The Impact of National Culture on the Relationships among Organizational Culture, Psychological Contract, and Subjective Well-Being in the Hotel Industry

by

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Abstract

The purpose of this research is to explore the relationships among organizational culture, psychological contract, and subjective well-being. Specifically, it aims to identify the mediating effect of psychological contract in the relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-being. Additional aim is to examine the moderating effect of national culture in the relationship among these three variables. Organizational culture is defined as the combination of basic assumptions and beliefs that members of an organization share in common, which consists of six factors; teamwork, morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, meetings. Psychological contract is defined as an individual's beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding the terms of an exchange agreement between the individual and his or her organization, which consists of two factors; employee's feeling about employers' obligation of pay and support. Subjective well-being is defined as people's emotional and cognitive evaluations of their lives, that is, overall life satisfaction. A total of 462 responses were collected from employees at hotels in the U.S. (n=208) and South Korea (n=254). To achieve the purposes of this research, seven hypotheses were developed, and Structural Equation Modeling was conducted to examine them. The findings are as follows. Hypothesis 1, the relationship between organizational culture and psychological contract was partially supported. Four of the six organizational culture factors, morale, involvement, supervision and meetings, were associated with psychological contract. Hypothesis 2, the relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-being was partially supported. Out of the six organizational culture factors, involvement and meetings, significantly positively influenced subjective well-being. Hypothesis

3, the relationship between psychological contract and subjective well-being, was partially supported. Pay, one of the psychological contract factors, had a significantly positive influence on subjective well-being. Hypothesis 4 was also partially supported where pay was found to mediate the relationship between three factors of organizational culture; morale, involvement, and meetings and subjective well-being. Finally, the role of national culture as a moderator was confirmed in four relationships: the relationships between supervision and pay, between meetings and support, between morale and subjective well-being, and between supervision and subjective well-being. First, in the relationship between supervision and pay, supervision had significantly positive effects on pay in the US, but had a significantly negative effect in South Korea. Second, in the relationship between meetings and support, meetings had a greater significantly positive impact on support in South Korea than in the US. Third, in the relationship between morale and subjective well-being, morale had a significantly negative influence on subjective well-being in the US, but had a significantly positive influence in South Korea. Fourth, in the relationship between supervision and subjective well-being, supervision had a significantly negative influence on subjective well-being in the US. In contrast, supervision had significantly positive influence on subjective well-being in South Korea. Consequently, hypothesis 5, the relationship between organizational culture and psychological contract is moderated by national culture, and hypothesis 6, the relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-being is moderated by national culture, were partially supported; however, hypothesis 7; the relationship between psychological contract and subjective well-being is moderated by national culture, was not supported. This research contributes to existing theoretical studies. It also suggests managerial recommendations for hotel managers in the development of desirable organizational

culture and directions for them to improve employees' subjective well-being, thus leading to

employee productivity, which in turn impacts organizational outcome.

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<center>**Introduction**</center>

1. Background of the study

Humans are the most essential resource for the survival and development of corporations; therefore, human resource management is crucial to secure a sustainable competitive advantage in business. Interest in human resource management has been continuously increasing, and studies show that human resource management has a significantly positive influence on corporations' effectiveness and value (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Ouchi, 1981; Peters & Waterman, 1982). In the hotel industry, employees play a critical role in providing service products to consumers in the numerous service encounters (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003; Karatepe & Sokmen, 2006). Since hotel operations are highly dependent on human resources, hotel employees are the first standard for identifying hotels' service delivery levels (Hartline, Maxham, & McKee, 2000) and the first priority asset for producing competitive advantages in the hotel industry.

Organizational culture consists of values shared by organizational members and impacts their attitudes and behaviors in the workplace. Organizational performance is determined by organizational members; therefore, organizational culture can be interpreted as a powerful influence on employees' performance (Schein, 1985). That is, organizational culture is associated with employees' service quality towards customers as well as performance. Constructive

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organizational culture leads to better organizational performance and more efficiency than passive organizational culture. Constructive organizational culture increases employees' satisfaction, participation, motivation, retention intent, teamwork, cooperation, quality of service, and reliability; as a result, it leads to customer satisfaction and profit. Therefore, building a desirable culture is indispensable for hotels to maximize profits by utilizing intangible assets for sustainable development.

Organizational cultures are created through the evolution of their unique norms in the constant process of reacting to critical incidents during their business periods, and organizational cultures are maintained through the socialization among new members to the organization (Schein, 1990). Organizational culture has been a popular concept in management studies over the decades (Sheridan, 1992), since particular organizational cultures are connected with excellent organizational financial performance (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000) and superior ESG (environment, social, governance) performance. Especially, organizational culture has been used to explain economically prosperous corporations; these corporations possess their own cultures, a shared set of core values, beliefs, and assumptions which motivate employees and develop their capacities (Denison, 1984; Furnham & Gunter, 1993). Successful organizations possess certain excellent cultural traits (Peters & Waterman, 1982), and their strong and intensive cultures enable organizations to achieve desirable results through employees' values consistent with the organizational culture and unity. Many researchers have suggested that strong culture exists in prosperous corporations (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Kilmann, 1985; Mitroff & Kilmann, 1984; Pascale, 1985; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Schall, 1983; Schein, 1985; Weick, 1985) and emphasize the significance of strong culture because it can influence successful organizational performance (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Strong organizational culture has been defined in several

ways, such as congruence (Schall, 1983), homogeneity (Ouchi & Price, 1978), stability and intensity (Schein, 1985), and accepting and maintaining the dominant value set (Louis, 1985). A uniquely strong organizational culture can be a powerful factor for sustainable competitive advantage; therefore, interest has increased in the positive consequences of organizational culture.

Various studies have been conducted on the relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance, with general consent that organizational culture has a powerful impact on organizations (Roskin, 1986) and on generating competitive advantage (Krefting & Frost, 1985). For example, a correlation exists between customer-oriented cultures and marketing effectiveness (Peters &Waterman, 1982); risk-taking, trusting and proactive culture and performance (Kilmann, 1985); corporate culture and increased productivity (Ouchi, 1981); and cultural traits and involvement, identification and commitment to the organization (Koberg & Chusmir, 1987; O'Reilly, 1983; Posner, Kouzes, & Schmidt, 1985). Organizational culture is invisible, but certainly exists within organizations. In order to understand which cultures exist in an organization, and suggest visions and directions for sustainable development of business, practitioners and researchers should identify how employees perceive the underlying values, beliefs and assumptions of their organizations.

Currently, due to the radical change in economic and business environments, the perceptions of employment contract are changing as well. The psychological contract is a structure to comprehend the relationship between employees and employers, and is defined as an employee's belief about the conditions of the reciprocal mutual consent that is present between employees and their employers, or organizations (Rousseau, 1989). The traditional view of psychological contracts was based on the reciprocal relationship between employees' loyalty, job security, and opportunities for career development provided by employers (Turnley, Bolino,

Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003). However, recently organizations have needed new research into psychological contracts because of the changing labor market. Therefore, new research is needed due to noticeable changes in the employment environment, such as downsizings, mergers and acquisitions, and restructuring, as well as changes in employment structure, such as organizations' tendency to reduce standard employees and increase nonstandard employees, and less certainty of job security, promotions, and career paths (Deery, Iverson, & Walsh, 2006). Understanding the transition of employment contracts is very important for sustainable development of business. The psychological contract has a critical impact on the relationship between the employees and their organization, and on employees' behaviors (McDonald & Makin, 2000) because the psychological contract implies reciprocity in inducements and contributions between employees and employers (Lambert, 2011). For example, if employees perceive that their employer offers more inducements such as wage or benefit increases or more training or career opportunities, they have more sense of reciprocity and contribute more to their organizations (Homans, 1961; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). As a result, employees' perceptions of their contract with employers may have a significantly positive influence on their organizational effectiveness because employee attitudes and behavior substantially impact organizational outcomes (Rousseau, 1989; Schein, 1980). Subjective well-being is one of the instruments used to assess people's quality of life. Positive subjective well-being is very important for both individuals and society because happiness and high affirmation in people's lives has positive outcomes (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2001). And subjective well-being is closely related to psychological contract (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; Koh & Yer, 2000; Millward & Brewerton, 2000; Rousseau, 1995) leading to positive outcomes for organizations. Moreover, subjective well-being is also significantly impacted by culture (Diener & Suh, 2000;

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Tov & Diener, 2007) because how and when people feel and experience positive emotions may be influenced differently by different cultures (Ellsworth, 1994; Suh, Diener, Oishi, & Triandis, 1998; Wierzbicka, 1994). Different cultures espouse different objectives, motives, and values, although some nations have similar characteristics due to analogous historical backgrounds (Hermans & Kempen, 1998) or economic development procedures. They are related to how people react to achieving objectives or perceiving values and to how they experience well-being from the reaction process (Markus, Kitayama, & Heiman, 1996; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Because the concept of culture embraces the concept of organizational culture, a significant relationship is expected to exist between organizational culture and subjective well-being.

2. Purpose of the study

Revealing employees' psychological aspects is as essential as identifying their organizational effectiveness. The reason is that employees' behavior in the workplace can be an indicator of job satisfaction, turnover rate, organizational citizenship behavior, etc., and can be observed by colleagues and supervisors. However, employees' psychological aspects, such as psychological contract and subjective well-being are not easy to expose to others or even be recognized by themselves. Nevertheless, employees' psychological aspects cannot be overlooked in attempts to generate a high level of service quality and maximize the businesses' profits because of its high dependence on human resources in the hotel industry.

While many studies have been conducted on organizational culture as a direct influential factor on organizational effectiveness in the hotel industry, very few empirical studies have been conducted on the relationship between organizational culture and employees' psychological aspects. This study provides an extensive framework for understanding how organizational

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culture influences employees' psychological aspects, such as psychological contract and subjective well-being. Not only has there been little simultaneous examination of how organizational culture and psychological contract relate to subjective well-being, but psychological contract has not been investigated as a mediator between organizational culture and subjective well-being. Therefore, the current study goes beyond the extant literature by building a model of psychological contract as a mediator and provides evidence of the mediating role between organizational culture and subjective well-being.

Additionally, it explores empirical evidence on the impact of national culture on these three variables. The reason is that there may exist differences in employees' perceptions in terms of different culture because the perceptions can be determined by both the common work situation that they share and by personal psychological aspects, therefore, employees' perceptions of organizational culture can have different impacts on employees' psychological contract and subjective well-being according to nations.

In this regard, examination of the impact of national culture on the relationships among organizational culture, psychological contract and subjective well-being can suggest practical implications for building appropriate human resource management in terms of cultural difference for the globalized hotel corporations. In general, researchers have classified cultures as either individualistic or collectivistic cultures (Hofstede, 1980; Kim, 1994; Triandis, 1994), which have been tested empirically in many studies on cross-cultural behavior. As such, Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimension is adopted in this research to explore cultural differences in employees' perceptions of organizational culture, psychological contract and subjective well-being. People in individualistic cultures have a tendency to consider their independence and self-esteem more important than collectivists do (Markus & Kitayama, 1990). On the other hand, people in

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collectivist cultures tend to consider complying with the social norms and rules for harmony in social relationships more important than individualists do (Hofstede, 1980). Researchers have usually concurred that collectivist cultures are linked closely to Asian countries such as China, Japan, and South Korea, however, individualist cultures are linked closely to non-Asian countries such as the USA, Australia, France, and Germany (Becker, 2000; Hofstede, 1980).

The first purpose of this study is to examine the effects of organizational culture on psychological contract and subjective well-being. Specifically, this study extends this field of research by evaluating a mediating variable of psychological contract in the relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-being. Also, this study uses a cross-national analysis to investigate the effects of national culture on employees' perceptions of workplace and life.

3. Significance

This study provides significant insight into theoretical and practical aspects of human resource management because the dependent variables such as psychological contract and subjective well-being that are investigated in this study go beyond organizational effectiveness (e.g. turnover, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance etc.) which have been frequently used as dependent variables in other studies. Additionally, this study extends the existing research by focusing on a sample of employees in the hotel industry and by using cross-national analysis in South Korea and the United States. As such, more diverse sample populations can improve the generalizability of research findings to other employees in various industries (Guest, 1998; Robinson & Morrison, 2000).

4. Organization of the study

       This paper is organized as follows. In the literature review section, the academic literature background on each of the constructs is explored. In the methodology section, the hypotheses and the research design are explained. In the analysis section, data analysis and results are shown and discussed. In the discussion section, conclusions, theoretical and managerial implications, limitations, and future research suggestions are provided.

Chapter II

Literature Review

This research begins by exploring the three constructs, organizational culture, psychological contract and subjective well-being, and then discusses the relationships among them.

1. Organizational culture

1.1. Concept of organizational culture

The cultures of societies have been studied by ethnographers since the 17th century (Garbarino, 1977), and organizational culture has had a high profile since the 1980s (Smircich & Calas, 1987). In order to understand organizational culture, the concept of culture must be understood first. Many researchers have tried to define culture as follows. Tylor (1871) suggested the first broad definition of culture as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (p. 1). Later researchers defined culture as a system of values (Hofstede, 1980), the set of dominant and core values adopted by an organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982), and "what a group learns over a period of time as that group solves its problems of survival in an external environment and its problems of internal integration" (Schein, 1990, p. 111).

Similar to the various definitions of culture, researchers have presented a variety of

definitions of organizational culture (Martin, 1993; Schein, 1990; Schultz, 1995; Smircich, 1983*).*

Any identifying group with shared history and experiences can have a culture and possess many

subcultures (Schein, 1990). This organizational culture plays a role in managing the whole

organization and in aspects that a new member should understand to adjust to the organization

(Sriramesh, Gruing, & Dozier, 1996). Organizational culture consists of three levels: behaviors

and artifacts (the most apparent level, which includes physical area, mottos, artistic manufactures

and members' observable behaviors), values (a less obvious level, which involves the intrinsic

meanings of behaviors and artifacts), and basic assumptions (the unconscious level, the

underlying values taken for granted, which is the most difficult part to relearn and change)

(Schein, 1985). Many researchers have defined organizational culture as several ways since

1980s: as "the set of values that help in unifying the social dimensions of the organization"

(Peters & Waterman, 1982, p. 106), as "the shared understanding of an organization's employees-

how we do things around here" (Wallach, 1983, p. 26), as the combination of basic assumptions

and beliefs that an organizational members share in common (Schein, 1985), and as a constant

regeneration of shared meaning (Roskin, 1986). In 1990, the concept of organizational culture

has been evolved to imply sustainable development of the organization. Like*,* organizational

culture is defined as "a pattern of basic assumptions that a group has invented, discovered or

developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration,

and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new

members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (Schein,

1990, p. 111), as the pattern of shared and established beliefs and values that are developed

within an organization over time (Gordon & Ditomaso, 1992), and as a set of shared assumptions

which can lead to appropriate organizational behaviors against various and unexpected situations

(Fiol, 1991; Louis, 1983; Martin, 2002).

Organizational cultures are neither standardized nor fixed (Kavanagh & Ashkanasy, 2006). The reasons are that organizational culture focuses on the meaning of events that happen in the workplace (Burke, 1994), and cultural systems change as they are interrupted by various events over time (Weick & Quinn, 1999) and are created and changed by organizational members (Hatch, 2000). Organizations have a wide range of forms and networks of cultural expressions: rituals, artifacts, corporate architecture, symbols, dress, ceremonies, and stories that present and reproduce shared organizational patterns of behavior (Berg & Kreiner, 1990; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1997; Martin, 1993; Pratt & Rafaeli, 1997; Schein, 1992; Trice & Beyer, 1984). These forms enable a unique organizational identity and distinctive organizational culture. Also, the cultural forms reflect an underlying pattern of shared meanings (Wallach, 1983), core values (Gordon & Ditomaso, 1992; Peters & Waterman, 1982), and assumptions and beliefs (Fiol, 1991; Louis, 1983; Martin, 2002; Schein, 1985, 1990). If these shared meanings, values, assumptions, and beliefs of an organization can be identified and understood, it is possible to appreciate patterns and meanings in a variety of implicit and explicit organizational behaviors and external phenomena or changes.

As such, organizations with a shared history of long-term and important experiences or longer membership can have a strong and highly consistent culture, which results in common patterns of perceptions, feelings, beliefs and behaviors from organizational members, and shared corporate rituals, myths, and stories. Such an organizational culture provides stability and positive outcomes to an organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Schein, 1990) and can be a key factor in maintaining distinctive and continuous organizational identity if the culture is strong and has unique characteristics (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006).

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1.2. Organizational culture and performance

The final goal of the corporations is to maximize profits, which can be accomplished by establishing an effective organization through managing organizational culture (Smircich, 1983). Understanding organizational culture leads to understanding employees' perceptions of their organizations, establishing common values and assumptions, and assessing organizational performance (Schein, 1985). Researchers have attempted to identify the relationship between organizational culture and performance and have tried to understand the impact of culture on organizational structure, system and procedure (Jelinek, Smircich, & Hirsch, 1983) because organizational culture may not only have a major effect on organizational effectiveness (Tichy, 1982), but may also make organizations more efficient (Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). For example, Denison (1990) contended that organizational culture is directly related to organizational performance. Similarly, Gordon and Ditomaso (1992) explained a strong culture is connected to excellent performance by finding that the culture can have a significantly positive impact on organizational performance if organizational culture can adjust to external situations. Besides, Ogbonna and Harris (2000) examined the relationship between leadership style and performance and identified organizational culture as a mediator in this relationship. They agreed that strong cultures with widely shared meanings, values and assumptions are positively associated with organizational success. In addition, they found out specific results in terms of culture types: while bureaucratic and community culture are not directly related to performance, the competitive and innovative forms of culture have direct, strong, and positive relations with organizational performance.

Organizational culture also has a significant impact on its human resource management policies such as selection processes, employment placement procedures, promotion policies,

career development opportunities, and reward systems (Kerr & Slocum, 1987; Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990). Employee retention is an essential factor in improving organizational effectiveness because possessing qualified employees longer is related to higher productivity. Sheridon (1992) found that the various cultural values that each organization possesses have a significant influence on voluntary turnover of the newly hired employees. This study examined voluntary survival rates, or the length of time that newly hired employees voluntarily stayed at their jobs, and found that employees averaged 45 months in cultures which focused on interpersonal relationships and 31 months in cultures which focused on work values. As such, organizational culture significantly impacts on employee retention.

Additionally, there are several studies on the correlation between culture and financial performance (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). Denison (1984) studied thirty four American companies for five-years, examining the relationship between organizational culture such as employees' perception of the organization and their participation in the decision-making process, and financial performance such as returns on investment and sales. They found significant positive relationships between employees' perceptions of an organization and its financial performance, and between their participation and financial performance. Likewise, Hansen and Wernerfelt (1989) found a positive relationship between organizational factors such as human resources and goal achievement based on the Survey of Organizations (Taylor & Bowers, 1972) and financial performance such as five-year returns on assets.

1.3. Classification of organizational culture

Organizational cultural values have a positive impact on organizational effectiveness by facilitating the quality of outcomes or decreasing labor costs (Kopelman et al., 1990). Therefore,

researchers have attempted to develop various quantitative methods to measure and classify organizational culture. For instance, first, Harrison (1975) developed an instrument to classify four main types of organizational culture based on emphasis and extent of power, role, task and support. Many other researchers have applied this instrument to identify organizational culture and confirmed its validity (Ashkanasy, Broadfoot, & Falkus, 2000; Ashkanasy & Holmes, 1995).

Second, Hofstede (1980) studied organizational employees in over 40 countries to identify differences between nationalities and developed a four-dimensional measurement (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, and masculinity/femininity) to investigate organizational culture.

Third, Denison (1984, 1990) examined types of organizational culture based on four different characteristics: organization of work, emphasis on human resources, decision-making processes, and co-ordination. The studies found a significant correlation between the cultural characteristics and the firm's return on investment (ROI) for the following two years.

Fourth, Cameron and Freeman (1991) investigated three aspects of culture and their impacts on effectiveness in 334 colleges and universities. The three aspects consisted of the culture type (e.g., clans, adhocracies, hierarchies, and markets), the congruence of cultural systems (e.g., values, leadership style, the nature of the individual-organization bond, and strategic emphasis) and the strength of the cultures. They found that the culture type has a significantly positive relationship with specific aspects of effectiveness. For example, clans are more positively related to student development, faculty satisfaction, and the openness of the system; adhocracies have a positive relationship with adaptation to external environments; and markets have a positive relationship with resource collection. However, congruence and strength are not associated with effectiveness.

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Fifth, Denison and Spreitzer (1991) suggested four types of organizational culture: group culture, developmental culture, rational culture, and hierarchical culture. Firstly, group culture is related to human relations and focuses on flexibility, teamwork, and the internal organization. Secondly, developmental culture is related to flexibility, change, and the external environment, focusing on growth, resource acquisition, creativity, and external adaptation. Thirdly, rational culture is related to productivity, performance, goal fulfillment, and achievement, and focuses on pursuit and attainment of well-defined objectives. Fourthly, hierarchical culture is related to internal efficiency, uniformity, coordination, and evaluation, focusing on logic, stability of the internal organization, and execution of regulations.

Sixth, Gordon and Ditomaso (1992) examined organizational culture in 11 insurance companies by using the Survey of Management Climate (Gordon & Cummins, 1979), which has eight dimensions including clarity of strategy/shared goals, systematic decision-making, integration/communication, innovation/risk-taking, accountability, action orientation, fairness of rewards, and development and promotion from within.

Seventh, Sheridon (1992) studied organizational culture values in six public accounting firms using the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) instrument developed by O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991). They found seven common dimensions in the OCP value statements: three dimensions of completion of work tasks (detail, stability, innovation), two dimensions of interpersonal relationships (team orientation and respect for people), and two dimensions of individual actions (outcome and aggressiveness). The study found that organizational culture varied significantly across firms: for example, three firms focused on the interpersonal relationship values of team orientation and respect for people, while two other firms emphasized the work task values of detail and stability.

Eighth, Scott, Mannion, Davies and Marshall (2003, p.930-934) reviewed a wide range of organizational instruments that use different dimensions to measure organizational culture as follows: "Competing values framework (Cameron & Freeman, 1991; Gerowitz, 1998; Gerowitz, Lemieux-Charles, Heginbothan, & Johnson, 1996) including staff climate, leadership style, bonding systems and prioritization of goals; Quality improvement implementation survey (Shortell et al., 2000) including character of organization, manager's style, cohesion, prioritization of goals, and rewards; Organizational culture inventory (Cooke & Lafferty, 1987; Ingersoll, Kirsch, Ehrlich, & Lightfoot, 2000; Seago, 1997; Thomas, Ward, Chorba, & Kumiega, 1990) including humanistic helpful, affiliate, approval, conventional, dependent, avoidance, oppositional, power, competitive, competence/ perfectionist, achievement, self-actualization; Mackenzie's culture questionnaire (MacKenzie, 1995) including employee commitment, attitudes to and belief about innovation, attitudes to change, style of conflict resolution, management style, confidence in leadership, openness and trust, teamwork and cooperation, action orientation, human resource orientation, consumer orientation, and organizational direction; Organizational culture (Tucker, McCoy, & Evans, 1990) including orientation to customers, orientation to employees, congruence amongst stakeholders, impact of mission, managerial depth/maturity, decision making/autonomy, communication/openness, human scale, incentive/motivation, cooperation versus competition, organizational congruence, performance under pressure, theory S/ theory T."

As Scott et al. (2003) mentioned, when choosing one instrument from the many available, researchers should consider the purpose of their study and their intentions for using the findings. Therefore, the Glaser, Zamanou and Hacker's (1987) instrument to measure organizational culture was chosen for this research because it includes specific parts such as

leadership, communication, motivation, empowerment, and teamwork that are essential for hotel employees in their workplace.

2. Psychological contract

2.1. Concept of psychological contract

Currently, the relationship between employees and employers changes rapidly due to globalization, restructurings, increase of nonstandard employment work status, mergers and acquisition. It also changes associated with various employment contracts in job classifications such as part time, temporary, contract employment, and short-term and contingent work in addition to full time employment. In these situations, the perceptions of employment contract are changing as well. Understanding the transition of employment contracts is essential to adjust to market change and to build appropriate human resource management for sustainable development of business. To identify the transition of employment contracts, organizations need to appreciate the concept of employees' psychological contracts because employees' attitudes and behaviors from their perceptions of their contract with employers substantially impact organizational outcomes (Rousseau, 1989; Schein, 1980).

Several studies have found that psychological contract fulfillment has positive impacts on organizational effectiveness, such as the extent to which employees are satisfied with their jobs, committed to the organization, and are willing to work extra roles voluntarily, as well as on job performance and retention rate (Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 1999, 2000). The psychological contract is defined as "an individual's beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organizations"

(Rousseau, 1995, p. 9). Psychological contracts include employees' beliefs about the terms and promises of the exchange consent between employees and employers (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989). Consequently, psychological contract means employees consent to exchange their efforts or loyalty for employers' provisions such as wages, promotion or security (Robinson et al., 1994).

A primary principle of psychological contract theory is focused on employees' assessment between what was delivered and what was promised, and assessment can be measured the extent of breach and fulfillment in the contract (Lambert, 2011). That is, the psychological contract implies reciprocal obligations (McDonald & Makin, 2000; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1990). Reciprocity means that "fulfillment of their obligations by one party is conditional on the fulfillment of theirs by the other" (Herriot, Manning, & Kidd, 1997, p. 159). Psychological contracts can be interpreted as two-side obligations; therefore, employees and employers have different positions on obligations. Because employees' beliefs about employers' promises or future obligations depend on the employees' perceptions, perception of psychological contract breach depends on each party's subjective view; therefore, parties may not agree when a breach has occurred.

Researchers have described the relationship between employees' psychological contracts and outcomes using social exchange theory (Lester, Turnley, Bloodgood, & Bolino, 2002; Turnley et al., 2003). According to social exchange theory, employees are less likely to work to keep a positive exchange relationship with their organizations if they feel that their organizations are less involved in keeping the relationship (Blau, 1964). If the organization fails to reciprocate employees' contributions, employees may perceive a negative experience (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Because, in general, employees anticipate suitable support from their

supervisors (Restubog, Bordia, Tang, & Krebs, 2010), employees expect to keep a reciprocal relationship with their employers and are motivated by sustaining the balance between inducements and contributions (Blau, 1964). This mutual obligation to reciprocate forms the psychological contract (Taylor & Tekleab, 2004).

2.2. Psychological contract and outcomes

Researchers have studied the relationship between breach and fulfillment of the psychological contract perceived by employees and their outcomes (Chen, Tsui, & Zhong, 2008; Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008; Robinson & Morrison, 2000). Fulfillment occurs when what was promised and what is delivered are identical. On the other hand, breach of the psychological contract is incongruity between what was promised and what is delivered (Lambert, 2011). The fulfillment of employers' promised obligations leads employees to enhanced contributions. Positive emotions caused by the perception of fulfilled psychological contract result in higher trust, satisfaction, and commitment (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, & Van Der Velde, 2008). Employees' trust of their organizations is positively impacted by employers' behavioral consistency and honesty (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). Besides, psychological contract fulfillment leads employees to perceive increased performance and job and life satisfaction (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006); therefore, a more supportive employment relationship through fulfilling the psychological contract enables employees to increase their productivity (Cutcher-Gershenfeld, 1991; Katz, Kochan, & Weber, 1985).

Additionally, Coyle-Shapiro (2002) surveyed public sector employees and examined the relationship between psychological contract and organizational behavior. The researcher found

that if employees perceived employers as fulfilling obligations, the employees showed positive

organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization. Similarly, Turnley et al. (2003)

researched the associations between psychological contract fulfillment and employee behaviors

such as performance and organizational citizenship behavior. They measured psychological

contract fulfillment as two dimensions: salary and a supportive employment relationship such as

support, fair and respectful treatment (Robinson & Morrison, 1995b). They found that

psychological contract fulfillment has significantly positive connections to performance and

organizational citizenship behavior.

      The cooperative relationship between employees and employers can improve employees'

willingness to increase their effort and lessen avoiding work or other responsibilities (Kidwell &

Bennett, 1993). Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2002) observed that there was a positive relationship

between employer's fulfilling obligations to employees and employee's fulfilling to employer.

Conway and Coyle-Shapiro (2012), in a longitudinal study of sales advisors, found a reciprocal

connection between perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment and employee performance.

Their findings also showed that the intensity of the relationship between performance and

psychological contract fulfillment increased as time went on. Additionally, Lambert (2011) used

discrepancy theory, equity theory, and needs theory of satisfaction to show how four components

of psychological contract (promised incentives, promised commitments, delivered incentives,

and delivered commitments) are integrated. He found that needs theory best explained this

integration, and that promised and delivered pay and work significantly influenced employees'

appraisal of the psychological contract. This appraisal was based on how employees' struggle to

meet personal needs is promoted or deterred by components of the psychological contract.

According to his study, the pay and work that employees actually receive is more important than

what the organizations promised; additionally, pay was more significant than work. As such, if the conditions of the psychological contract have been satisfied, employees show positive behavior toward their organizations. In contrast, when the contract is violated, behavior is negative (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1995). On the other hand, several studies have supported evidence of the reciprocity in psychological contract by demonstrating that psychological contract breach perceived by employees causes negative outcomes toward organizations (Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012, Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2006; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Zagenczyk, Gibney, Kiewitz, & Restubog, 2009). For instance, when an employer does not keep promises such as training or promotions for good work, employees feel a psychological contract breach (Restubog et al., 2010). Psychological contract breach is caused by reneging and incongruence (Robinson & Morrison, 2000). Reneging means that one party apparently and intentionally fails to fulfill its obligations, and incongruence results from complicated and equivocal conditions between two parties and insufficient communication in the relationship between employee and employer (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). When employees feel psychological contract breach, they experience negative emotions such as anger, displeasure, a sense of being mistreated, and frustration toward their employers (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). These emotions negatively influence trust and job satisfaction in the relationship between employee and employer (Bordia et al., 2008; Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Mishra, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson, 1996). Subsequently, the experience of negative emotions may lead to negative job attitudes (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & De Chermont, 2003). Hence, if employees perceive that their employers fail to carry out their obligations, they perceive violation of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson, 1996), which results in negative outcomes to

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organizations. Although previous studies of psychological contract have used the terms "violation" and "breach" interchangeably (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007), these terms have different meanings. "Breach" means employees' cognitive assessment when employees feel their organization has failed to carry out their promises. On the other hand, "violation" refers to employees' feelings after their perception of a breach of psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). For example, the negative outcomes of psychological contract breach are presented as decreased satisfaction with jobs, loyalty to their organizations, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational commitment; increased turnover intention; feelings of betrayal or distrust; and poor in-role performance (Gozzo et al., 1994; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 1995a; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Turnley et al., 2003, Zhao et al., 2007).

There is some recent research on the relationship between psychological contract breach and outcomes. First, Deery, Iverson and Walsh (2006) studied the relationship between psychological contract breach and negative behavior for customer service employees. They found that when employees feel a psychological contract violation, their trust toward the organization and their cooperation in employment relations become lower and their absenteeism become higher. Second, Hill, Eckerd, Wilson and Greer (2009) examined whether psychological contract breach between a buyer and a supplier mediated the relationship between unethical activities and trust in buyer-supplier relationships. Believing that psychological contract breach may happen due to subtle or flagrant unethical activities, they found that psychological contract breach perceived by a supplier played a mediating variable in the relationship between the buyer's unethical activities, such as deceit, and the supplier's trust in that buyer. Third, Restubog et al. (2010) investigated the relationships among leader-member exchange, psychological

contract breach, and employees' performance by using cross-sectional and longitudinal research designs for employees and supervisors in manufacturing organizations, pharmaceutical organizations, and MBA students. They found that employees' organizational citizenship behaviors and in-role performance were significantly negatively influenced by violation of psychological contract. As such, psychological contract breach can influence negatively organizational outcomes. Consequently, it is necessary to be aware of employees' perceptions of the employment relationship between themselves and their organizations, which is called the psychological contract.

3. Subjective well-being

3.1. Concept of subjective well-being

Subjective well-being is defined as "people's emotional and cognitive evaluations of their lives, includes what lay people call happiness, peace, fulfillment, and life satisfaction" (Diner, Oishi, & Lucas, 2003, p. 403). It is one of the instruments to evaluate people's quality of life. It is also related to how people feel about and assess their own lives, and to how they respond emotionally both to short-term occasions and to long-term events such getting a job or getting married (Argyle, 2001; Diener, 1984; Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Kahneman, Diener, & Schwarz, 1999). Because happiness and high affirmation in people's lives leads to positive outcomes such as quality of married life, level of income, sociality, creativity, and productive capacity (Lyubomirsky et al., 2001), positive subjective well-being, including global life satisfaction, relatively more pleasant feelings, and fewer negative feelings, (Diener & Lucas, 2000) is very important for both individuals and society.

Subjective well-being means both cognitive aspects such as life satisfaction and

affective aspects such as happiness or positive emotion, as well as subjective evaluation of one's own life, aside from objective life factors such as health or wealth (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Diener & Eunkook, 1997). Subjective well-being is a broad concept including several medium-level subdimensions such marital satisfaction, leisure, health, etc. (Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010). Job satisfaction is also considered a subdimension of subjective well-being (Judge & Locke, 1993; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998; Locke, 1976; Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1978; Rice, Near, & Hunt, 1980). Previous research indicates that job satisfaction is associated with life satisfaction (Susskind, Borchgrevink, Kacmar, & Brymer, 2000; Tait, Padgett, & Baldwin, 1989; Van de Vliert & Janssen, 2002), with happiness (Judge & Hulin, 1993; Michalos & Orlando, 2006), and with positive emotion (Curhan, Elfenbein, & Kilduff, 2009; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006). Likewise, Bowling et al. (2010) conducted meta-analysis on the relationship between job satisfaction and subjective well-being, and found positive relationships between subjective well-being and global job satisfaction, rather than facets of job satisfaction. High subjective well-being also leads to positive outcomes in the workplace. Studies have shown a strong relationship between subjective well-being and organizational citizenship (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), high productivity (Oishi, 2012) and high performance (Harter, Schmidt, Asplund & Kilham, 2010).

Subjective well-being depends on individuals' feelings; therefore, there is a wide range of influential factors on subjective well-being such as personality (Lucas, Diener, & Eng, 2002), demographic factors like income (Diener, Diener, & Diener, 1995) or marriage (Bradburn, 1969; Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976), national wealth (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002), employability and job security (De Cuyper, Rigotti, De Witte, & Mohr, 2008), and culture (Deci et al., 2001; Diener & Suh, 2000; Kitayama, Markus, & Kurokawa, 2000; Markus et al., 1996; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Also, well-being is significantly related to one's job (Sverke,

Hellgren, & Naswall 2002). Of these factors which influence subjective well-being, this study is focused on the cultural influence and perception of the organization.

3.2. Subjective well-being and psychological contract

Psychological contract affects employees' subjective well-being because it influences their work attitudes and behaviors (Anderson & Schalk, 1998); therefore, several researchers have suggested that subjective well-being is related to psychological contract. In general, positive exchanges give rise to positive well-being, and negative exchanges to negative well-being (Ingersoll-Dayton, Morgan, & Antonucci, 1997). De Cuyper et al. (2008) and De Cuyper, De Witte, Kinnunen and Natti (2010) found a positive relationship between employability and general well-being, that is, life satisfaction, and a negative relationship between job insecurity and general well-being. Employability is defined as the individual's capability to change positions in the labor market (Brown, Hesketh, & Williams, 2003; Forrier & Sels, 2003a; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). On the other hand, job insecurity means that employees perceive a latent risk in maintaining their present job (Heany, Israel, & House, 1994). Employability has been considered a key component of psychological contract because employability is a mutual obligation between employer and employee (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; Koh & Yer, 2000; Millward & Brewerton, 2000; Rousseau, 1995). Specifically, employability is related positively to employees' life satisfaction, that is, general well-being because feeling in control of one's career is related to well-being (De Cuyper et al., 2008; Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004; Koh & Yer, 2000; Marler, Barringer, & Milkovich, 2002; Silla, De Cuyper, Gracia, Peiro, & De Witte, 2009) and reduces concerns about unemployment (Berntson, Bernhard-Oettel, & De Cuyper, 2007; Berntson & Marklund, 2007). Job insecurity means that employees feel imbalance in the

employment relationship (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989), that is, a severe violation of the psychological contract. Because job security is considered a key component of psychological contract theory (Millward & Brewerton, 2000) and employees expect job security from their employer (De Cuyper & De Witte 2006; 2007), they feel that their employers have been unfaithful to them when they perceive that their expectation has been violated (King, 2000; Pearce, 1998). This reaction aligns with the concept of psychological contract (Conway & Briner 2005). Psychological contract breach was also a negative mediator in the relationship between job insecurity and life satisfaction (De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006). As such, job insecurity makes employees feel a lack of well-being (Burchell, 1992; Conway & Briner, 2005; De Witte 1999; Sverke et al., 2002; Van Vuuren, Klandermans, Jacobson, & Hartley, 1991). A good number of studies have supported a relationship between job insecurity and poor well-being (Hellgren & Sverke, 2003; Sverke et al., 2002) as well as a relationship between job insecurity and job dissatisfaction (Ashford et al., 1989; Heany et al., 1994).

Consequently, if the psychological contract is fulfilled and employees see their employers' efforts to encourage employability and job security, employees can contribute high performance and loyalty in return for organizational support (Atkinson, 2002; De Cuyper & De Witte, 2006, 2007; De Witte & Naswall, 2003; De Vries, Grundemann, & Van Vuuren, 2001; Forrier & Sels, 2003b; Van Buren, 2003).

3.3. Subjective well-being and culture

Culture, which includes generally accepted and shared norms and beliefs, affects how people experience emotion. Culture has an influence on and correlation with subjective well-being (Tov & Diener, 2007), because culture affects the extent to which people consider it

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important to feel satisfaction towards the self and towards social connections. Different levels of satisfaction towards the self and social connections in terms of different cultures influences subjective well-being. Also, people in different cultures place different values on happiness (Diener, 2000). Consequently, culture influences people's common tendencies or patterns; therefore, these patterns can impact subjective well-being. The differing perceptions of subjective well-being in different cultures can be explained by differing factors of societal environments, such as diverse support from societies (Oishi & Schimmack, 2010) and different cultural norms towards positivity (Diener, Scollon, Oishi, Dzokoto, & Suh, 2000; Eid & Diener, 2001). Moreover, differences exist not only between nations, but also between ethnicities within nations. For instance, some research suggests that European Americans are considerably more content with their lives and show lower levels of depression and anxiety than Asian Americans (Oishi, 2001; Okazaki, 2000). In another example, Asakawa and Csikszentmihalyi (1998) conducted research on Asian-American students and Caucasian students using an experience-sampling method. They found that while Caucasian students had a greater tendency to be pleased when involved in an activity that had significant meaning to them at that moment, Asian-American students had a greater tendency to be pleased when they were involved in an activity related to their crucial future objectives.

The previous studies mainly examined subjective well-being by comparing various nationality groups. Culture is primarily similar within a national population and is distinguished by national borders. Furthermore, cultural impact on people's subjective well-being perception is approximately consistent across nations. To identify subjective well-being in terms of different cultures, many researchers have collected data from various countries. A wealth of studies on how subjective well-being differs in Asian culture and Western culture have suggested that

people in Asian cultures show a lower degree of life satisfaction, less positive emotion, and less happiness than people in Western cultures (Diene et al., 1995; Kitayama et al., 2000; Mesquita & Karasawa, 2002; Oishi, 2002; Oishi, Diener, Lucas, & Suh, 1999; Tsai, Chentsova-Dutton, Freire-Bebeau, & Przymus, 2002; Tsai, Levenson, & McCoy, 2006; Veenhoven, 2006; Wirtz, Chiu, Diener, & Oishi, 2009).

As mentioned earlier, Asian cultures tend to be collectivistic while Western cultures tend to be individualistic. People from individualistic countries such as the US or Australia are likely to emphasize self-actualizing tendency and achieving their individualized desires, whereas people from collectivistic countries such as China or South Korea tend to stress pursuing harmony in interpersonal relationships and society (Hofstede, 2001; Triandis, 1996). For instance, self-esteem is more strongly related to global life satisfaction in individualistic cultures than in collectivistic ones (Oishi et al., 1999). Particularly, Diener and Diener (1995) found that self-esteem is more highly associated with subjective well-being in individualistic cultures (e.g., the United States) than in collectivist cultures (e.g., Japan). On the other hand, harmony in social relationships is more strongly associated with global life satisfaction in Asian cultures than in Western cultures (Kwan, Bond, & Singelis, 1997). In the same vein, life satisfaction is closely related to people's feelings in individualistic culture, while life satisfaction is strongly associated with people's social life in collectivistic culture (Suh, Diner, & Updegraff, 2008). Likewise, Kitayama et al. (2000) investigated good feelings, which are the major factor of subjective well-being, in Japan and the United States. They found that Japanese people's general positive feelings (e.g., elated, calm) are related to interdependence and interpersonal engagement (e.g., friendly feelings), while Americans' good feelings are related to independence and interpersonal disengagement (e.g., pride). Besides, Lee, Aaker and Gardner (2000, p. 1123) suggested that

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Westerners have more tendency to focus on "positive features of the self and potential gains in situations," while Easterners have more tendency to focus on "potentially negative aspects of the self and situations in an attempt to avoid future social mishap." Additionally, Suh (2002) suggested that Western people are more likely than South Koreans to consider a consistent personality, and the results indicate that consistency is an important indicator of Western people's subjective well-being. And Chirkov, Ryan, Kim and Kaplan (2003) focused on autonomy and suggested that autonomy is a significantly related to well-being in both individualistic and collectivistic cultures: South Korea, Russia, Turkey and the United States. They found that the more people experience autonomy regarding their behavior, the more they feel and experience well-being.

There are several recent studies to examine the relationship between cultural difference and subjective well-being. Tam, Lau and Jiang (2012) investigated bicultural people's subjective well-being in four specific life areas: family, friendships, self-image, and freedom, when Chinese and American cultural ideas are activated respectively. They suggested that bicultural people's subjective well-being was presented differently according to cultural condition. Firstly, family satisfaction is significantly positively related to the SWLS (Satisfaction With Life Scale) in both the Chinese condition and the American condition. Secondly, friendship satisfaction is positively related to the SWLS in the Chinese condition but negatively related in the American condition. Thirdly, self-image satisfaction and freedom satisfaction have a significant positive relation to the SWLS in the American condition. Additionally, Deci et al. (2001) investigated the fulfillment of three fundamental psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) based on Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), which posits that if societal circumstances support these needs and people perceive the fulfillment, their well-being is increased. They

conducted research in various countries, including the United States, Bulgaria, Germany, South Korea, and Russia, and found that the fulfillment of psychological needs has an impact on well-being.

Specifically, Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) examined organizational cultures which they categorized as a strong comprehensive culture, a weak comprehensive culture, a hierarchy driven culture, and a combined group/development-driven culture. Then they explored the impact of organizational culture on the quality of individuals' lives, including satisfaction with work (job, supervisors, pay) and non-work (wellness and life satisfaction). Their results showed that balance across the four culture orientations is a key factor in predicting the quality of life. Since the concept of culture embraces the concept of organizational culture, a relationship can exist between organizational culture and subjective well-being.

Chapter III

Methodology

1. Research hypotheses and research model

In the context of the overall literature review, this research proposes that employees from different cultures may respond differently in perception of organizational culture, psychological contract, and subjective well-being. Since the potential importance of psychological contract and subjective well-being in organizational culture research has not been considered, in response to these shortcomings, it is the purpose of this study to explore (1) the relationship between organizational culture and psychological contract, (2) the relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-being, (3) the relationship between psychological contract and subjective well-being, (4) psychological contract as a potential mediator in the relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-being, and (5) national culture as a crucial moderator of the relationships.

A research model has been developed from a review of existing studies (Figure 1) and seven hypotheses are proposed as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Organizational culture has a significant effect on psychological contract.

Hypothesis 2: Organizational culture has a significant effect on subjective well-being.

Hypothesis 3: Psychological contract has a significant effect on subjective well-being.

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-being is mediated by psychological contract

Hypothesis 5: The relationship between organizational culture and psychological contract is moderated by national culture.

Hypothesis 6: The relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-being is moderated by national culture.

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between psychological contract and subjective well-being is moderated by national culture.

Figure 1. Research model
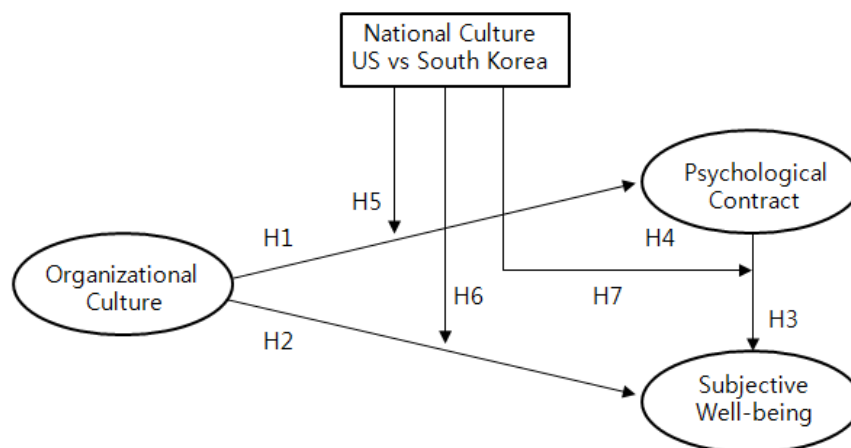
2. Measurement

To accomplish the purposes of this research, the current study used employees' perceptions as measurement of organizational culture, psychological contract, and subjective well-being, and the related instruments were extracted from previous studies and modified it to

fit into this study. First, organizational culture was measured with thirty one items which were taken from Glaser et al.'s (1987) study. Glaser et al. revised the Organizational Culture Survey from Glaser's (1983) study, which originally measured five subscales: climates, involvement, communication, supervision, and meetings by open-ended critical incident interview. Glaser et al. used the Organizational Culture Survey to survey government agencies and manufacturing companies, then, recategorized the subscales as teamwork and conflict, climate and morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, and meetings. Organizational culture is defined as the combination of basic assumptions and beliefs that organizational members share in common (Schein, 1985). Employees were instructed to indicate how they perceive organizational culture. Sample items were "I get enough information to understand hotel management's goals" or "This hotel motivates employee to be efficient and productive".

Second, psychological contract was measured using twelve items which were taken from Herriot et al.'s (1997) study of psychological contract, which originally developed twelve classifications of organizational obligation (training, fairness, needs, consults, discretion, humanity, recognition, environment, justice, pay, benefits, and security). The psychological contract is defined as "an individual's beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organizations" (Rousseau, 1995, p. 9). Employees were instructed to rate the extent to which their hotel fulfills its obligations to employees. Example items were "This hotel has fair procedures for hiring, evaluating, and promoting employees" and "This hotel has competitive and consistent wage policies compared to other hotels".

Third, subjective well-being was measured using five items which were taken from SWLS (Satisfaction with Life Scale), developed by Pavot and Diener's (1993). Subjective well-

being is defined as "people's evaluations of their lives and encompasses both cognitive judg-ments of satisfaction and affective appraisals of moods and emotions" (Kesebir & Diener, 2010, p.18). Generally, subjective well-being is interpreted as life satisfaction. Employees were requested to rate the extent to which they feel satisfied with their overall life. Sample items were "In most ways, my life has been close to my ideal" and "So far I have gotten the important things I want in life." All variables were measured using five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The initial survey questionnaire was developed in English first by the researcher and her advisor. One Korean graduate student who is bilingual and is not involved in this research translated the questionnaire into Korean. To ensure the accuracy of the translation and to prohibit language bias, another Korean American student who is bilingual and is not involved with this research translated the Korean version of the questionnaire into English. This translated English version was compared with the original English version. Through the process, the items were revised and confirmed the reliability and validity. Before conducting the survey in Korea, the Korean version of the questionnaire was checked by Korean hotel employees to ascertain if the items were easy to understand, then some questionnaires were revised to help employees' comprehension. In the same way, prior to the survey in the United States, the English version was checked by native doctoral students, then some items were revised. Then, a pilot study was performed with a few Korean hotel employees and American doctoral students majoring in hospitality management prior to conducting the onsite survey in South Korea and the online survey in the US. The revised questionnaires based on feedback from the pilot study were confirmed for reliability and validity.

3. Sample and procedure

The sample involved in the current study was consisted of employees who are working in the hotel industry. This research was a cross-national study involving data collection from two nations; South Korea and the United States. In the first step, the researcher obtained approval from the IRB on the content of the questionnaire for the on-site survey in South Korea in December, 2012, and for the online survey in the United States in March, 2013. In the second step, the researcher contacted personally human resource managers in ten international chain hotels in Seoul, South Korea to ask for cooperation in on-site surveys of their hotel employees. The researcher visited eight hotels which agreed to participate in the survey and delivered the questionnaires with an information letter (mentioning the objectives of the study, confidentiality and voluntary participation) which was approved by the IRB to human resource managers. All questionnaires were self-administered by the employees and the managers collected the complete questionnaires and returned them to the researcher. In the South Korean sample, surveys were distributed to 300 employees and a total of 254 employees completed the surveys, representing a response rate of 84.6 %. In the third step, the online survey was conducted in the United States. A marketing company was employed to conduct the nationwide online survey designating the sample as hotel employees. Online survey questionnaires were distributed to 274 employees and a total of 208 employees completed the surveys, representing a response rate of 75.9 %.

Chapter IV

Results

1. Profile of respondents

In the United States sample, a total of 208 usable questionnaires, a 75.9 percent response rate, were received from various hotel brands such as Holiday Inn, Marriott, Wyndham, Hilton, InterContinental, Embassy Suite, Renaissance, Days Inn, Choice, Ramada, Four Seasons, Sheraton, Ritz-Carlton, Sands, Homewood, Hyatt, Best Western, MGM, Omni, etc. The respondents' demographic characteristics showed that 54.8 percent were female and 35.6 percent of them were over 50 years old. Around 46 percent of respondents were married, 58.7 percent were college students or held college degrees, and average tenure was 97 months which indicated that they had held their jobs approximately 8 years (SD=84.64). And 42.3 percent of respondents worked in management departments, 27.4 percent of them in food and beverage departments, and 23.6 percent of them in other departments including purchasing, loss prevention, security, engineering, casino, spa, health club, maintenance and convention. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of respondents in the United States. In the Korean sample, a total of 254 usable questionnaires, an 84.6 percent response rate, were received from eight five star chain hotels: Sheraton, Grand Hyatt, Shilla, Park Hyatt, JW Marriott, Ritz-Carlton, Oakwood and Banyan Tree. The respondents' demographic characteristics showed that 60.2 percent were male and 39.8 percent of them were between the ages of 25 and 29 years old. Around 66 percent of respondents

were single, 91.7 percent were college students or held college degrees, and average tenure was

62 months which indicated that they had held their jobs approximately 5 years (SD=59.88). And

41.3 percent of respondents worked in management departments, 33.5 percent of them in room

departments, and 24 percent of them in food and beverage departments. Table 2 shows the

descriptive statistics of respondents in South Korea.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the United States respondents

	Frequency (n=208)	Percent of Total
Gender		
Male	94	45.2
Female	114	54.8
Age		
20-24	4	1.9
25-29	24	11.5
30-34	37	17.8
35-39	27	13.0
40-44	17	8.2
45-49	25	12.0
Over 50	74	35.6
Marital status		
Single	86	41.3
Married	96	46.2
Others	26	12.5
Education		
Graduated from high school	70	33.7
College student or graduated from college	122	58.7
Graduated student or graduated from graduate school	16	7.7
Department		
Food & Beverage	57	27.4
Room	14	6.7
Management	88	42.3
Others	49	23.6
Work status		

	Frequency	Percent of Total
Nonstandard work status	4	1.9
Standard work status	204	98.1

Table 2. Demographic characteristics of South Korean respondents

	Frequency (n=254)	Percent of Total
Gender		
Male	153	60.2
Female	101	39.8
Age		
20-24	8	3.1
25-29	101	39.8
30-34	86	33.9
35-39	34	13.4
40-44	13	5.1
45-49	7	2.8
Over 50	5	2.0
Marital status		
Single	168	66.1
Married	85	33.5
Others	1	0.4
Education		
Graduated from high school	4	1.6
College student or graduated from college	233	91.7
Graduated student or graduated from graduate school	17	6.7
Department		
Food & Beverage	61	24.0
Room	85	33.5
Management	105	41.3
Others	3	1.2
Work status		
Nonstandard work status	45	17.7
Standard work status	209	82.3

2. Exploratory factor analysis

To confirm the content validity of a construct, it has been suggested using existing scales that reliability and validity were verified from previous research (Flynn, Sakakibara, Schroeder, Bates, & Flynn, 1990). In this research, the content validity of psychological contract items has not been confirmed by other researchers because the items were drawn from the qualitative research; therefore, prior to conducting the confirmatory factor analysis for three constructs, organizational culture, psychological contract and subjective well-being, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the psychological contract using principal component analysis with orthogonal Varimax rotation. As a result of the exploratory factor analysis, the construct factorized clearly and proved the criterion validity. As shown in Table 3, two factors of employer's obligations perceived by employees was presented; one factor included eight variables and the other factor included four variables explaining 56.580 percent and 1.032 percent of the variance in the data with factor loadings greater than 0.5 and eigenvalue greater than 1.0. The factor analysis presented adequate validity with a Bartlett Test of Sphericity value of 3408.626 and a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.938 showing significance at the level of $p<0.000$ (Hair, Anderson, Hatham, & Black, 1998). The first factor was labeled as "support" and the second was "pay". Consequently, the results of exploratory factor analysis of psychological contract produced two factors demonstrating satisfactory criterion validity.

Table 3. Exploratory factor analysis of psychological contract

	Factor loadings	Eigen value	Variance explained (%)
Support			
4. This hotel communicates with employees on matters which affect them.	0.779	6.790	56.580
2. This hotel has fair procedures for hiring, evaluating, and promoting employees.	0.763		
1. This hotel provides adequate training programs to employees.	0.737		
9. This hotel applies rules and disciplinary procedures in a fair and consistent way.	0.731		
6. This hotel acts in a supportive way towards employees.	0.692		
3. This hotel allows me time off to meet personal or family needs.	0.684		
8. This hotel provides a safe and congenial work environment.	0.673		
5. This hotel interferes as little as possible with the way employees do their jobs.	0.600		
Pay			
11. This hotel provides better benefits than other hotels.	0.885	1.032	1.032
10. This hotel has competitive and consistent wage policies compared to other hotels.	0.830		
12. This hotel tries hard to provide what job security it can.	0.729		
7. This hotel provides incentives for special contributions or long service.	0.613		

3. Confirmatory factor analysis and reliability analysis

First, the content validity of each construct item was confirmed by Glaser et al. (1987) for organizational culture and by Pavot and Diener (1993) for subjective well-being. Second, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to confirm the convergent and discriminant validity of the proposed model in the study. Convergent validity can be determined if "two similar constructs correspond with one another", while discriminant validity can be established if

"two dissimilar constructs are easily differentiated"[1]. Based on the CFA, one item of organizational culture "When I do a good job my supervisor tells me" was removed because the standardized item loading value (0.380) was lower than 0.5. After eliminating the item with low loading value, the CFA was again conducted for the 47 items of all three variables. Table 4 presents the results of the CFA such as factor names, standardized item loading estimates, standardized error, critical ratio (t-value), construct reliability and average variance extracted (AVE). As shown in Table 4, first, the critical ratio (t-value) of the variables in each of the nine factors were more than 1.96 ($p<0.05$) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), and the factor loading values of the variables were more than 0.5 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), which verified the convergent validity. Second, the construct reliability values were more than 0.7 and AVE was greater than 0.5 for the nine factors, which also proved the convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Third, to verify the discriminant validity, the shared variances between constructs (the squared correlation between two constructs) were calculated. Table 5 shows the result of means, standard deviations, correlations, and the squared correlation between two constructs (the shared variances). To verify the discriminant validity of the constructs, the shared variances were lower than AVE for each factor (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As shown in Table 4 and 5, all of the shared variances met the condition and the discriminant validity of the constructs was confirmed. Thus, the results confirmed the convergent and discriminant validity for all constructs used in the research model. The CFA results provided a reasonable fit ($\chi^2= 2371.059$, d.f.= 996 ($p<0.01$); root mean square residual (RMR)=0.048; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)=0.055; incremental fit index (IFI)=0.923; Turker and Lewis index (TLI)=0.917; comparative fit index (CFI)=0.923). As established by recommended fit indices (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Browne & Cudeck, 1992;

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[1] Retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Convergent_validity

Shah & Goldstein, 2006), the model fit index was fine to use all variables for further structural

equation model analysis.

Table 4. Confirmatory factor analysis and reliability analysis

		V	F.L.	S.E.	C.R.[a]	C.R.[b]	AVE	α
Organiz -ational culture	Teamwork	OC1	0.740	-	-	0.928	0.581	0.898
		OC2	0.732	0.069	15.642			
		OC3	0.813	0.063	17.501			
		OC4	0.826	0.063	17.801			
		OC5	0.767	0.062	16.437			
		OC6	0.762	0.070	16.341			
	Morale	OC7	0.832	-	-	0.939	0.757	0.939
		OC8	0.912	0.045	25.891			
		OC9	0.903	0.045	25.435			
		OC10	0.838	0.044	22.399			
		OC11	0.861	0.045	23.425			
	Information flow	OC12	0.810	0.074	17.079	0.843	0.575	0.841
		OC13	0.844	0.077	17.801			
		OC14	0.634	0.077	13.255			
		OC15	0.729	-	-			
	Involvement	OC16	0.769	0.043	19.969	0.903	0.699	0.902
		OC17	0.848	0.040	23.314			
		OC18	0.873	0.040	24.550			
		OC19	0.851	-	-			
	Supervision	OC20	0.715	0.046	17.589	0.938	0.609	0.917
		OC22	0.802	0.049	20.771			
		OC23	0.762	0.045	19.265			
		OC24	0.874	0.042	23.894			
		OC25	0.860	0.045	23.234			
		OC26	0.837	-	-			
	Meetings	OC27	0.805	0.042	21.258	0.912	0.676	0.911
		OC28	0.732	0.045	18.371			
		OC29	0.842	0.042	22.904			
		OC30	0.875	0.042	24.446			
		OC31	0.850	-	-			

		V	F.L.	S.E.	C.R.ᵃ	C.R.ᵇ	AVE	α
Psychol-ogical contract	Support	PSY1	0.702	-	-	0.947	0.518	0.904
		PSY2	0.783	0.068	16.091			
		PSY3	0.587	0.066	12.147			
		PSY4	0.799	0.064	16.399			
		PSY5	0.636	0.068	13.131			
		PSY6	0.833	0.073	17.082			
		PSY8	0.736	0.068	15.144			
		PSY9	0.788	0.070	16.183			
	Pay	PSY7	0.776	-	-	0.860	0.607	0.870
		PSY10	0.717	0.052	15.727			
		PSY11	0.733	0.057	16.146			
		PSY12	0.879	0.051	19.843			
Subjective well-being		SWB1	0.851	-	-	0.908	0.664	0.906
		SWB2	0.792	0.044	20.271			
		SWB3	0.850	0.043	22.639			
		SWB4	0.781	0.044	19.843			
		SWB5	0.796	0.051	20.436			

V: Variables, F.L.: Factor Loadings, S.E.: Standardized Error, C.R.ᵃ: Critical Ratio (t-value),
C. R.ᵇ: Construct Reliability, AVE: Average Variance Extracted, α : Cronbach's Alpha

Table 5. Means, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Teamwork	3.5985	0.7451								
2. Morale	3.4970	0.9228	0.731* (0.534)							
3. Information flow	3.4821	0.8141	0.612* (0.375)	0.764* (0.584)						
4. Involvement	3.4643	0.9260	0.668* (0.446)	0.797* (0.635)	0.786* (0.618)					
5. Supervision	3.5862	0.8163	0.685* (0.469)	0.754* (0.569)	0.719* (0.517)	0.772* (0.596)				
6. Meetings	3.4004	0.8884	0.684* (0.468)	0.731* (0.534)	0.720* (0.518)	0.774* (0.599)	0.733* (0.537)			
7. Support	3.4957	0.7582	0.593* (0.352)	0.779* (0.607)	0.691* (0.477)	0.724* (0.524)	0.721* (0.520)	0.692* (0.479)		
8. Pay	3.2825	0.9564	0.468* (0.219)	0.630* (0.397)	0.520* (0.270)	0.597* (0.356)	0.523* (0.274)	0.568* (0.323)	0.742* (0.551)	
9. SWB	3.3814	0.8555	0.452* (0.204)	0.500* (0.250)	0.487* (0.237)	0.534* (0.285)	0.456* (0.208)	0.531* (0.282)	0.492* (0.242)	0.508* (0.258)

*p<0.01 ( )=squared multiple correlation

To confirm reliability and internal consistency within factors, the reliability analysis was conducted and the results showed that Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of factors from nine factors ranged from 0.841 to 0.939 in Table 4. The Cronbach Alpha coefficients were over 0.6 (Nunnally, 1978), therefore, acceptable reliability for further analyses was verified.

4. Differences in organizational culture, psychological contract and subjective well-being between United States and South Korean employees

Prior to demonstrating the hypotheses, this study investigated mean differences of organizational culture, psychological contract, and subjective well-being in terms of US and South Korean employees. As shown in Table 6, an independent sample t-test was conducted to verify significant differences in organizational culture, psychological contract, and subjective well-being between two groups. The results indicated that there were significant differences between the groups in four factors. South Korean employees perceived higher teamwork than did US employees. Also, South Korean employees perceived higher involvement and greater importance of meetings in organizational culture and higher subjective well-being than did US employees.

Table 6. Mean differences of each construct between US and South Korean employees

Constructs	Factors	US (n=208)	South Korea (n=254)	t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)
Organizational culture	Teamwork	3.3958	3.7644	-5.363	0.000*
	Morale	3.4587	3.5283	-0.794	0.428
	Information flow	3.4784	3.4852	-0.089	0.929
	Involvement	3.3498	3.5581	-2.359	0.019**
	Supervision	3.5256	3.6358	-1.425	0.155
	Meetings	3.2298	3.5402	-3.789	0.000*

Psychological	Support	3.5355	3.4631	1.021	0.308
contract	Pay	3.2524	3.3071	-0.611	0.541
Subjective well-being	SWB	3.2615	3.4795	-2.710	0.007*
* p<0.01, **p <0.05					

5. Relationships among organizational culture, psychological contract and subjective well-being

To test hypotheses on the relationships among organizational culture, psychological contract and subjective well-being, structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis was conducted. The results of maximum likelihood estimation presented an acceptable model fit: χ^2 =129.511 (d.f.=1, p<0.01), root mean square residual (RMR)=0.024, goodness of fit index (GFI)=0.948, normed fit index (NFI)=0.963, incremental fit index (IFI) = 0.963, comparative fit index (CFI)=0.963.

Table 7 summarized how six factors of organizational culture impact two factors of psychological contract and subjective well-being, and how two factors of psychological contract influence subjective well-being. In regard to hypothesis 1, the relationship between organizational culture and psychological contract, the results showed that morale significantly positively influenced support and pay. Second, involvement significantly positively influenced pay. Third, supervision significantly positively influenced support. Fourth, meetings significantly positively influenced support and pay. Consequently, hypothesis 1 was partially supported. In regard to hypothesis 2, the relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-being, involvement and meetings significantly positively influenced subjective well-being. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was partially supported. In regard to hypothesis 3, the relationship between

psychological contract and subjective well-being, pay significantly positively influenced

subjective well-being. Thus, hypothesis 3 was partially supported.

The results of SEM are shown by Figure 2. Even if insignificant impacts are drawn as

dotted lines in general, using signs for both the significant and insignificant impacts may make

the results difficult to understand because this research model included nine factors; therefore,

the figure was made to be simple by drawing only lines reporting the significant impacts to make

the results clear.

Table 7. Results of structural equation modeling analysis

Hypotheses	Paths	Coefficient	t-values	Results
H1: Organizational culture → Psychological contract	Teamwork→ Support	-0.083	-1.959	Partially supported
	Teamwork→ Pay	-0.075	0.175	
	Morale → Support	0.444	8.315*	
	Morale → Pay	0.428	6.155*	
	Information flow→ Support	0.073	1.507	
	Information flow→ Pay	-0.058	-0.930	
	Involvement→ Support	0.091	1.648	
	Involvement→ Pay	0.211	2.928*	
	Supervision→ Support	0.218	4.518*	
	Supervision→ Pay	-0.009	-0.148	
	Meetings→ Support	0.142	2.976*	
	Meetings→ Pay	0.191	3.073*	
H2: Organizational culture → SWB	Teamwork →SWB	0.094	1.604	Partially supported
	Morale →SWB	-0.026	-0.317	
	Information flow →SWB	0.094	1.410	
	Involvement →SWB	0.162	2.101**	
	Supervision →SWB	-0.041	-0.608	
	Meetings →SWB	0.188	2.803*	
H3: Psychological contract→ SWB	Support →SWB	-0.026	-0.400	Partially supported
	Pay →SWB	0.268	5.488*	

*p<0.01, **p<0.05

Figure 2. Result of structural equation modeling analysis
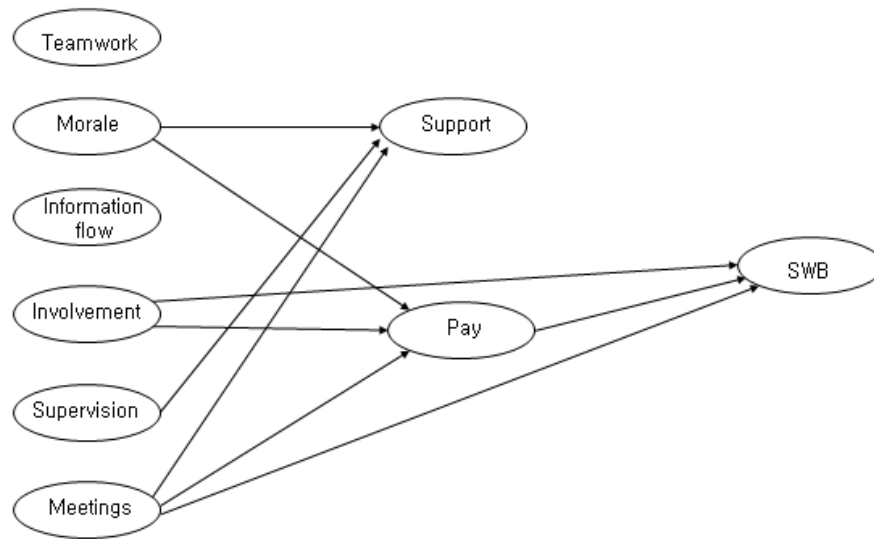
6. Mediating effects of psychological contract in the relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-being

To identify the mediating effects of psychological contract in the relationship between organizaitonal culture and subjective well-being, total effects was investigated by separating direct effects and indirect effects. Standard errors and significance of the indirect effects can be judged through using bootstrapping because it is difficult to identify the significance of indirect effects in structural equation modeling using AMOS statistical program (Kline, 1998). Bootstrapping is a resampling method, which means generating a sampling distribution to estimate standard errors and producing the confidence intervals, and it is possible to verify the mediation effect by generating confidence intervals (Cheung & Lau, 2008).

Support for hypotheses 1 to 2 was conditional for mediation. As shown in Table 8, the relationship between three factors of organizational culture, which are morale, involvement and meetings, and subjective well- being was mediated significantly by the psychological contract.

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As shown in Figure 3, one factor of psychological contract, which is pay, played a mediating variable in the relationship between morale and subjective well-being, between involvement and subjective well-being, and between meetings and subjective well-being. Thus, hypothesis 4 was partially supported.

Table 8. Mediating effects of psychological contract

Paths Organizational culture → SWB	Standardized direct effects (Standard errors / p value[a])	Standardized indirect effects (Standard errors / p value[a])	Standardized total effects (Standard errors / p value[a])
Teamwork → SWB	0.094 (0.064 / 0.132)	-0.018 (0.017 / 0.284)	0.076 (0.068 / 0.274)
Morale → SWB	-0.026 (0.089 / 0.746)	0.103 (0.036 / 0.010*)	0.078 (0.091 / 0.316)
Information flow → SWB	0.094 (0.079 / 0.203)	-0.018 (0.024 / 0.565)	0.076 (0.079 / 0.320)
Involvement → SWB	0.162 (0.090 / 0.056)	0.054 (0.023 / 0.022*)	0.216 (0.091 / 0.024*)
Supervision → SWB	-0.041 (0.090 / 0.488)	-0.008 (0.027 / 0.847)	-0.049 (0.091 / 0.473)
Meetings → SWB	0.188 (0.077 / 0.011*)	0.048 (0.022 / 0.010*)	0.236 (0.073 / 0.010*)

a= p value of biased-corrected confidence intervals, * p<0.05

Figure 3. Mediating effects of psychological contract
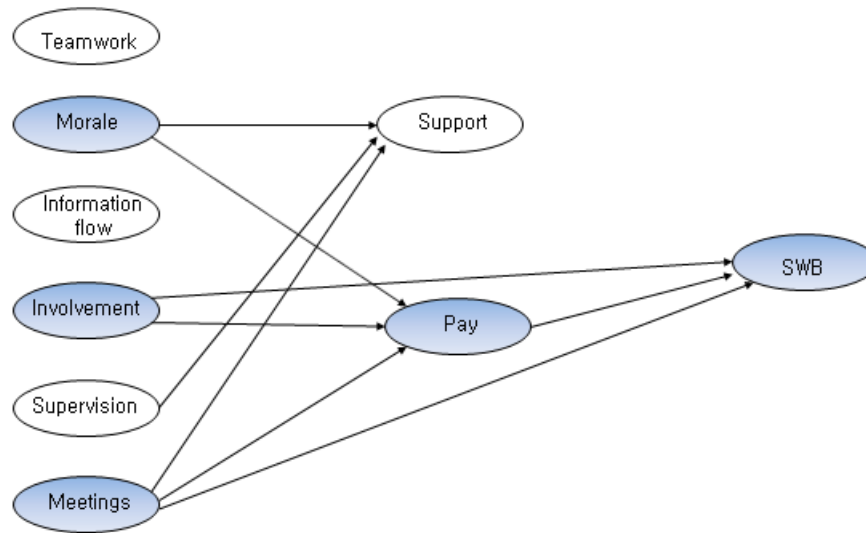
7. Moderating effects of national culture in the relationship among organizational culture, psychological contract and subjective well-being

To identify the existence of moderating effects of national culture on the relationship between organizational culture and psychological contract, between organizational culture and subjective well-being, and between psychological contract and subjective well-being, this research employed an invariance test of a structural model. To confirm the moderating effect, chi-square values between a free model and a constrained model that means a specific path is equaled by groups were evaluated. If the difference between a free model's chi-square value and a constrained model's chi-square value is higher than 3.84 (p<0.05), it indicates there exists a significant moderating effect.

Table 9. Invariance tests of the structural model for national culture

Paths	US		South Korea		Free model	Constrai-ned model	Δχ²	Results
	Coefficients	t-values	Coefficients	t-values				
H5								
Teamwork → Support	0.005	0.087	-0.069	-1.239	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 130.933	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 0.876	NS
Teamwork → Pay	-0.032	-0.355	-0.087	-1.235	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 130.375	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 0.318	NS
Morale → Support	0.554	7.093[*]	0.305	4.354[*]	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 133.593	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 3.536	NS
Morale → Pay	0.455	4.106[*]	0.401	4.498[*]	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 130.057	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 0	NS
Information flow → Support	-0.001	-0.015	0.058	0.829	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 130.467	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 0.410	NS
Information flow→ Pay	-0.104	-1.121	-0.049	-0.556	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 130.188	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 0.131	NS
Involvement → Support	0.082	1.174	0.139	1.636	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 130.539	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 0.482	NS
Involvement → Pay	0.216	2.163[**]	0.241	2.239[**]	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 130.304	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 0.247	NS
Supervision → Support	0.230	3.836[*]	0.098	1.257	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 131.457	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 1.400	NS
Supervision → Pay	0.072	0.851	-0.194	-1.967[**]	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 134.344	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 4.287	S
Meetings → Support	0.055	0.951	0.330	4.280[*]	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 138.237	$\Delta\chi 2(1)=$ 8.180	S
Meetings → Pay	0.115	1.388	0.344	3.503[*]	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 133.415	$\Delta\chi 2(1)=$ 3.358	NS
H6								
Teamwork →SWB	0.108	1.057	0.057	0.850	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 130.205	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 0.148	NS
Morale →SWB	-0.246	-1.678	0.116	1.287	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 134.720	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 4.663	S
Information flow →SWB	0.228	2.140[**]	0.027	0.324	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 132.173	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 2.116	NS
Involvement →SWB	0.295	2.538[**]	-0.001	-0.008	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 133.251	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 3.194	NS
Supervision →SWB	-0.216	-2.134[**]	0.167	1.773	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 137.570	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 7.513	S
Meetings →SWB	0.061	0.639	0.238	2.432[**]	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 131.641	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 1.584	NS
H7								
Support →SWB	0.132	1.165	-0.104	-1.383	$\chi^2(2)=$ 130.057	$\chi^2(3)=$ 132.385	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$ 2.328	NS
Pay	0.240	3.007[*]	0.311	5.250[*]	$\chi^2(2)=$	$\chi^2(3)=$	$\Delta\chi^2(1)=$	NS

					130.057	130.255	0.198	
→SWB								

*p<0.01, **p<0.05, NS: Not Supported, S: Supported

Figure 4. Moderating effects of national culture
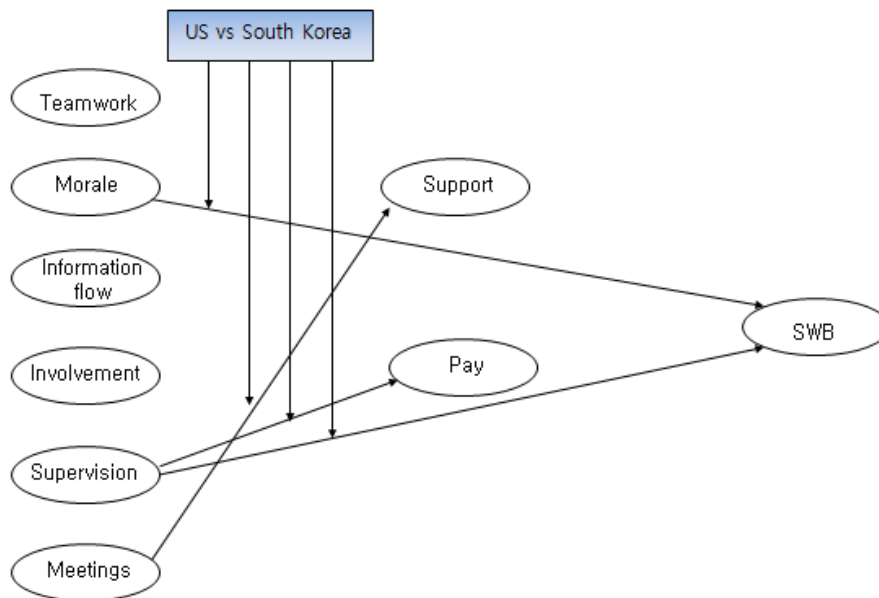
As shown in Table 9, according to national culture, the direction of impacts was shown as different ways like positive or negative, or different degree. The role as a moderator of national culture was confirmed in the four relationships: the relationships between supervision and pay, between meetings and support, between morale and subjective well-being, and between supervision and subjective well-being. First, in the relationship between supervision and pay, supervision had positive effects on pay in the US, whereas, supervision had negative effects on pay in South Korea. Second, in the relationship between meetings and support, meetings had more positive impacts on support in South Korea than in the US. Third, in the relationship

between morale and subjective well-being, morale had negative influence on subjective well-being in the US. On the other hand, morale had positive influence on subjective well-being in South Korea. Fourth, in the relationship between supervision and subjective well-being, supervision had negative influence on subjective well-being in the US. In contrast, supervision had positive influence on subjective well-being in South Korea. Consequently, hypothesis 5 and 6 were partially supported, however, hypothesis 7 was not supported. In the context of the results of moderating effects, the impacts of national culture on the three variables will be discussed, and practical implications from the results will be suggested in the discussion section.

Chapter V

Discussion

1. Conclusion

The present study aimed to advance understanding of employees' psychological contract and subjective well-being in regard to organizational culture. Also, this research sought to explain psychological contract as a mediator and national culture as a moderator in the relationships among three constructs. This research provides empirical evidence of the relationship among organizational culture, psychological contact and subjective well-being. Also, the results obtained from this present research suggest critical implications for human resource management in the hotel industry. First, four of the six factors of organizational culture, morale, involvement, supervision and meetings, were associated with psychological contract, which consists of employee's feeling about employer's support and pay. Specifically, morale and meetings had a positive effect on support and pay, involvement had a positive effect on pay, and supervision had a positive effect on support. Additionally, meetings and involvement, two factors of organizational culture, had a positive influence on subjective well-being, and pay, one factor of psychological contract, had a positive impact on subjective well-being.

The findings can be interpreted as follows. Employees expect two basic obligations from their employers: support and pay. Support can include providing adequate training programs, using fair recruiting procedures, communicating well, and empowering employees. Pay can

include providing incentives, job security, and better benefits and wages than other organizations. Employees are more likely to perceive that employers' obligations (pay and support) are fulfilled well when their organization works to boost morale and encourage meetings. In this research, the morale involves motivating employees to be efficient and productive, treating them in a consistent fair manner, and having an atmosphere of trust. And the meetings means that their organizational culture considers meetings as a crucial part of managing the organization, and as a way to draw on employees' creative potential, and provides opportunities to participate in meetings with employees.

In particular, employees are likely to perceive that employers' obligations toward employees are fulfilled well in the aspect of pay (better benefits, wage system, incentives, or job security) when they feel that their organization encourages their involvement in the organization, as by asking their opinions and suggestion for development of the organization or new policies, or by considering every employee's ideas valuable.

Additionally, employees are more likely to perceive that their employer's obligations are fulfilled well in the aspect of support (training, fair recruiting, communicating, and empowerment) when they feel that their organization considers supervision an important part of leadership, as when their supervisors make job requirements clear, give feedback on present job tasks, take criticism well from other levels of employees, give employees criticism in a positive manner, and are good listeners.

Furthermore, when employees feel that their organization considers meetings and involvement crucial, they have a greater tendency to feel that their life has been close to their ideal, that the conditions of their life have been excellent, and that they are satisfied with their life. Also, when employees feel that their organization fulfills their obligations in the aspects of

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benefits, incentives and wages, they are more satisfied with their overall life.

Second, the positive role of psychological contract in the aspect of pay as a mediator was revealed in the relationship between organizational culture, including morale, involvement and meetings, and subjective well-being. These findings indicate that when employees perceive that their organization provides fair benefits, incentives, and wages, the psychological contract can foster a more positive relationship between their perception of organizational culture, including morale, involvement and meetings, and their overall life satisfaction. That being in the case, it can be inferred that the employer's fulfilling the promise related to pay is a considerable part of enhancing employees' life satisfaction. This finding is in line with Conway and Briner's (2005) suggestion that employees' appraisal of their psychological contract has been considered crucial because the appraisal is helpful to describe or predict their future attitudes and behaviors toward their employers or organizations.

Third, the role of national culture as moderator was confirmed in the four relationships: the relationships between supervision and pay, and between meetings and support, between morale and subjective well-being, and between supervision and subjective well-being. The degree and kind of impact was different in the two cultures of the US and South Korea.

Firstly, when US employees perceive supervision under organizational culture, they have a greater tendency to feel that obligations in aspect of pay are fulfilled. On the contrary, when South Korean employees perceive supervision under organizational culture, they are less likely to feel that the employer's obligations in aspect of pay are fulfilled. It can be interpreted that when US employees feel that their supervisors have good quality leadership and give useful feedback on their jobs, they are likely to perceive that their organization keeps the promises related to benefits, incentives, and wages. Conversely, even if South Korean employees evaluate

their supervisors favorably, they may not believe their organization thoroughly fulfills its obligations related to pay. It can be inferred that South Koreans consider the organization and the supervisors to be independent, while US employees have more tendency to equate the supervisors with the organization. That being in the case, South Korean hotels need to try to engraft the idea in employees' minds that supervisors play a role in delivering the whole organization's mission and concretely implementing the organization's obligations.

Secondly, South Korean employees' perception of meetings under organizational culture had a more positive effect on employers' support than in the US. It can be interpreted to mean that South Korean employees are more likely than US employees to give a higher assessment of aspects of employers' support, such as providing training programs, a safe and congenial work environment, or a fair and consistent application of rules and disciplinary procedures, when they perceive that their organization regards the role of meetings and employees' participation in meetings as a vital element for the development of the organization. It can be inferred that it is necessary for hotels in South Korea to vitalize meetings and attempt to design the process of the meetings and encourage more employees to participate in them.

Thirdly, even if US employees feel that their organization respects them and motivates them to put forth their best efforts and to be efficient and productive, they are inclined to perceive they are not satisfied with their overall life. In contrast, when South Korean employees feel that their organization motivates them to make more efforts, they are inclined to perceive that they are more satisfied with their overall life. This finding differs from the findings of existing studies (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974; Litwin & Stringer, 1968). From this finding, it is possible to interpret that motivation from their organizations is a substantial part of South Korean employees' working life; subsequently, it can increase their life satisfaction because

collectivistic cultures such as South Korea value social relationships such as harmony with others and mental support from others and emphasize smooth interpersonal relationships (Restubog et al., 2006).

Fourthly, even if US employees feel that their supervisors are faithful in their duties, they are likely to perceive that they are not satisfied with their overall life. In contrast, when South Korean employees assess their supervisors favorably, they are likely to perceive that they are satisfied with their overall life. This finding can be interpreted by using the studies of Rousseau (2001), and Rousseau and Schalk (2000), which showed that promises may be viewed as strongly binding in terms of cultures and may build psychological contracts more strongly. There are two possible explanations for the findings. In collectivistic cultures such as South Korea, social relationships are considered very important. Taking guidance from good supervisors and having strong ties to them may be meaningful for South Korean employees; therefore, a good relationship with superiors can be positively related to their life satisfaction. However, in individualistic cultures such as the US, self-esteem are an essential part for life satisfaction; therefore, US employees may perceive that having good supervisors is not related to their life satisfaction. The findings presented in this research have significant theoretical and practical managerial implications.

2. Theoretical implications

The present research contributes to the existing understanding of organizational culture, psychological contract, and subjective well-being in four ways. First, the present research revealed specific subdimensions of organizational culture and psychological contract. Second, this research showed a direct relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-

being. As discussed above, culture is closely related to subjective well-being. Even though organizational culture is a subordinate concept of culture, there have been few previous attempts to identify the relationship; therefore, this research can suggest better ways to establish desirable organizational culture. Third, this research advanced a framework in which psychological contract mediates the relationship between organizational culture and subjective well-being. Fourth, this research extends previous work on organizational culture and psychological contract theory by demonstrating the distinct characteristics of individualistic and collectivistic national cultures, which is a particular strength of this research and a methodological contribution.

3. Managerial implications

This research yields practical recommendations for management practice to understand employees' perception of organizational culture and psychological contract. Also, the findings could be crucial for hotel managers by showing ways to enhance employees' well-being. First, hotels need to establish an organizational culture that highlights motivation, involvement, leadership, and participation in order to encourage employees to perceive that the employer fulfills obligations such as training, career development, wages, and benefits. Second, hotels should build an organizational atmosphere that enhances employees' life satisfaction by stressing involvement and participation. Third, hotels should fulfill their obligations related to wages, benefits, and incentives in order to increase employees' life satisfaction. If hotels have difficulty in establishing a new organizational culture or in redesigning it, they can still show their efforts to fulfill their obligations related to wage, benefit, and incentives. Based on the effort alone, employees can feel more satisfied with their overall life. Fourth, Korean hotels need to focus more on building an organizational culture addressing motivation and good leadership, thus

leading employees to feel more satisfaction with their lives. Fifth, US hotels need more emphasis on establishing an organizational culture of leadership and participation, which in turn can lead to a more positive perception of employers' fulfilling their obligations such as support and pay. To retain qualified and skillful employees and motivate them to deliver a higher quality of service, hotel managers must fulfill what they promised to employees. If employees feel that their employer fulfills these obligations, they feel more satisfied with their overall life, resulting in higher service quality.

4. Limitations and future research

There are several limitations of this study that need to be acknowledged. First, this research depended on employees' perceptions to appraise organizational culture and psychological contract as well as subjective well-being. This appraisal is subjective, related to employees' own personalities or their own referral groups. Hence, future research should develop more objective instruments to identify psychological aspects. A second limitation is that the survey was conducted in only two countries, the US and South Korea. Even if the former is an example of an individualistic culture and the latter is an example of a collectivistic culture according to a number of studies' findings, just one country cannot fully represent a culture. Therefore, future research requires examining hotel employees from a diverse range of national boundaries. Studies in different national settings would help support the generalizability of this study's findings. A third limitation lies in the three constructs of employees' perceptions. Future research can attempt to incorporate emotional experiences of employees as another potential variable and determine how they contribute to the relationships described in this research.

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Survey of Hotel Employees' Opinions

This is a survey of how satisfied you are with your job and your work environment. Answer each question as best you can. All answers will be kept strictly confidential and will be used by the researcher only for statistical purposes.

I. For each statement below, circle the number that best describes your feelings about your job. 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: neither disagree nor agree, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree	Please Circle				
1. People I work with are direct and honest with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
2. People I work with accept criticism from colleagues or supervisors without becoming defensive.	1	2	3	4	5
3. People I work with function as a team.	1	2	3	4	5
4. People I work with confront problems in a constructive manner.	1	2	3	4	5
5. People I work with are good listeners.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Employees and management have a productive working relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
7. This hotel motivates me to put forth my best efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
8. This hotel respects its employees.	1	2	3	4	5
9. This hotel treats employee in a consistent and fair manner.	1	2	3	4	5
10. There is an atmosphere of trust in this hotel.	1	2	3	4	5
11. This hotel motivates employee to be efficient and productive.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I get enough information to understand hotel management's goals.	1	2	3	4	5
13. When changes are made, this hotel provides the reasons why are made clear.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I know what's happening in work sections outside of my job or department.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I get the information I need to do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I have a say in decisions that affect my work.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I am asked to make suggestions about how to do my job better from my supervisor or colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
18. This hotel values the ideas of employees at every level.	1	2	3	4	5
19. My opinions count in this hotel for new policy or policy change.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Job requirements are made clear by my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
21. When I do a good job, my supervisor tells me.	1	2	3	4	5
22. My supervisor takes criticism well from subordinates, colleagues or bosses.	1	2	3	4	5

23. My supervisor delegates responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
24. My supervisor gives me criticism in a positive manner.	1	2	3	4	5
25. My supervisor is a good listener.	1	2	3	4	5
26. My supervisor tells me how I'm doing.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Decisions made at meetings get put into action.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Everyone takes part in discussions at meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Our discussions in meetings stay on track.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Time in meetings is time well spent.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Meetings tap the creative potential of the people present.	1	2	3	4	5

II. For each statement below, circle the number that best describes your feelings about your hotel's obligations to employees. 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: neither disagree nor agree, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree	Please Circle				
1. This hotel provides adequate training programs to employees.	1	2	3	4	5
2. This hotel has fair procedures for hiring, evaluating, and promoting employees.	1	2	3	4	5
3. This hotel allows me time off to meet personal or family needs.	1	2	3	4	5
4. This hotel communicates with employees on matters which affect them.	1	2	3	4	5
5. This hotel interferes as little as possible with the way employees do their jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
6. This hotel acts in a supportive way towards employees.	1	2	3	4	5
7. This hotel provides incentives for special contributions or long service.	1	2	3	4	5
8. This hotel provides a safe and congenial work environment.	1	2	3	4	5
9. This hotel applies rules and disciplinary procedures in a fair and consistent way.	1	2	3	4	5
10. This hotel has competitive and consistent wage policies compared to other hotels	1	2	3	4	5
11. This hotel provides better benefits than other hotels.	1	2	3	4	5
12. This hotel tries hard to provide what job security it can.	1	2	3	4	5

III. How much do you agree or disagree with the five statements below? 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: neither disagree nor agree, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree	**Please Circle**				
1. In most ways, my life has been close to my ideal.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The conditions of my life have been excellent.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.	1	2	3	4	5
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	1	2	3	4	5

IV. General questions

1. What is your gender?

① Male   ② Female

2. What is your age?

① 20-24   ② 25-29   ③ 30-34   ④ 35-39   ⑤ 40-44   ⑥ 45-49   ⑦ Over 50

3. What is your marital status?

① Single   ② Married   ③ Others

4. What is your highest educational level?

① Graduated high school   ② College degree   ③ Graduate school

5. What is your employment status?

① Nonstandard work (part-time, internship, contract workers, contingent workers, etc.)

② Standard work (full-time)

6. Please write down your job title.

_____

7.   What is your work department?

① Room division

② Food & Beverage division

③ Administrative department

(HR, Sales, Marketing, Finance, General affairs, etc.)

④ Others _____

8. How long have you worked at this hotel? _____(Years)_____(months)

9. What is your approximately monthly income?

① Less than $ 1,000　　　② $ 1,001- $ 2,000　　　③ $ 2,001- $ 3,000

④ $ 3,001- $ 4,000　　　⑤ $ 4,001- $ 5,000　　　⑥ $ 5,001- $ 6,001

⑦ Over $ 6,000

10. What is your ethnic group?

① American Indian/Alaska Native　　② Asian　　③ Black　　④ Hispanic

⑤ Multi-Ethnic　　⑥ White　　⑦ Other

11. What is your hotel brand?

_____

12. What is your zipcode?

_____

<설 문 지>

호텔 직원의 조직 문화에 대한 인식이 심리적 계약 및 주관적 웰빙에 미치는 영향 -한국과 미국의 비교 연구-

안녕하십니까? 바쁘신 와중에도 설문에 응하여 주셔서 진심으로 감사드립니다.
본 설문에 응하는 귀하의 개인적 사항이나 설문 내용과 관계되는 모든 사항은 절대 비밀이 보장됨은 물론 무기명으로 처리됩니다. 아울러 조사 결과는 학문적인 용도로만 이용되며 통계법에 따라 순수한 학문 연구 목적으로만 사용됩니다. 귀하의 정성 어린 응답이 본 연구에 매우 중요한 자료가 될 것이며 어느 항목도 빠짐없이 성의껏 그리고 진솔하게 응답하여 주시면 감사하겠습니다. 만일 조사 내용에 의문 사항이 있으시면 아래의 연락처로 연락 주시기 바랍니다. 다시 한번 바쁘신 시간을 내어 설문에 응답해 주신데 대해 깊이 감사드립니다.

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I. 다음은 조직 문화와 관련된 질문입니다. 해당되는 번호에 O표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

설 문 문 항	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통 이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 나의 동료 직원들은 서로에게 솔직하며 정직하다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 나의 동료 직원들은 열린 마음으로 동료나 상사들의 비평에 귀를 기울인다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 나의 동료 직원들은 한 팀이 되어서 업무를 잘 수행한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 나의 동료 직원들은 건설적인 사고방식으로 업무와 관련된 문제들을 해결하고자 한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 나의 동료 직원들은 다른 직원 및 고객들의 의견을 경청한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 직원들과 경영진들은 생산적인 업무를 수행할 수 있도록 협조 관계를 유지한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 내가 최선을 다할 수 있도록 나를 동기부여 시킨다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 직원들을 존중한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 일관적이고 공정한 방식으로 직원들을 대한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 직원들간에 서로 신뢰하는 분위기를 가지고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

11. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 직원들이 효율적이고 생산적으로 일할 수 있도록 동기부여 한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. 나는 내가 근무하는 호텔의 경영 목표를 이해할 수 있는 충분한 정보를 상사 혹은 경영진들로부터 얻는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13. 내가 근무하는 호텔에서 어떠한 변화가 생기면, 호텔은 직원들에게 그 이유에 대해 명확하게 알려준다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14. 나는 내 업무 외적인 부분이나, 혹은 다른 부서에서 일어나는 일에 대해서도 잘 알고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15. 나는 업무를 잘 수행하기 위해 필요한 정보를 가지고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. 나는 내 업무에 영향을 미치는 결정 사항들에 대한 발언권을 가지고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17. 상사나 동료는 나에게 내 업무를 더 잘 수행할 수 있는 방법에 대해 제안하도록 격려한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 직급에 상관없이 모든 직원들의 의견을 존중한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 정책을 수립하거나 변경할 때 직원들의 의견을 수렴한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. 나의 상사는 나의 업무에 필요한 사항들을 명확하게 이해시켜 준다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
21. 내가 업무를 잘 수행할 때, 나의 상사는 나를 인정해 준다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
22. 나의 상사는 그의 부하 직원, 동료 혹은 상사로부터의 비판들을 잘 수용한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
23. 나의 상사는 공평한 방식으로 업무를 직원들에게 분배한다	①	②	③	④	⑤
24. 나의 상사는 우호적인 방식으로 나의 잘못된 점을 지적하거나 개선점을 조언한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
25. 나의 상사는 다른 직원들의 의견을 경청한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
26. 나의 상사는 내가 하고 있는 업무에 대해 적절한 피드백을 해준다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
27. 회의에서 결정된 사항들은 빠른 시일 내에 실행에 옮겨진다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
28. 모든 직원들에게 회의에 참석할 수 있는 기회가 주어진다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
29. 내가 근무하는 부서 회의는 주제를 벗어나지 않고, 건설적으로 진행된다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
30. 내가 근무하는 부서 회의에 소요되는 시간은 유용하고 생산적이다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
31. 내가 근무하는 부서 회의는 직원들이 가지고 있는 새로운 아이디어나 제안점들을 이끌어 내는 역할을 한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

II. 다음은 조직이 직원에게 이행해야 하는 의무와 관련된 질문입니다. 해당 번호에 O표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

설 문 문 항	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통 이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 직원들에게 적절한 교육 및 훈련 프로그램을 제공한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 직원들을 채용 및 평가하고 승진시키는 과정이 공정한 절차로 이루어진다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 나에게 사적인 일이나 가정사를 처리하기 위한 시간을 낼 수 있도록 허락해 준다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 직원들의 업무에 영향을 미칠 수 있는 문제들에 대해서 직원들과 함께 논의한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 직원들이 업무를 수행하는 방식에 대해 가능하면 간섭하지 않는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 직원들에 대한 지원을 아끼지 않는다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 직원들이 특별한 기여를 하거나 장시간 근무하는 것에 대해 인센티브를 직원들에게 제공한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 안전하고 쾌적한 근무 환경을 제공한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 공정하고 일관된 방식으로 규정과 징계 절차를 적용한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 다른 호텔과 비교했을 때, 경쟁력이 있고 공정한 임금 정책을 가지고 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 다른 호텔들보다 더 나은 복리 후생 제도를 직원들에게 제공한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. 내가 근무하는 호텔은 직무 안정성을 최대한 보장해 주기 위해 노력한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

III. 다음은 삶의 질과 관련된 질문입니다. 해당번호에 O표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

설 문 문 항	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통 이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
1. 전반적인 측면에서 봤을 때, 내 인생은 내가 꿈꿔왔던 것과 가깝다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. 지금까지 내가 살아온 환경은 전반적으로 무난했다고 생각한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. 내 인생에 만족한다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. 지금까지 인생을 돌아봤을 때, 내가 인생에서 중요하다고 생각한 것들을 이루었다고 볼 수 있다.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. 내가 다시 태어난다 하더라도, 나는 지금과 같은 인생을 살고 싶다.	①	②	③	④	⑤

IV. 다음은 개인적인 사항에 관한 질문입니다. 해당번호에 체크해 주시기 바랍니다.

1. 귀하의 성별에 O표를 해주시기 바랍니다.　　　① 남성　　　　　② 여성

2. 귀하의 연령에 O표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

① 20~24세　　　　② 25~29세　　　　③ 30~34세　　　　④ 35~39세

⑤ 40~44세　　　　⑥ 45~50세　　　　⑦ 50세 이상

3. 귀하의 결혼여부에 O표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

① 미혼　　　　② 기혼　　　　③ 기타

4. 귀하의 학력에 O표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

① 고졸　　　　② 대학 및 대학교 재학 및 졸업　　　③ 대학원 재학 및 졸업 이상

5. 귀하의 고용형태에 O표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

① 비정규직 (파트타임, 인턴쉽, 계약직, 등)　　　　② 정규직

6. 귀하의 직급을 기입해 주시기 바랍니다. _____

7. 귀하의 근무부서에 O표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

① 객실부서　　　　② 식음료부서　　　③ 관리부서 (인사부, 세일즈, 마케팅, 재무부, 총무부 등)

④ 기타(　　　　　　　　)

8. 귀하의 근무경력을 기입해주시기 바랍니다. _____(년)_____(개월)

9. 귀하의 월소득수준에 O표를 해주시기 바랍니다.

① 100만원 미만　　　　② 100만~200만원 미만　　　③ 200만~300만원 미만

④ 300만~400만원 미만　　⑤ 400만~500만원 미만　　⑥ 500만~600만원 미만

⑦ 600만원 이상