the hotel. Also, the management team could have it open all the time so employees can make comments and suggestions as they want. The first time hotels employ this strategy, it may mainly serve as a tool for generating information. However, once hotels do this consistently, they will generate a database which can be used for planning and preparing for future work events. Also, for some hotels, some major events only last for two or three days. If this is the situation, employees may not necessarily post concerns daily. Managers can ask employees to summarize all the challenges they have met right after the happening of the major event, and again use this to prepare for the next occurrence of that type of event.

5.4.4 Improving Daily Social Support and Job Autonomy

Three job demands and three job resources were all found to fluctuate on a daily basis. Firstly, the findings regarding the within-person variabilities in challenge stressors, hindrance stressors, and emotional dissonance are consistent with what was argued. The results inform managers that hotel frontline employees experience different levels of work stressors and emotional dissonance every day. To find out how to reduce the negative influences of daily job demands, the moderating roles of daily supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy were also tested. The current literature regarding employees' well-being and turnover intention have shown the importance of offering social support and giving employee job autonomy at work (e.g., Ariza-Montes, Arjona-Fuentes, Han, & Law, 2018; Gordon et al., 2019; Thompson & Prottas, 2005). One thing which has been neglected is how to ensure supervisors and coworkers offer helping behaviors consistently daily. This study found that individual employees perceived all three job resources, including perceived supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy, to be at different levels on a daily basis, indicating that they are not getting consistent levels of support or being given regular autonomy to perform their work. It was also found that on the days when employees perceived that they received more job resources, the negative influence of job demands on SWB or turnover intention was diminished or disappeared. Therefore, some strategies are proposed to keep the job resources that employees receive daily consistent. In the front office and food & beverage departments of full-service upscale and luxury hotels such as the ones from which the participants in this study came, the management structure typically includes one department manager or director plus many assistant managers and supervisors. The managers and supervisors can be different for each work shift, which could be the reason that employees perceive different levels of supervisor support daily.

First, while many strategies have been offered regarding training supervisors to support their employees, this study recommends that besides training, a monitoring system could be established to check if the supervisors and managers in each work shift follow the directions. The management team can use a pulse survey as an approach to randomly select a couple of days when employees rate how supportive their supervisors are, which can be done multiple times per year. Questions related to supervisors' supportive behaviors can be added in the "employees rate supervisors" survey. Adding open-end questions regarding supervisors' specific helping behaviors is also recommend. This information will be helpful for the management team or the HR department to set initial expectations and provide good examples of behavior. Based on the pulse survey results each time, the management team can discuss the results with supervisors or managers who are rated by their employees and give them immediate and constructive feedback to improve or reinforce continuing the behavior. The HR department can save and track the results from each survey. Many companies have started to conduct performance reviews of managers and supervisors more frequently through a more fluid performance appraisal system in lieu of the annual review; thus, hotel companies can incorporate the "employees rate supervisors" results from the pulse surveys as a new criterion to evaluate supervisors' work performance in supervisors' or managers' on-going performance review. In addition, a percent of their merit raise could be tied to the criterion expectations to reward the supervisors who consistently achieve good results in order to ensure they continue to provide support to employees. In summary, conducting the "employees rate supervisors" survey will bring two major benefits to the hotel companies. First, it is a proactive approach to gather employees' immediate thoughts about their supervisors. As supervisors' supportive behavior is not a stable phenomenon, measuring it by using a one-time survey on a fixed date will not be efficient to

encourage supervisors to keep up the supportive behaviors consistently. Second, incorporating it into managers' on-going performance reviews will motivate managers to provide consistent support to employees and keep them aware of its importance.

Second, due to different supervisors and managers on each work shift, it is possible that the level of job autonomy employees are given is different. Although each department in the hotel has a standard operating procedure (SOP), it may not include procedures regarding how to address special situations. Employees who are in guest-facing positions often need to make immediate decisions to address guest issues in the absence of their supervisors and managers and these situations may not have occurred while they were getting on-the-job training. Examples of some of these special situations are guests requesting special food which is not on the menu and cannot be cooked by the kitchen, guests checking into a room and finding other people occupying it, etc. It is recommended that each department could develop guidelines regarding dealing with all kinds of special situations and train both managers and employees to follow. To track how effectively supervisors follow the guidelines, the pulse survey approach used to track daily supervisor support is also recommended. The management team could pick a couple of days or weeks to have employees to rate the levels of autonomy they are given by supervisors. Besides rating the levels of autonomy, they could also report the specific actions they take to solve different guest issues. The management team can use the information to evaluate supervisors' performance regarding offering autonomy. Furthermore, by knowing employees' real actions regarding dealing with each type of guest issue, the management team could better understand the gap between supervisors' actions and the expected guidelines set up by each department. Managers could also ask employees to share examples of the actions they took

during pre-shift meetings to help other employees learn how to handle those isolated situations, which would reinforce the trust managers have in employees to be autonomous.

Third, with regards to coworker support, the pulse survey can also be conducted among colleagues to have them rate how supportive their coworkers are in each work shift. The results from this study show that hotel frontline employees experience different levels of support from their coworkers daily. Furthermore, on the days when high levels of coworker support is received, the negative influences of hindrance stressors on job satisfaction are mitigated. Similar as the strategies used to track supervisor support and job autonomy, the pulse survey approach could also be applied among employees to have each employee comment on other colleagues' supportive behaviors. The new evaluation approach can be conducted several times per year over a couple of days per time. The new approach can be combined into the existing employees' reward system and annual performance review to establish and encourage a daily helping climate in food & beverage and front office departments as well as across departments to establish a hotel-wide helping climate.

5.4.5 Managing Daily Work Stressors

Regarding the findings of frontline employees' challenge stressors, it was found that challenge stressors have a positive relationship with NA and a negative relationship with job satisfaction. This indicates that frontline employees in full-service hotels may view challenge stressors more as hindrance stressors, and thus, not motivational. Examples of challenge stressors are high work overload, scope of the work, increased job responsibilities, etc. Based on interviews in the pilot study, some participants mentioned that when they were given more job responsibilities, such as helping other food & beverage outlets and are given job tasks beyond their job responsibilities, they felt valued and were engaged. However, if they are frequently

asked to support other departments or are required to complete multiple tasks under time pressure, they will not feel engaged. For example, one participant, who was a restaurant employee at a luxury hotel, mentioned that she used to be asked to support a café in her hotel almost every day for a couple of weeks. Another participant, who was a front office agent at an upscale hotel, mentioned that she was always asked to help with the guest service team or concierge when the hotel occupancy rate was high. She said that the occupancy rate was always around 100% in July and she had to do multiple job tasks every day for a month. Both of the two participants said they were willing to help at the beginning and were motivated due to the potential to be promoted. However, after doing that for a while without being rewarded, they lost direction at work and got confused about their actual job responsibilities. Thus, managers should be careful not to overload employees with tasks employees may consider to be challenge stressors and motivational at first, but that become hindrance stressors, especially in larger, full-service hotels where employees could easily be lost in a sea of employees and overlooked by managers with whom they have not built relationships when working outside of their home department.

As described by Pienaar and Willemsse (2008), hotel employees deal with stressful situations and experience high workload frequently. Therefore, they may be more likely to view challenge stressors, such as increased job responsibilities, as demotivating. Dealing with challenge stressors frequently may have the same harmful results on frontline employees as hindrance stressors have. Management teams in full-service hotels may not use the same approach to engage employees who are in guest-facing positions as employees from non-operational departments, such as human resources, sales & marketing, and finance, as those departments may be more motivated by challenge stressors given their more routine work

environments. Hotels that are concerned with improving employees' SWB and reducing turnover intention would benefit from paying more attention to the daily levels of both challenge stressors and hindrance stressors. In full-service hotels, frontline employees' individual challenge and hindrance stressors may be higher during busy seasons, such as holidays or convention season when several large groups are in-house. It is more likely for frontline employees to work on multiple tasks, support other outlets (e.g., restaurant servers support other food & beverage outlets, front office agents support guest service employees to direct VIP guests to the rooms, etc.), and possibly have more conflicts by receiving conflicting directions from different supervisors. To alleviate both daily hindrance and challenge stressors during these special time periods, the operational departments (e.g., food & beverage, front office, housekeeping) could seek out the assistance of non-operational departments (e.g., human resources, sales & marketing, finance) to contribute some hours in the operation and schedule this in advance rather than scrambling for assistance with a large check-in or helping with a banquet plate-up the day of the event. Beyond that, it is recommended that the management team follow the approaches previously suggested to increase daily job resources, including supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy, to manage hotel frontline employees' daily work stressors as providing daily job resources were found to help frontline employees to better manage the daily negative influences from high workload, increased scope of work, and receiving conflicting requests from different supervisors. For example, when conducting the pulse survey to monitor supervisors' or coworkers' supportive behaviors during the selected days, questions regarding dealing with daily work stressors can also be incorporated in the questionnaire to further check if supervisors offer consistent helping behaviors and how the helping behaviors help frontline employees to manage their daily work stressors. Additionally, the discussion forum function

from the pulse survey can be used daily for managers or supervisors to better monitor and manage frontline employees' immediate concerns about work and address the concerns quickly. Furthermore, it is suggested that during the busy season, when managers or supervisors decide to send employees to support other departments, managers need to make the schedules wisely and fairly to avoid the situation where only the same group of employees perform multiple tasks every day and to reduce the possibility that employees may view supporting others as a discouraging behavior. In addition, hotels may consider covering employees' transportation expenses or gas mileage during those days. Some full-service hotels offer employees' certain benefits of transportation, for example, offering a discount price to park in the hotel's parking garage or other garages nearby. However, the management team could consider relaxing the charge during the busy season. For employees who have to work back to back or work on multiple shifts without a break, the company could consider offering several free parking tickets or cover a certain percentage of the transportation expense, such as bus or subway fares. In addition, hotels could give extra vacation days to employees who have to support multiple departments and work multiple shifts back-to-back to incentivize employees to handle high work stressors during those days. Lastly, the employee cafeteria could offer late night dinner during busy seasons. This will be especially important during holiday seasons as frontline employees in the banquet department are likely to work past midnight and then come back to work again in the early morning.

5.4.6 Considering Individual Differences

Besides recommending to offer consistent supervisor support, coworker support, and job autonomy daily, this study recommends management teams pay more attention to individual differences, such as self-efficacy(e.g., being confident to deal with the current situations) and

resilience (e.g., being able to recover from negative situations quickly). Though many full-service hotels include personality testing as part of the selection process, this study indicates that trait self-efficacy and trait resilience could be two important factors that can mitigate the daily negative influences of different types of job demands, such as work stressors and faking emotions in front of guests. The design of a daily diary study also revealed that the levels of work stressors, emotional dissonance, perceived support from supervisor and coworker, job autonomy, SWB, and turnover intention are different for each employee. Furthermore, the relationships among the above variables also differ for each individual. These findings highlight the importance of considering individual differences when designing programs to reduce the negative influences of job demands because for certain types of individuals, such as people who are high in resilience and self-efficacy, they may not view job demands as something negative. Therefore, it is reasonable to include online questionnaire tests regarding self-efficacy and resilience as part of the selection process. Besides incorporating them into the selection procedure, it is also possible to use training to increase employees' self-efficacy and resilience. Though resilience and self-efficacy are seen as relatively stable, previous studies showed that conducting a resilience building program can help to increase participants' resilience (McCraty & Atkinson, 2012). Axtell and Parker (2004) found that work redesign and training regarding increasing work skills and competence can also increase employees' self-efficacy. The traditional one-day or two-day training is not an ideal approach to check the effectiveness of offering the training program. Beyond suggesting offering resilience and self-efficacy training, this study recommends that the personal resources training should be incorporated with the survey design regarding tracking employees' momentary SWB and turnover intention by using the pulse survey. First, the HR department can launch a baseline survey to measure employees'

resilience and self-efficacy. Second, a diary survey can be designed to track employees' momentary well-being and how they deal with the daily job demands. After the first two steps, the HR department can offer the traditional one-day or two-day training of resilience and self-efficacy. As resilience and self-efficacy are similar to the personality traits, which do not vary frequently, it is recommended that the HR department can wait for a couple of months and repeat the first two steps again to check the effectiveness of the training.

5.5 Limitations and Future Research Direction

This study has some limitations and can provide directions for future studies. First, as one of the first studies to examine the daily variability in hotel employees' SWB and turnover intention, this study mainly focused on using employees who are in guest-facing positions, which may limit the scope of the study. Future research can also include operational department employees who are in non-guest facing positions, such as housekeeping room attendants, because they are also typically scheduled to work with different supervisors and coworkers. Thus, it is also likely that the daily job resources among employees who are in non-guest facing positions will fluctuate. In addition, future research could also focus on employees who are in positions which do not involve in dealing with guest issues (e.g., employees from finance, HR, engineering, etc.) to examine if the fluctuations in SWB and other emotion-related variables will be the same compared to employees who are in operational departments. The comparisons between different employee groups will offer further insights regarding the frequency of implementing well-being related surveys and the actions that hotel companies can take.

Second, besides capturing the momentary thoughts of hourly paid employees, future studies should also consider managers in the hotel industry. As a group of people who are in the middle of hourly employees and the executive leaders, the well-being of managers who directly

manage operational departments like front office and food and beverage needs to be taken care of as well. Similar to hourly employees, salary-paid managers in this industry also have a high turnover and the high turnover may influence their commitment to their organizations (Hemdi & Rahman, 2010). Although this study offers practical strategies, such as using pulse survey to examine the consistency of supervisors' helping behaviors and to reduce daily job demands of hourly employees, reducing managers' turnover intention is also key in retaining employees. Offering supervisor support to managers in the hotel industry has been found to increase their work engagement (Shi & Gordon, 2019). Therefore a future study can conduct an ESM study to examine the following questions: (1) How managers perceive daily work stressors? (2) If the consistency of executive leaders' supportive behaviors helps to increase managers' well-being and intention to stay?

Third, this study takes the first step to show that employees' daily job demands, job resources, SWB, and turnover intention fluctuate during a shorter time of periods. The design of the current study does not show if the variability influences the long-term changing or development of SWB and turnover intention. For future research, it will be meaningful to combine a daily diary study design with a longitudinal design to explore how shorter-term fluctuations of job demands are linked to the long-term change trajectories of well-being or turnover intention. For example, a potential research question is: for people who experience a more frequent shorter-term fluctuations in job demands, are they more likely to experience lower SWB over the long-term? Another research questions is: for people who experience a high variability in turnover intention, are they more likely to actually leave their organizations?

Fourth, due to the scope of the current research, only a two-level model was examined, with day level variables are nested within each individual. Besides considering the person-level

differences, such as self-efficacy and resilience, it is possible that team climate in each department and the organizational culture in different hotels also influence how employees react to different types of daily job demands and how they feel about working for the companies. For example, Ortiz-Bonnín, García-Buades, Caballer, and Zapf (2016) found that for employees who perceive their organizations to have a supportive climate, they are less likely to be influenced by emotional dissonance and less likely to experience emotional exhaustion. Koopmann, Lanaj, Wang, Zhou, and Shi (2016) found that when a psychological safety climate at team level is perceived to be strong, the average team member's task performance is high.

Beyond the influences from team level and organization level, a broader influence from the job market can also impact how organizations help employees to deal with daily work stressors. In addition, policies (e.g., training opportunities) from the corporate level may influence how each individual hotel encourages supervisors' supportive behaviors, which might influence how individual employees deal with work stressors on a daily basis. By using MLM, a three level or four level multi-level model can be designed to examine the cross level interactions between day level, person level, department level, and organization level variables. Thus, a couple of potential research questions that can be explored are: (1) How does the departmental level supportive climate influence employees' reactions to job demands? (2) How does the within-department change over time in supportive climate influence employees' perceived job demands? (3) How does the job market in different cities influence hotel organizations' recruitment and retention policies? To answer this question, an organization would be a level 1 variable and the job market situations in different cities would be a level 2 variable in the analysis.

Next, although ESM has the advantage of maximizing ecological validity (Shiffman et al., 2008), the design of the current study may not be able to capture all of the important moments or events at the workplace considering the workplace in the hotel industry is very dynamic. This study just took one approach to conduct ESM. As the purpose of the study was to capture the daily variations, this study did not require participants to start the diary study on a specific date. Instead, participants were asked to start the dairy survey based on their preference and availability after they registered. The schedule for participants to complete the surveys each day was consistent (the first one is before the work shift and the second one is after the work shift). Besides capturing variations, ESM can also be designed to capture individuals' immediate reaction to certain types of events. Such a design is called ecological momentary assessment (EMA). In the workplace of the hotel industry, there are a variety of work events, such as dealing with guest issues, an extremely high occupancy rate for a couple of days, experiencing frequent service quality auditing in a week, etc. Future research can specifically focus on examining how employees react after experiencing certain types of events. The time of completing the surveys will not be fixed, but will be determined by when the work events happen. In chapter 4, the reasons of the unsupported hypotheses related to the moderating role of daily job resources were discussed. One potential reason is that supervisors or coworkers may only offer support when there are guest issues or when it is necessary. As the current study does not focus on capturing specific work events and the work events (e.g., guest issues, high occupancy rate, large group check-in, etc.) may not happen daily, this study may not capture supervisors' or coworkers' helping behaviors in certain types of unusual events at work. Future research could examine several types of work events which happen frequently (e.g., dealing with abusive guests, working on multiple shifts during the busy seasons) in the hotel industry.

Lastly, the current research only considered employees' perception in work domains. For example, it was examined how employees' daily job demands influence their immediate SWB and turnover intention. It is also possible that the factors related to non-work domains, such as mood at home and family satisfaction, will also influence employees' perceptions at the workplace. In this study, participants reported their PA and NA before they started their work shift to control the influences from non-work domains. Future research could also examine how hotel employees' daily well-being related to work domains influences daily well-being related to non-work domains (e.g., family satisfaction, work to life conflict, etc.) or vice versa. One broad research direction is examining the spillover from emotions in work domains into employees' emotion in non-work domains. A daily diary study can be designed to measure whether employees' job demands or what they experience at work influences their daily family satisfaction and sleep quality.

APPENDIX A. RECRUITMENT MESSAGE

Recruitment Message for Interview Participants

Dear hotel employees:

We are conducting this study to better explore hotel employees' daily well-being at work. Your participation and feedback are very important to ensuring the results of this survey accurately represent hotel employees.

If you agree to participate in the study, you will be interviewed by a researcher for about 30 minutes regarding your attitudes about the work environment in the hotel industry. Participation in this study is voluntary and you will not be asked for any identifying information. Your confidentiality will be assured. Please note that you must be at least 18 years old to participate.

If you are interested, please click the link below to read and sign the consent form. It will give you more information about the study, detailed procedures, and your rights.

Thank you for taking the time to provide your valuable input.

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Recruitment Message for Diary Study Participants in Major Study

Dear hotel employees:

We are conducting this study to better understand hotel employees' daily well-being at work. Your participation and feedback are very important to ensuring the results of this survey accurately represent hotel employees. In order to be qualified for participating the study, you have to meet the following criteria:

- You are a full-time employee
- You are hourly paid
- You are currently working in the front house of the Food & Beverage Department or Front Office Department
- You only have one job, meaning you are only working for your current hotel

If you agree to participate in the study, you will be asked to do a one-time survey first and then a five-day diary study two times per day regarding your attitudes about the work environment in the hotel industry. The one-time survey will take you between 10 and 15 minutes to finish. For the five-day diary study, you only need to take the surveys on the days that you work. There are two surveys on each working day. The first one will be before you start your shift and it will take you no more than 1 minute. The second one will be right after your shift and it will take you approximately 10 minutes to finish.

The compensation for the one-time survey is \$3 and the compensation for the two surveys on each working day is \$5 as long as 90% of the items for each survey are answered. In order to receive any compensation, which will be in the form of an Amazon gift card, you need to complete the one-time baseline survey and at least three daily surveys. For the daily survey, you need to complete both the one before you start your shift and the one after you finish your shift. Therefore, the minimum compensation you can earn is \$18 and the maximum compensation you can earn is \$28. At the end of the study, those who completed all five days of the surveys will be entered into a raffle for a \$100 Amazon gift card. The table below shows the situations that you will be paid and the situations that you will not be paid.

Baseline survey	√	√	√	√	√	√
1st day two surveys		√	√	√	√	√
2nd day two surveys			√	√	√	√
3rd day two surveys				√	√	√
4th day two surveys					√	√
5th day two surveys						√
Total Compensation	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$18	\$25	\$28

Note. You need to finish both two surveys for each day.
For each survey, you need to complete 90% of the items

Participation in this survey is voluntary and you will not be asked for any identifying information. Your confidentiality will be assured. Please note that you must be at least 18 years old to participate.

If you are interested, please click the link below to read and sign the consent form. It will give you more information about the study, detailed procedures, and your rights. After that, you will be directed to register online. One of the researchers will contact you regarding the details of this study and to set-up the schedule for taking the surveys based on your work schedule.

Thank you for taking the time to provide your valuable input.

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APPENDIX B. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How often do you think job demands, for example, hindrance stressor, challenge stressor, and emotional dissonance, in the hotel fluctuate (e.g., daily, weekly, monthly, or relatively stable)?

Note. The interviewer will ask participants' perceptions regarding each job demand one by one; the interviewer will explain the meaning of each job demand during the interview)

2. How often do you think job resources, for example, supervisor support, co-worker support, and job autonomy, in the hotel fluctuate (e.g., daily, weekly, monthly, or relatively stable)?

Note. The interviewer will ask participants' perceptions regarding each job resource one by one; the interviewer will explain the meaning of each job resource during the interview.

3. How often do you think employees' subjective well-being, for example, affect and job satisfaction, in the hotel fluctuate (e.g., daily, weekly, monthly, or relatively stable)?

Note. The interviewer will explain the meaning of subjective well-being during the interview.

4. How often do you think employees' turnover intention in the hotel fluctuate (e.g., daily, weekly, monthly, or relatively stable)?

5. For the interviewees who perceive that job demands, job resources, and subjective well-being can fluctuate on a daily basis, they will be asked if they think the daily job demands and job resource can influence employees' subjective well-being on a daily basis and how.

APPENDIX B. SURVEY INSTRUMENT

One-time Baseline Survey Items

1. Resilience and Self-efficacy

Participant instructions: Below is a list of statements pertaining to your general feelings about yourself. Please indicate how much you agree with the statements.

1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree

(1) Trait Resilience

- I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times.
- I have a hard time making it through stressful events.
- It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event.
- It is hard for me to snap back when something bad happens.
- I usually come through difficult times with little trouble.
- I tend to take a long time to get over set-backs in my life.

(2) Trait Self-efficacy

- I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.
- If someone opposes me, I can find means and ways to get what I want.
- It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.
- I am confident that could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
- Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.
- I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.
- I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.
- When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.
- If I am in a bind, I can usually think of something to do.
- No matter what comes my way, I'm usually able to handle it.

2. Trait Positive Affect and Trait Negative Affect

Participant instructions: Please indicate the extent that you feel each of the following emotions on average.

1= not at all, 2= a little, 3= moderately, 4= quite a bit, 5= extremely

- active, interested, excited, strong, inspired, and alert
- distressed, upset, irritable, nervous, jittery, and afraid

3. Demographic

Participant instruction: The next series of questions will ask you to provide information about yourself. Please answer the questions as accurately as possible.

- What is your gender?
 - Male
 - Female
 - Non-binary/Third Gender

- What is your age?
 - 18-24
 - 25-34
 - 35-44
 - 45-54
 - 55-64
 - 65 and over

- What is the highest level of education you have completed?
 - Some high school
 - High school diploma or equivalent
 - Associate's degree
 - Bachelor's degree
 - Master's degree
 - Doctoral or Professional degree
 - Other, please specify

- What is your relationship status?
 - Single
 - Married
 - Separated
 - Living with partner or significant other
 - Widowed
 - Other, please specify

- Do you have significant responsibilities for caring for your children in your home?
 - Yes
 - No
 - Not applicable (I don't have children)

- Do you have significant responsibilities for caring for another adult family member?
 - Yes
 - No

- Which department are you currently working for in the hotel?
 - Housekeeping
 - Front Office
 - Engineering
 - Accounting or Finance
 - Human Resources
 - Business Center
 - Executive Lounge
 - Reservations/Revenue Management
 - Food & Beverage/Banquets
 - Purchasing
 - Security

- Executive Office
 - Catering & Sales
 - Fitness & Spa
 - Concierge
 - Bell Services/Valet
 - Other, please specify_____
- What type of hotel are you currently working in?
 - Five star luxury hotel
 - Four star or three star full-service hotel
 - Two star or one star limited-service hotel
 - Budget hotel or motel
 - Other, please specify
 - What is your job title in your current department?

Daily Diary Surveys

Part I. Beginning of the work shift survey

This survey is to be completed when you arrive at work, before you start the workday. Please complete each of the following items to the best of your ability.

1. What is your shift today? _____

2. Momentary Positive Affect and Momentary Negative Affect

Participant instructions: Please indicate the extent that you feel each of the following emotions at this moment.

1= not at all, 2= a little, 3= moderately, 4= quite a bit, 5= extremely

- active, interested, excited, strong, inspired, and alert
- distressed, upset, irritable, nervous, jittery, and afraid

Part II. End of the work shift survey

This survey is to be completed after you finish your today's work, before you leave the hotel. Please complete each of the following items to the best of your ability.

1. What is your shift today? _____

2. Daily job demands

Participant instruction: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements about your work today.

1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree

(1) Challenge stressors:

- Today at work, I've had to work on a large number of projects and/or assignments.
- Today, my job has required me to work very hard.
- Today, the volume of work that must be accomplished in the allocated time has been difficult.
- Today, I have experienced severe time pressures in my work.
- Today, I've felt the amount of responsibility I have at work.
- Today, I have been responsible for counseling others and/or helping them solve their problems.
- Today, my job has required a lot of skill.
- Today, my job has required me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.

(2) Hindrance stressors:

- Today, my duties and work objectives have been unclear to me.
- Today, I have not fully understood what is expected of me.
- Today, I feel there have been clear, planned goals and objectives for my work
- Today, I have received conflicting requests from two or more people.
- Today, I have worked with two or more groups who operate quite differently.
- Today, I have received assignments without adequate resources and materials to execute them.
- Today, I have had many hassles to go through to get projects/assignments done.

(3) Emotional dissonance

- Today, I have to suppress my own feeling to give a 'natural' impression.
- Today, I am unable to show my spontaneous feelings.
- Today, I have to express positive feelings towards customers while I actually feel indifferent.
- Today, I have to react with understanding to annoying customers.
- Today, I have to show feelings at work that I did not really feel.

3. Daily Supervisor Support and Coworker Support

Participant instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following support about your work today.

1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree

(1) Daily Supervisor support

- Today, my supervisor used his/her influence to help me with problems at work
- Today, my supervisor informed me whether he/she is satisfied with my work
- Today, my supervisor was friendly and open

(2) Daily Coworker support

- Today, the people I work with/my coworkers collaborated in getting the job done.
- Today, the people I worked with/my coworkers showed their care for me.
- Today, the people I worked with/my coworkers were friendly.
- Today, the people I worked with/my coworkers were helpful.
- Today, the people I worked with/my coworkers were hostile (R).

4. Daily Job Autonomy

Participant instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following item regarding freedom you have at work today.

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

- Today, during the shift, I could decide myself how to execute my job.
- Today, I could decide myself on the pace of executing my job.

5. Momentary Positive Affect and Momentary Negative Affect

Participant Instructions: Please indicate the extent that you feel each of the following emotions at this moment:

1 = not at all, 2 = a little, 3 = moderately, 4 = quite a bit, 5 = extremely

- active, interested, excited, strong, inspired, and alert
- distressed, upset, irritable, nervous, jittery, and afraid

6. Daily Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

Participant Instructions: Today, how did you feel about your job?

1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree

- Right now, I find real enjoyment in my work.
- During most of the past hour I have felt enthusiastic about my work.
- At this very moment, I feel fairly satisfied with my job.
- Right now, each minute of work seems like it will never end.
- At the present time, I consider my job rather unpleasant.

- Today, during my shift, I thought of quitting my job.
- Today, during my shift, I thought of searching for a new job.
- Today, during my shift, I considered leaving the hotel for a new employer.
- Today, during my shift, I did not think about leaving the hotel for a new employer.

7. Open-ended question

- Was there any special event happening at the hotel or other special situation in the workplace which may have influenced your overall mood today? (e.g., big group check-in, rude customers, fire alarm, etc.)_____.

At the end of the last day survey, they were given an open-ended question regarding their experience of taking the diary survey:

- How do you think the design of this diary study? For example, do you think the questions are too long? Do you get confused about some of the questions? Do you have lots of pressure of taking this survey every day?

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