A Comparative Analysis between Night and Day Shift Workers in the Hospitality Industry

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ABSTRACT

A lot of organizations require services to be provided round the clock. Many industries have implemented a shift system for their employees for the sole purpose of meeting the demands of their industries. Although several researches have been conducted on shift work and its effect on employees, there is still a lot to uncover. In North Cyprus all hotels are open round the clock and as such have to have employees present at any point in time should the need arise, hence the reason for shift work. The main point of this study is to carry out a comparative analysis on day and night shift employees in the hospitality industry. Organizational Affective commitment, subjective well-being, work family conflict and distributive organizational justice will all be investigated in this research. The questionnaire items were developed from previous reputable scales which was then distributed to lodging facilities in Northern Cyprus via paper and electronic methods. We were able to retrieve a total of 332.Confirmatory Factor Analysis was carried out using SPSS version of 24 and ADANCO version of 2.1.1. The results for the analysis support all hypotheses except for AOC mediating the relationship between SWB and WFC for day shift and the direct relationship between WFC and SWB in day shift.

Keywords: Shift work, Night shift, Day shift Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC), Work Family Conflict (WFC), Subjective Well-Being (SWB), Distributive Organizational Justice (DOJ).

ÖZ

Birçok kuruluşlarda günün her saatinde hizmetlerin sağlanması gerekmektedir. Birçok endüstrilerde sektörlerinin taleplerini karşılamak amacıyla çalışanlara vardiya sistemi uygulanır. Vardiyalı çalışması ve onun etkisi çalışanların üzerine hakkında çeşitli araştırmalar yapılmış. Ancak hala bir çok açık alanlar ve konular var. Kuzey Kıbrıs'taki tüm oteller günün boyunca her saatinde açık olduğundan ve ihtiyaç duyulduğu zaman çalışanlar mevcut olması gerektiğinden dolayı vardiyalı çalışması bir lüzumdur. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, otel işletmeciliğindeki gündüz ve gece vardiyası çalışanların karşılaştırmasıdır. Bu çalışmada örgütsel duygusal bağlılık, öznel refah, iş aile çatışması ve dağıtımcı örgütsel adalet araştırılacaktır. Anketin soruları itibarlı ölçeklerden geliştirildi ve Kuzey Kıbrıs'taki konaklama tesislerine kağıt veya elektronik yöntemlerden dağıtıldı. Toplamda 332 tane anket toplandı. Doğrulayıcı faktör analizi SPSS 24. sürümü ve ADANCO 2.1.1 sürümünü kullanılarak yapıldı.

Analiz sonuçlar gün vardiyasında öznel refah ve iş ailesi çatışması arasındaki ilişkisinden ve gün vardiyasında iş ailesi çatışması ve öznel refah arasındaki doğru ilişkisinden hariç (AOC'dan dolayı) tüm hipotezleri desteklemektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Vardiyalı Çalışma, Gece Vardiyası, Gündüz Vardiyası Duygusal Örgütsel Bağlılık (AOC), Iş Ailesi Çatışması (WFC), Öznel Refah (SWB), Dağıtımcı Örgütsel Adalet (DOJ).

DEDICATION

To God and My Late Father.

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INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The tourism industry is a billion-dollar industry. In 2019, the total international tourism receipt generated was 1,478 billion dollars (*UNWTO, July 2020*). Never the less, tourism can be looked at from the supply aspect and is interpreted as the set of productive activities that satisfy the need of travelers (UNWTO, 2014). In retrospect, the tourism and hospitality industry has been paramount in the creation of jobs as it produced 330 million jobs, 1 in ten jobs around the world. This is why countries are bent on the development of the tourism and hospitality industry (WTTC, 2019).

The hospitality and tourism industry had a total contribution of 8,810.9 billion U.S dollars as of 2019 to the world GDP (Lock s., 2020). The hotel industry focuses on lodging and offers other amenities such as beverages, food and entertainment. The important key performance indicator for the hotel industry include, size of market, brand value and revenue of the company (Stastica,2020). Some top hotel in the industry include Wyndham Hotel group which has 8,976 properties worldwide, Marriot International with over 6,542 the largest revenue in the hotel industry of over 22.3 billion U.S dollars. Hilton Worldwide with 5,405 properties with the highest brand value of 6.33 billion (Lock S. ,2019).

The hotel organization which is a sub sector of the service industry is a 24 hours and

7 days open organization throughout the year. It is labour intensive which highlights the value of the "human" factor and employees are critical to the increase of the service quality (Acar, A. & Erkan, M. 2018). In order to meet the societal and economic demands of our 24/7 life style, employees are tasked with the responsibility of working outside the regular day time hours, hence the need for shift work (US Department of Labor 2008).

1.2 Tourism in Northern Cyprus

Tourism has been one of the most viable sectors for the development of the economy in Northern Cyprus. In 2013, tourism alone contributed around 6.4% of the GDP with occupancy rate set at 47% as at April 2013.For many years the Northern part of Cyprus has been left unnoticed in terms of its influence on tourism in the country as a whole. Two functioning airports exist though they are not recognized for political reasons. Flights to Northern Cyprus must go through Turkey, this includes international and local flights. As far back as the 1980s, the target has always been to improve tourism. The tourism master plan research was initiated by the then Deputy Prime Minister and the state Ministry, it was named "Tourism Development Plan". Attracting foreign tourists allowed the tourism industry to develop, this meant allowing them stay longer in tourist destinations. This in turn prevented seasonal uncertainties in the tourism sector while increasing tourism income receipts. Regardless of the existing structural issues as well as the unavailability of direct flights from Europe, the potential for tourism in Northern Cyprus is quite high. There are luxury hotels with 5 start ratings and holiday villages. Also, golf, casinos, religious sites and aqua tourism are some other options for tourists in this destination.

1.3 Hotel Industry in Northern Cyprus

Cyprus is a country located east of the Mediterranean Sea, it is 224 km in length and

96km in width, its coastline is 768 km and has an abundance of history, cultural heritage and breath-taking scenery. Cyprus fall in the center of three continents – Africa, Europe and Asia. Turkey, Egypt and Syria are all neighboring countries (Altinay & Hussain, 2005; Ekiz & Babacan, 2007). Of the 132 currently operational hotels, 96 are officially members of the Northern Cyprus Hoteliers Association (NCHA, 2010). Northern Cyprus has 7 five star 8 hotels with four-star rating, 28 three-star hotels and 85 hotels with two stars or lower (Statistical Yearbook of Tourism, 2009). 955,611 tourists were hosted by the Northern Cyprus tourism industry in 2009 (Statistical Yearbook of Tourism, 2009). Previous studies have shown that hotels have contributed to the growth of the tourism industry and the GDP of Northern Cyprus (Altinay, 1994; Kilic and Okumus, 2005; Katircioglu et al, 2006; Bavik & Nat, 2007). Furthermore, Altinay & Hussain postulated in 2005 that the hotel industry has a good influence on the economic and social growth of Northern Cyprus, this is mostly because a lot of the employees are hired locally, local businesses produce goods and services that are used and these businesses in turn pay taxes. A lot of the hotels in the Northern Cyprus Region are situated on beaches. Also, most of them have casinos and these attract the British and Turkish tourists.

1.4 Shift Work in the Hotel Industry

Shift work in plain terms can be seen as working in non-conventional day time hours. In hotels there are three shifts which are are 07.00 am – 15.00, 15.00 – 23.00 and 23.00 – 07.00, some hotels have 2 shifts 12 hours each in some departments 08.00 – 20.00 and 20.00 – 08.00e.g. late evenings, earlier hours of the day roster work, shift rotations, and compressed working weeks, which comprise shifts of extended hours and fewer overall shifts (Sallinen and Kecklund 2010). Shift work ensures that employees are always on standby to meet the demands of customers and guest. Shift work is regulated

in a clockwise manner with three work shifts: mornings between the hours of 6 am to 2pm, afternoons between the hours of 2pm to 10pm, and the night shift between the hours of 10pm to 6am (Bukowska-Damska, A, et al 2020).

Working in shifts is a fundamental part of the standard job description in the hotel business as well as Temporary contracts and unpredictable working hours. For example, the average employment period is merely 2 to 3 years. As of the world today, with their employment contract over 20% of the working class are expected to work a shift. (Shriane, A. E., Ferguson, S. A., Jay, S. M., & Vincent, G. E., 2020). In the United States, over 29% of employee work in night shift and in rotation as well (Khosravipour, M., & Shah Mohammadi, M., 2020; Alterman et al.2013). Shift work has increased dramatically, in Europe 17% of the work force work in shifts (Nea, F. M., Pourshahidi, L. K., Kearney, J., Livingstone, M. B. E., Bassul, C., & Corish, C. A., 2017). With 15 to 20% of the working population in Europe and the USA exercising their job during the nighttime one could argue that night shift work is customary in the professional field (IARC 2010). As a matter of fact, 67% of employees in the hotel sector work weekend- and night shifts. (Stieler, L., Hunger, B., Rudolf, M., Kreuzfeld, S., Stoll, R., & Seibt, R. 201; DEHOGA 2015; Eurofound 2014). The main factor of which leads to health and sleep disruption is the fact that the night shift causes physiological desynchronization (Stieler, L., Hunger, B., Rudolf, M., Kreuzfeld, S., Stoll, R., & Seibt, R. 2019; Beermann 2010).

In shift work, an employee is expected to operate out of their normal sleep-wake cycle which creates a rift between an employee's working hours and their circadian rhythm conflict (Boivin & Boudreau, 2014; Costa, Lievore, Casaletti, Gaffuri, & Folkard, 1989). Industrialized societies there are approximately over half of the population

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exhibit circadian rhythms which are in contradiction to their work schedule (Golombek, D. A., Casiraghi, L. P., Agostino, P. V., Paladino, N., Duhart, J. M., Plano, S. A., & Chiesa, J. J. 2013; Lee Phillips.

Hotel organizations, are tasked with the responsibility of finding productive ways of making sure that the conduct and mindset of employees meet the expectation of customers and the organizations (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996).

However, shift employees are faced with issues originating from low compensation, colossal burdens of work and unsocial working hours (Babin and Boles, 1998; Karatepe and Sokmen, 2006; Kim et al., 2007). As the employees are faced with high job stress, the employees' general health and productivity can start to suffer from extreme amounts of stress that is not handled well. This is when stress becomes counterproductive. (Faulkner, B., & Patiar, A.,1997). As a work-related strain, emotional exhaustion is an important facet of burnout and it could be defined as the dwindling of emotional resources and energy as a result of psychological made demands which are unrestrained (Boles, Dean, Ricks, Short, & Wang, 2000). Additionally, it has been proven that workers who experience high levels of satisfaction in their job are better protected against the impact of stress or burnout in the long run. (Kalliath and Morris 2002; Visser et al. 2003). Job stress with other factors like long hours has been seen to be the major reason employees leave their jobs in the hospitality industry (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008).

About 70% of employees working in this industry regard this working condition as being exhausting and stressful. (Maack and Hadwiger 2013; Stieler, L., Hunger, B., Rudolf, M., Kreuzfeld, S., Stoll, R., & Seibt, R., 2019).

An employee who feels satisfied in his job will be more committed to the organization and additionally, prioritize the organizations benefits over his personal benefits, this is a known fact (reference). On the other hand, a worker who is dissatisfied, exhausted, burned out and therefor willing to resign rather be harmful than beneficial to the organization. This employee will most probably to some extend prevent the organization to achieve its goals and objectives. (Serif Ahmet Demirdağ, Ibrahim Aydin, Halil Özcan Özdemir, 2020).

1.5 Significance of the Study

Most previous studies placed emphasis on Brown, J. P., Martin, D., Nagaria, Z., Verceles, A. C., Jobe, S. L., & Wickwire, E. M. (2020). Mental health consequences of shift work: an updated review. *Current psychiatry reports*, *22*(2), 1-7.the relationship between shift work and mental health (Brown, J. P., Martin, D., Nagaria, Z., Verceles, A. C., Jobe, S. L., & Wickwire, E. M.; 2020), shift work and its effect on organizational commitment (Van Waeyenberg, T., Peccei, R., & Decramer, A.; 2020). Some studies have even placed focus on work-life conflict from organizational perspective such as working long hours and work pressure (Sturges and Guest, 2004). There has been scarcity of studies when it comes to a comparative study between night and day shift let alone its effect on Affective organizational commitment, subjective well-being, and Distributive organizational justice and Work family conflict. Sick leaves taken in 2001 was reported to be 38.5% for day time shift workers as compared to night shift workers which was 51.9% (Ohayon, M. M., Lemoine, P., Arnaud-Briant, V., & Dreyfus, M. ,2002).

Aim of study

The purpose of this study is comparative analysis of the night and day shift workers in hospitality industry and the effect it has on employees through the affective organizational commitment of employee work family conflict, distributive organizational justice and subjective wellbeing. This investigation will aid hotel managers in dealing with issues arising from shift work in order to increase organizational affective commitment, subjective wellbeing, distributive organizational justice and in turn reduce work family conflict.

Objectives

- To compare the difference between Work family Conflict on night and day shift workers

- To Identify the effect night and day shift have on Affective organizational commitment

- To Identify the effect of shift (night vs day) on Distributive Organizational Justice

- To Identify the effect of shift (night vs day) on Subjective well-being of employees

- To Identify the recommendations for hotel managers and organizations

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section focuses on an in-depth study of the past studies on the selected variables which are Work Family Conflict, Subjective Well-being, Distributive Organizational Justice and Affective Organizational Commitment.

2.1 Work-Family Conflict

2.1.1 Definition of Work-Family Conflict

A conflict is a complex system consisting of two or more parties with different objectives who clash (Giallo, 2013). Work-family conflict refers to a form of role conflict between the pressures from work and family life and arises when someone's participation in the work role is in conflict with the participation in the family role. Role conflict refers to the conflictual relationship between two different role pressures within one role (Allen, Manning, Longmore & Giordano, 2019; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Work-family conflict exists in two forms: 'family-work conflict' occurs when family interferes with work, 'work-family conflict' occurs when work interferes with family (Bellavia & Frone, 2004; DiRenzo, Greenhaus & Weer, 2011). My research uses the work-to-family conflict scale.

A key study in first generation work-family conflict research is the 1983 study by Greenhaus, Kopelman and Connolly that argues that work and family traits impact the work-family conflict, which in turn affects family and job satisfaction and consequent life satisfaction (DiRenzo et al., 2011; Bellavia & Frone, 2004). This theory is largely

based on Kahn's et al. *Role theory* (1964) that states that a role is a set of activities and behaviours that other expect an individual to perform. In this theory conflict between roles occurs when an individual's multiple roles inevitably clash with each other as it is impossible to meet each role's demands. (Kahn et.al., 1964). Greenhaus and Beutell based their work-family conflict definition on this role theory (Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark & Baltes, 2011; Bellavia & Frone, 2004). Bronfenbrenner's *Ecological systems theory* (1979) is another theory that has significant impact on work-family conflict research, as describes the relationships between a person and his or her environment and the ways they impact each other (Bellavia & Frone, 2004). Most Work-family studies focus on the 'mesosystem': the way someone's home life and family life interact and affect each other.

In the second generation studies the work of Frone, Russell and Cooper (1992) is central: it differentiates between work-to-family conflict, which mediates the impact of work role characteristics on family satisfaction, and family-to-work conflict, which mediates the impact of family role characteristics on work fulfilment (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering & Semmer, 2011; Bellavia & Frone, 2004). Building on this, Clark's *Border theory* describes the crossing of the borders between the home and work domains; when these domains have a higher level of flexibility and permeability the transition between job and private life is easier but the of work-family conflict is higher (Clark, 2000). The *Demands and resources model* is based on the Border theory and uses an ecological system approach to describe the work-family interface: it states that having sufficient family resources is necessary to meet the demands of work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001). Demands are structural or psychological assertions dictated by the requirements, expectations and norms within a role (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Demerouti et al., 2001). Recources

are objects, states and conditions that individuals value (Hobfoll, 2011; Hobfoll, 1989) and are used to perform, decrease demands or create extra resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Demerouti et al., 2001). Work-family outcomes and individual well-being are directly affected by these demands and resources (Voydanoff, 2011). Demands and resources can be considered as 'within-domain' (belonging to one domain) or 'boundary spanning' (characteristics inherent to two domains) (Beham, Drobnič & Präg, 2011; Voydanoff, 2011). Workplace participation affects the participation in the private life domain through the process of 'spillover' (Beham et al., 2011; Voydanoff, 2011), which refers to the transfer experiences and conditions of well-being between two life domains within one individual (Bakker et al., 2009). Subsequently, the *Conservation of resources theory* states that individuals aim to obtain and sustain resources and that loss of resources forms a threat to them (Hobfoll, 2011). Greenhaus and Powell (2003) stress the importance an individual's personality, psychology and well-being in work-family conflict and refer to the *Social identity theory* and Burke's concept of *role identity*: when an individual identifies with a certain role, the expectations linked to that role become part of that individual's role identity (Stryker & Burke, 2000; Burke, 1996). When role identity and self-identity become intertwined, one's subjective well-being is expected to be impacted by work-family conflict.

2.1.2 Predictors and Outcomes of Work-Family Conflict

Work-family conflict arises when participation in the work role prevents employees to meet the demands of the family role. Work-family conflict can be time-related (when the time schedule of one role clash with time schedule of the other role) (Allen, Manning, Longmore & Giordano, 2019; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), strain-related (when work strain impacts the performance in the family role) and behaviour-related

(when a way of acting that is intrinsic to a certain job does not compete with the behavioral assumptions of the family role). Bellavia and Frone (2004) link these causes to the family role, the work role or to the individual.

Work stressors such as shiftwork, increased and divergent working hours, high job involvement, time pressure, weekend and evening work, insufficient and abusive supervision, lack of support from colleages, lack of family-friendly initiatives (Mihelic & Tekavcic, 2014), overtime, an inflexible work schedule, the amount of hours worked and time spent commuting, work overload, low levels of supervisory support and interaction, nonchallenging and routinely tasks with low perceived importance, work-related tension, fatigue, anxiety, depression, burnout (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), stressful work situations, work role ambiguity, control over working hours (Zhang & Liu, 2011; Xu & Cao, 2019) can cause work-family conflict when employees do not manage to level them with the requirements of their family life. Jobs with low salary, higher levels of responsibility, role overload and a wider range of task variety will lead to more work stress and subsequent work-family conflict (Michel et al., 2011). High-level jobs come with higher level of work liability and work pressure than low-level jobs and are therefore more probable to negeatively interact with family life (DiRenzo et al., 2011). Work stressors can also be related to behavioural expectations of the work role; i.e. behavior that is generally associated with the stereotypical male managerial role may be incompatible with the expectations of the parental role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Family role characteristics such as being married, having children (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), increased parental responsibilities (childcare and household tasks), unavailability of childcare (Bellavia & Frone, 2004), lack of family support, spouse

conflict, high number of children and children of young age (Zhang & Liu, 2011) are significant contributors to work-family pressure. The adverse impact of job variables in the family domain are more tangible for single parents and couples with children than single individuals and couples without children (Mihelic & Tekavcic, 2014).

Furthermore, personality traits such as negative affectivity, distress, anxiety and life dissatisfaction (Michel et al., 2011; Xu & Cao, 2019), neuroticism, emotional lability, impatience, ambition and preoccupation (Mihelic & Tekavcic, 2014) have been identified to be causes of work-family conflict due to their direct impact on how individuals perceive work and life. Positive emotions can expand someone's resources to resolve or reduce work-family conflict, whereas negative emotions can drain someone's resources, which can limit someone's ability to meet job or family domain demands (Xu & Cao, 2019).

The consequences of the spillover from work to life conditions lead to work-family conflict, which negatively affecting employees' well-being in both the work and nonwork domain (Xu & Cao, 2019). Even though these outcomes of work-family conflict can be categorized as individual outcomes (not inherent to to a specific domain), family-related outcomes and work-related outcomes (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; Bellavia & Frone, 2004), in order to support my hypotheses, the focus in this thesis is on how the outcomes of work-family conflict influence subjective well-being and affective organizational commitment (see Chapter 4 *Hypotheses*). One constant in literature on WFC is that it takes its toll on employees physical and psychological health. Staff who invest extensive mental efforts in meeting job demands may experience psychological fatigue and need for recovery outside of work (Xu & Cao, 2019). This conflict between work and family leads to self-reported

poor physical and mental health and perceived depressive characteristics (Mihelic & Tekavcic, 2014), life dissatisfaction, stress and depression, use of medication, smoking, alcoholism, substance abuse, clinical mood- and anxiety disorders, burnout (Fiksenbaum, 2014; Bellavia & Frone, 2004), physical and emotional exhaustion, anxiety, depression, anger, frustration, resentment and sleep problems (Tsionou & Konstantopoulo, 2015; Ioannidi et al., 2016). The cause for this lays in the fact that work-family conflict can prevent employees to recover from the drainage of psychological resources and lead to personal ill-being (Xu & Cao, 2019).

2.1.3 Strategies to Reduce Work-Family Conflict

The way individuals handle the conflict between job and family life can significantly affect their life satisfaction, as employees who experience lower levels of work-family tension tend to take positive experiences from everyday life to their job (Qu & Zhao, 2012). Matthews et al. (2014) state that employees are likely to adjust themselves to work–family conflict, which improves future subjective well-being. Employees who manage to find a work-life balance tend to have higher levels of life satisfaction (Taşdelen-Karçkay & Bakalım, 2017). Additionally, the negative effect of job overload on individual life satisfaction is reduced by boundary-spanning supervisory support (Goh et al., 2015). Moreover, high levels of perceived job-control can be considered to be a work-resource that can spill over to the family domain and expand the level of employees' family satisfaction, which in turn makes them more satisfied with life (Rupert et al., 2012).

Employers can lower work-family conflict by tackling the organizational stressors at the root of the conflict. By reducing employees' workplace stress and strain factors and subsequent substandard work-life balance organizations can contribute to employees sleep quality, mental health and well-being (Ioannidi et al., 2016). A significant

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potential job-related stress element is working hours: employees who are positive about their work schedule and the balance between work and leisure time will be more satisfied with their job and have more work-family stability (Karatepe and Kilic, 2007; McNamara, 2013; Xu and Cao, 2019). Employers can create a family-friendly workplace by offering the posibility to telecommute and flexible work systems (Zhang & Liu, 2011; Fahmy, 2020). Organizational and supervisory support is only one aspect of social support, which can also be provided by work colleagues, friends and family members and can help employees dealing with role pressure and protect them from work-family conflict (Michel et al., 2011; Xu & Cao, 2019). Non-work factors such as family or spouse support should be considered as an significant elements to reduce work-family conflict, as a spouse who accomodates career sacrifices subsequently contributes to family harmony (Huffman et al., 2014). It should however be noted that workplace resources such as job autonomy and (supervisory) work-family support reduce the level of work-family tension more significantly for high-level workers than for low-level workers (Direnzo et al., 2011; Zheng et al., 2015). Moreover, the positive effect of workplace support on work-life balance does not automatically entail the same immediate result for the level of employees life satisfaction: unofficial employee support from the work environment and supervisor offers those employees resources to decrease the negative impact of work overload beyond their work domain (on the employees' private life) (Goh et al., 2015; Hobfoll et al, 2018), but will however not directly affect their everyday life satisfaction (Goh et al., 2015).

2.1.4 Work-Family Conflict in the Hospitality Industry

The typical characteristics of the hotel bussiness such as shift work, 24/7 business all-year-through and excessive working hours make hospitality staff vulnerable to work-familyconflict (Choi & Kim, 2012; Mihelic & Tekavcic, 2014). The long working

hours, excessive workloads and variable and unsociable work schedules are common in the hospitality industry and can decrease hospitality employees' nonwork time such as leisure time (Karatepe, Sokmen, Yavas & Babakus, 2010; Xu & Cao, 2019). The spillover effect can lead to decrease of both job and nonwork satisfaction levels and leads to a negative impact of work-family conflict on job-related and life-related well-being: work-family conflict is a significant predictor of job and life fulfilment among employees active in the hotel sector (Xu & Cao, 2019).

Additionally, work-family tension in the hospitality sector also significantly decreases organizational commitment and job satisfatction. In the hospitality industry job satisfaction is strongly linked to customer satisfaction: job satisfaction is an important aspect among service and hotel employees and frontline hotel workers who are happy with their work provide better customer care (Choi & Kim, 2012). However, customer service is indirectly endangered when work-family conflict creates stressors that interfere with frontline employees' family life. Frontline employees exposed to work-family conflict are vulnerable to job and family stress (Netemeyer, Maxham & Pullig, 2005; Krishnan, Loon & Tan, 2018). This causes frontline workers who face work-family conflict to be more susceptible to burnout, which occurs frequently among these workers (Karatepe et al., 2010; Asensio-Martínez et al., 2019). This phenomenom has an elevated impact in service organizations: frontdesk employees are in frequent and direct contact with customers and can be considered as boundary-spanning personnel (Karatepe, Sokmen, Yavas & Babakus, 2010). The combination of emotional fatigue and continiously expected customer-friendly behaviour leads to elevated degrees of turnover intention in the hospitality bussiness (Karatepe, 2013; Han, Bonn & Cho, 2016). Frontline employees who manage to successfully combine their job and private life become emotionally tied to the organization they work for and are less prone to

quitting(Ibrahim, Suan & Karatepe 2019; Ampofo, 2020). It is advised for hotel industry supervisors to create a work environment supportive of work-family ballance (Karatepe & Magaji, 2008; Sarwar, Qureshi & Panatik, 2019), as this can prevent hotel organizations from high employee turnover rates and accompanying costs (Shockley, Smith & Knudsen, 2017; Karatepe & Magaji, 2008). Therefore, hotel organizations need to introduced family-friendly policies such as parental-, maternity-, wedding-, funeral- and sick leave, on-site childcare, family insurance and offer organizational support such as more regular work schedules and stress management programs to create a stable family atmosphere (Choi & Kim, 2012, Mansour & Mohanna, 2018).

2.2 Subjective Well-Being

2.2.1 Definition Subjective Well-Being

In the last decade, subjective well-being has been a study subject with high popularity as well as the factors linked to it such as social, physical, economical, and emotional factors (Berglund, Johansson Sevä, & Strandh, 2016). World Happiness Report indicated that the advantages of a more significant level of Subject Wellbeing are a positive individual, social and organizational behavior (World Happiness Report, 2013).

Subjective wellbeing which could also be referred to as 'happiness' but both terms do not coincide completely. Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) don't consider happiness to be the same as subjective well-being but as an optimistic manifestation of SWB: happiness is a concrete affectivity, whereas SWB is a full spectrum of affectivities. Happiness is slightly higher on the activation scale as satisfaction and slightly lower than excitement (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011). SWB is known to be peoples affective and cognitive analyzation of their lives (Fan, Cui, Zhang, Zhu, Härtel & Nyland, 2014;

Diener, 2000, p. 34), with both the satisfaction with their lives as a whole and specific parts of life such as work included. Subjective well-being in other words could be defined in subjective terms to be a combination of life satisfaction and stable affectivity (Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999). Affect balance looks at the recurrence of positive and adverse feelings individuals experience and life satisfaction is a proportion of the way an individual assesses his or her entire life (Diener, 2000).

Subjective well-being, which is seen as a construct, is divided into three parts which are cognitive component which is how an individual or employee judges his life (Diener, 1984). It could also be linked to what individual think about a particular area of their life such as work, social life and family life. This cognitive evaluation adds to the well-being of individuals such as employees as it determines a person's reaction to life experiences, this could either be positive or negative (Darvishmotevali & Ali, 2020). The second part is the positive affect which could be described to be an individual's experience of feeling or emotion about an organization, environment such as joy, excitement, ambition, attachment, satisfaction etc. (Diener & Seligman, 2004). The third part is the negative affect and it is defined to be a total negative state of mind such as anger, fear, discomfort. The positive and negative is classified as the affective component (Diener et al. 1999). If an individual has life satisfaction with more positive emotion and less negative emotions, the person is said to have an extremely elevated level of subjective well-being. Subjective significant for person's achievement of wanted objectives, the capacity to adapt to regular day to day existence and life satisfaction (Darvishmotevali & Ali, 2020; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon & Schkade, 2005). People who have had more positive experiences in life or interpret life events

positively, recall life from a positive perspective there by experiencing more happiness and satisfaction (Seidlitz et al., 1997).

Multiple research work has further validated that these three parts give an accurate description of the subjective well-being of an individual (Berglund, Johansson Sevä & Strandh, 2016; Arthaud-day et al., 2005; Lucas, Diener & Suh, 1996).

As People make decisions about their own lives by reviewing, summing up, and measuring the conditions of their life subjectively (Keyes, 2014), subjective well-being has attracted significant attraction of several study fields that have analyzed the importance of satisfaction and quality of life. (Butt et al. 2020; Steel et al. 2018; Calvard & Sang, 2017).

2.2.2 Predictors and Outcomes of Subjective Well-Being

Individuals who manage to balance their emotions will experience more SWB, whereas negative affect and the suppression of negative affectivity produces lower SWB (Katana, Röcke, Spain & Allemand, 2019). Job satisfaction is an important predictor of SWB, with an important role for positive supervision and work characteristics and career advancement possibilities (Joo & Lee, 2017). Working more during non-standard and standard hours both lead to decline in subjective well-being of hotel employees (Song & Lee, 2021). Past research has also related subjective well-being to shift work (Song & Lee, 2021). According to Diener (1984) the objective bench mark for instance the social and economic indicators have an effect on subjective wellbeing but they are not seen to be part of SWB. Both WFC and FWC are strongly linked to SWB but WFC is shown to affect it stronger (Erdogan, B., Bauer, Truxillo & Mansfield, 2012).

Most research in the past on factors affecting subjective well-being has been about pay, personal character, culture, religion, marital status and other demographic characteristics (Fan, Cui, Zhang, Zhu, Härtel & Nyland, 2014; Sun & Xiao, 2010; Diener, 2000). Subjective well-being is a critical topic as it supports the statement that happy individuals tend to participate and be committed to the organizations which leads to a better work performance. There are numerous positive workplace consequences of employees with increased notions of SWB. Studies have pointed out that there is a relationship between a higher employee subjective well- being and high organizational commitment (Russell, 2008), distributive organizational justice (Lawson, Noblet & Rodwell, 2009), less work-family conflict (Matthews, Wayne & Ford, 2014) and decreased turnover intention (Erdogan et al., 2012). Moreover, employee well-being produces stronger job performance (Erdogan et al., 2012) and facilitates productive behaviour (Sender, Nobre, Armagan & Fleck, 2020) and can be seen as a possible workplace resource.

Apart from workplace benefits, higher SWB has many positive individual results for employees. Due to the fact that individuals are in the pursuit of happiness, subjective well-being is considered to be the end goal of the existence of the human race (Paul and Garg, 2013) and amongst the most points of a person's life (Butt, Abid, Arya & Farooqi, 2020; Diener, 2012). The well-being of employee has been seen to be of high importance to companies (Kuykendall & Tay, 2015). Positive SWB produces health benefits, healthy relationships, marital bless, better workplace performance, better pay, decreased absence rates (Heintzelman et al., 2020).

2.2.3 Strategies to Increase Subjective Well-Being

Due to the consequences of subjective well-being of employees and its impact on the organization, it is important that organizations should place a significant focus on

the well-being of the employees (Robertson et al., 2012). The literature review shows earlier in this chapter that WFC negatively relates to work and life satisfaction, whereas perceived distributive justice and affective organizational commitment are likely to positively relate to work and life satisfaction. Satisfaction in the work domain is a crucial predictor of SWB. Individuals who can balance job and life domains will have higher rates of SWB, which will thus benefit from an improved work-life balance and satisfaction in both the job and life aspect. The strategies that individuals apply to maintain or restore the balance between job and family life will therefore eventually also contribute to subjective well-being (Sirgy, Lee, Park, Joshanloo & Kim, 2020). Organizations can also help employees finding this balance: workplace and supervisory support are important organizational striegies to improve workers' well-being and a sense of being allowed to work autonomously, belonging in the organization and a good job-employee match are other values companies should hold high as they are crucial in promoting subjective well-being (Erdogan et al., 2012). Although the number of hours that employees put in the company play a role in the level of their SWB, schedule satisfaction and flexibilty and schedule control also matter (Erdogan et al., 2012).

2.2.4 Subjective Well-Being in Hospitality Industry

Workplace stress and well-being in the service industry environment is strongly related to excessive workloads and intrapersonal conflict (Shevchuk, Strebkov & Davis, 2019). The hotel sector is an industry that never sleeps and revolves around the customer. The important relationship between subjective well-being and job performance should incite hospitality organizations to seriously consider the subjective well-being of their employees: employees who feel good positively impact customer satisfaction (Russell, 2008). High levels of job stress occur frequently in the

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hospitality industry, in which the frontline workers due to non-stop contact with customers can never let their guard down. Combined with the job insecurity typical of the service industry (Darvishmotevali, Arasli & Kilic, 2017) this causes high levels of emotional and psychological stress, which in turn the makes the service workers' subjective well-being (Darvishmotevali & Ali, 2020; Darvishmotevali et al., 2017). These workplace stressors have an even more significant negative impact on hospitality managers than they have on hospitality employees, due to the difference in responsibility-level (Shevchuk, Strebkov & Davis, 2019).

2.3 Distributive Organizational Justice

2.3.1 Definition of Justice

Justice or 'fairness' is a philosophical concept that was introduced by ancient Greek philosophers such as Aristotle, who states that individuals in diverse roles will apply diverse rules of justice. In general, 'justice' is used as an ethical term referring to 'righteousness' and can an act be described as just compared to the dominant philosophical structure (Colquitt, Greenberg & Zapata-Phelan, 2013; Colquitt et al., 2001). The early justice research of Homans (1961) focusses on the concept of justice in a social environment and lays the foundation of the development of the justice concept in an organizational context. Homans' rule of justice describes a system of rewards and investments in social exchange and stresses the importance of a balanced exchange between these rewards and investments (Homans, 1961).

2.3.2 Organizational Justice

The concept of organizational justice was first formulated by Greenberg (1987). Organizational justice is the psychology of justice that lays emphasis on organizational perceived fairness (Akram et al., 2020; Whitman et al., 2012). Unlike the philosophical concept of justice, that attempts to determine what actions *are* just, the concept of

organizational justice refers to what people *believe* is just and the consequences that follow from these evaluations (Crawshaw, Cropanzano, Bell & Nadisic, 2013). When it comes to organizational justice, justice is considered to be a social construct, with a strong emphasis on subjective perceptions of fairness (Colquitt et al., 2013; Colquitt et al., 2001). Crawshaw et al. (2013) state that besides the economic, aggressive and merit-driven aspect of businesses the ethical obligations that employees have towards each other also have to be considered. Organizational justice is the employees' moral evaluation of how they are treated and can be considered as the glue that allows employees to work together in an effective way (Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano, Bowen & Gilliland., 2007). At the essence of the employee-manager relationship is the concept of justice. Injustice in contrast can destroy bonds within organizations (Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano et al., 2007).

2.3.3 Types of Organizational Justice

Out of all these organizational justice theories three main types of fairness can be distilled: *distributive justice* or the fairness of received outcomes in a certain transaction, *procedural justice* or the fairness of the process that leads to those outcomes (Crawshaw et al., 2013; Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001) and *interactional justice* or the fairness of iinteractions between individuals (Crawshaw et al., 2013; Cropanzano et al. 2007).

The first component of justice is distributive justice and is rooted in Adams' equity theory. Equity theory is founded on the believe that man is selfish and individuals will try to maximize their result (Walster, 1973). Homans (1961) considers distributive justice to be a form of justice concerned with the allocation of rewards and costs between people. In the assessment of the reward, the individual compares it to their effort (Akram et al., 2020; Whitman et al., 2012). According to Walster (1973)

outcomes equal rewards minus costs. Therefore, distributive justice can be considered to be the 'justice of outcomes', which deals with the fact that not all employees are treated the same and that the distribution of job-outcomes varies (Crawshaw et al., 2013; Cropanzano et al., 2007). According to Adams (1965) overpaid employees are likely to feel guilty wher eas underpaid employees are likely to feel angry. These negative emotions would lead the employees to change their behaviour or attitude in order to alter the relationship between their own and another's contribution and outcomes (Greenberg, 1987): individuals who feel distributive justice is failing are likely to display anger or guilt and consequently will learn to avoid activities that are likely to put him or her in unjust exchanges (Homans, 1961). Colquitt et al. (2013) states that all allocation standards attempt to be distributively just, even though they apply different rules. In 'Equitable' or 'distributive just' relations there is a balance between one's contributions and outcomes. Overpaid or underpaid employees with the same level of contributions as other employees are an example of an unequal balance (Greenberg, 1987).

The second form of organizational justice is procedural justice or the justice of allocation processes and refers to the means outcomes are distributed rather than to the outcomes themselves. Procedural justice is largely built on Leventhal's theory on what makes procedures just (Crawshaw et al., 2013; Cropanzano et al., 2007). Procedural justice focuses on dispute resolution, meditation and arbitration and is described to have two consecutive stages which are process and decision. Employees in conflict view the conflict resolution process as being just if they have sense of control over it (Colquitt et al., 2013, Colquitt et al., 2001).

The third component is interactional justice, which describes the justice of interpersonal transactions people encounter with others or, simply put, how one person treats another (Crawshaw et al., 2013; Copranzano et al., 2007). Interactional justice deals with the significance of the level of the intra-personal treatment staff get during justice-enforcement (Akram et al., 2020; Gelens, Dries, Hofmans, & Pepermans, 2013; Bies & Moag, 1986). Interactional justice consists of two paerts: informational justice refers to truthful and adequate justification in adverse circumstances; interpersonal justice is defined as way one treats another with respect to a degree (Crawshaw et al., 2013; Copranzano et al., 2007).

2.3.4 Distributive Organizational Justice

The research scale that is applied in this study is the recent organizational justice scale of Arici et al. (2019). The choice for using the distributive justice aspect of this scale in my study is justified by the significant impact perceived distributive justice has in the hospitality context. Nadiri & Tanova's (2010) research into effect of justice in an organization of hotel employees in North Cyprus on multiple variables shows that distributive justice is a more significant antecedent than procedural justice, which implies that hospitality employees prioritize the perceived justice of personal outcomes over the perceived justice of the organizational procedures. Given the dominant effect of perceived distributive justice among hospitality workers it might lead to more significant results to investigate the effects of distributive justice on day shift workers and night shift workers. Even though procedural justice is a more significant determinant of outcomes in an organization and distributive justice impacts employees' personal outcomes such as job satisfaction (Usmani & Jamal, 2013; Colquitt et al., 2001) and salary satisfaction (Thomas & Nagalingappa, 2012; Colquitt et al., 2001) more significantly, the effects of distributive justice beyond the personal

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aspect of employees outcome have to be considered. Distributive justice is not only concerned with individual employee outcomes but has also significant effects on group dynamics. According to Homans (1961) distributive justice requires that if the input of one group is required to put in more effort than the other group, their rewards should be higher too. Additionally, if the rewards are higher, the costs should be higher too. Distributive justice is not only perceived by individual employees but also collectively by the group that employees consider themselves to be part of (such as the night or day shift group): a survey scale based on distributive justice might therefore lead to more significant results in a comparative study between day shift and night shift workers.

2.3.5 Predictors and Outcomes of Organizational Justice

It may be beneficial for organizations to take the consequences of just and unjust organizational treatment of employees in consideration, as employees' perceived workplace justice influences an organization greatly. Perceived organizational fairness is a paramount determinant of organizational commitment and can affect employees' work outcomes when it comes to performance and satisfaction, intention to quit, psychological well-being (Demir, 2011). Bakhshi et al. (2009) state that perceived organizational justice positively influences job satisfaction and commitment to the organization, as workers who perceive organizational fairness would have more satisfaction in and commitment to their job. Organizational injustice on the other hand is related to stress symptoms (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

Organizational justice is strongly linked to organizational commitment as workers who perceive they are treated in a fair way by the organization show higher levels of commitment to that employer.

Li and Zeng (2019) refer to Blau (1964) to expatiate on the link between justice in an organization and employees' commitment to the organization: employees who perceive fair treatment and procedures from the organization will be motivated to be more loyal, this is termed as the social theory (Li and Zeng, 2019). Organizational commitment is a great determinant of employees' behavior in regard to their job and expresses an individual's level of loyalty to the organization (Demir, 2011). Commitment or employees' emotional attachment to an organization is significantly influenced by employees' organizational justice, as employees with high levels of perceived organizational justice feel more positively about their co-workers and their job as a whole (Demir, 2011), and affective commitment or emotional attachment to the organization has an insignificant effect on distributive justice but greater relationship with procedural justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Nadiri & Tanova's research (2010) in contrast shows that in comparison to distributive justice, procedural justice is a weaker antecedent of organizational justice.

2.3.6 Strategies to Increase Organizational Justice

It is important for organizations to be considerate of perceptions of justice among their employees, given the many possible positive outcomes of perceived organizational justice. I discussed in the previous paragraphs. Positive justice perception can increase organizational-relevant effects such as organizational commitment, job performance and satisfaction (Colquitt et al., 2001). Managers have significant impact on these work attitudes through their creation of a fair work place (Rahman, Shahzad, Mustafa, Khan & Qurashi, 2016; Fatt et al., 2010). Cropanzano et al. (2007) state that a solution for managers to combine equality and equity in their reward distribution is to provide employees with a minimum of benefit (equality) and add to this reward based on performance (equity), thus creating a 'hybrid' form of distributive justice. Another

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important way for organizations to increase organizational justice perceptions is a fair hiring system: appropriate questions, sufficient interview time, considerate interpersonal treatment, honest communication and timely feedback have a significant positive effect on organization's hiring process and create higher levels of future employees' perception of organizational justice ((McCarthy et al., 2017; Copranzano et al., 2007). Additionally, thought-through conflict resolution increases workers' justice perceptions. Similar to the selection process, in conflict resolution it is not so much the outcome of the conflict but the fairness of the manager's resolution process (a fair process) (Copranzano et al., 2007).

2.3.7 Organizational Justice and the Hospitality Industry

The very specific ways the average hospitality job is organized (shift work, below-average pay, low-educated employees) impacts the link perceived organizational justice has with other work variables in the hospitality industry. Apart from the physical toll of shift work the educational level of shift workers also plays a role the way perceived workplace justice affects satisfaction levels. Chan & Jepsen (2011) state that the average service industry job is part-time, unpredictable and irregular and see this as an explanation of why many hospitality workers have a lower educational level compared to employees in more stable work environments. This might be another reason hospitality staff has different perceptions of organizational justice from employees in other work domains (Kurian & Nafukho, 2021; Chan & Jepsen, 2011).

The central role of the connection between employee and customer in the hospitality industry produces more significant results in hospitality research for variables linked to customer satisfaction. Frontline hotel staff engages in constant interaction with customers: when they feel they are treated unfairly by the organization may transfer these feelings of unjust treatment and consequent deviant behaviours to the customers

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(Li and Zeng, 2019). Employees who perceive a fair treatment feel obligated to contribute to the well-being of the organization and in the hospitality industry customer-oriented behaviours are a crucial part of this (Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara and Suárez-Acosta, 2014). The provided services not only reflect on the hospitality organization but coincide with it. There is a strong link between higher satisfaction derived from the job of frontline hospitality employees and customer satisfaction, as satisfied workers are more likely to offer better service performance, which amplifies customer satisfaction (Kurian & Nafukho, 2021; Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). It is crucial for service industry management to understand the significance of organizational justice and its outcomes on customer perceptions in the hotel industry, as organizational justice impacts hospitality workers' outcomes such as job satisfaction and consequent customer satisfaction. Just treatment of employees increases employees' customer service-oriented behaviour, which in turn increases client satisfaction and loyalty (Kurian & Nafukho, 2021; Cropanzano et al., 2007).

Thus, it is a primary challenge for hotel management to create a fair work environment to increase perceived organizational justice and consequent motivation for hospitality frontline staff, as this will decrease deviant employee behaviour and eventually improve service quality (Li & Zeng, 2019). Even though the research on the consequences of organizational justice for job performance shows inconsistent results, 'motivation' might be an important variable in linking organizational justice and job performance (Wu & Wang, 2008). In the hospitality industry pay satisfaction is a signifcant motivational factor for the employees. It is therefore important to stress the significance of perceived salary justice in the motivation of hotel employees (Yen & Huang, 2012; Wu & Wang; 2008). Distributive justice is linked to the concept of

motivation, as motivation refers to the belief that higher performance (input) leads to better rewards (outcomes) (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010).

Finally, employees' level of organizational commitment is very important in the hotel business and is affected significantly by perceived organizational justice. Research shows that Chinese hotel workers' perception of organizational justice both directly and indirectly affects their affective commitment to the organization, job effort and performance and they claim that distributive justice directly impacts affective organizational commitment for the low-paid hotel employees (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010; Wu & Wang, 2008). Demir (2011) adds that hospitality employees' perceived organizational justice of their working conditions and their relation with management and colleagues impacts their organizational commitment. Support from co-workers and superiors increases the organizational justice perceptions of hospitality employees and their consequent innovative behaviours (Jiun-Lan & Jeng-Hwan, 2015). Organizational openness to employees' input stimulates employees' creative input and Additional incentives offered by hospitality management encourage employees to show creative input (Jiun-Lan & Jeng-Hwan, 2015). Additionally, shift workers who perceive supervisory support are more likely to turn to them for help in stressful situations their feelings towards their job will be less affected by work stress (Chan & Jepsen, 2011). In the hospitality industry the demands and expectations of guests/customers play a central role, which makes guest satisfaction and loyalty a significant concern for hotel management. It is therefore crucial to hotel organizations to motivate their service staff to exersize organizational behaviour that will help achieve the organizational goals (Demir, 2011).

2.4 Affective Organizational Commitment

2.4.1 Definition of Commitment

Commitment is said to be the degree to which an individual pledges or binds himself to certain behaviors and how the individual is motivated to (Kiesler, 1971). As soon as an individual becomes a part of an organizations, they are more likely to concern themselves with the values of the organization, these values may include including its reputation to the public and its staff, its survival and its continuous growth and development, that creates activities and resources, thus fostering a further identification with the organization as a whole (Rousseau, 1998). Katzenbach (2000) further writes about an energized work force as being high performing, performing better than the laid down industry norms, whose commitment emotionally allows them make and deliver products that give the organization a competitive advantage. Understanding workplace commitment is multifaceted (Meyer & Allen, 1997) it is made up of elements, consequences and forms that include affective, job, career, team, and supervisory commitment. With this in mind, these types of commitment in an organization are classified into two distinct groups – individual (to the team and career) and organizational commitment (to the organization and supervisor).

2.4.2 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment can be described as the state of being positively obligated to an organization, usually developed as a product of the organizations past actions. It is this state of commitment that makes an individual do certain things to fulfil the terms attached to this commitment, thus begging the question what are the terms of commitment in an organization. Mowday et al. (1979) believe that these terms include a willingness remain a part of the organization, supporting its goals and its interest, and expending effort to achieve the laid out objectives of the organization. Most of the

work researching organizational commitment has been targeted at the social identity theory and its related literature (e.g. Tuna, Ghazzawi, & Catir, 2016; Alias, Rasdi, Ismail, & Samah, 2013; Demir, 2011; Kang, Stewart, & Kim, 2011) or focusses on attitude and behaviour-based commitment to the organization (e.g. Pei-Lee & Sun, 2012; Gunlu, Aksarayli, & Perçin, 2010; Ghazzawi, 2008).

2.4.3 Types of Commitment

In the past organizational commitment has been analyzed, measured and defined in many ways. Due to the lack of consensus, the definition is now considered to be a multidimensional construct. (Meyer, Allen, 1991). According to Meyer, Allen (1991), Three main topics reflect organizational commitment: current status within the organization, the forecastable cost of leaving and the obligation to stay in the organization regardless. These approaches can be called affective, continual and normative commitment.

Affective commitment looks at workers' emotional bond with the firm they work for, how the employee identifies with the firm and how the said employee is involved in its operations. Employees that are affectively committed to an organization remain in that firm because they want to be there.

Continuance commitment is the realization of the cost of quitting (Shiva and Suar, 2010). It is tied to performance asked to keep a job and the costs involved when the employee leaves the organization (Bell-Ellis et al., 2015). When an employee knows that they stand to lose their investment in the organization and there are no other alternatives, continuance commitment develops (Rego et al. 2004). These investments can be physical, technical, and emotional of nature, such as the loss of pay, benefits, retirement plans, skills, social life, and opportunities (Lambert et al., 2015).

Normative commitment is the obligation towards an organization due to a person's morals. A person stays in the organization because they feel it is the moral thing to do. Normative commitment grows when individuals assimilate the norms of the organization by socializing, receiving benefits from the organization that make them feel indebted to the organization. This creates a need to reciprocate the same in some form of a psychological contract. Normative commitment among new employees can be stimulated by the orientation given to them during their on-boarding (Rego et al, 2004).

2.4.4 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is seen as the strongest form of organizational commitment since it is based on intrinsic and not extrinsic motivation (Verkhohlyad & Mclean, 2012). This type of commitment is built over time as a result of how the organization treats the employees (Lambert et al., 2015). This type of commitment develops when individuals derive their identity from the organization. If employees feel the organization treats them properly, they tend to become affectively committed (Esfahani et al., 2014; Smeenk et al., 2006; Rego et al., 2004). Affective commitment is when an individual has positive feelings towards being emotionally attached to an organization (Bell-Ellis et al., 2015). The core elements are loyalty, identification and involvement in the organization. This kind of commitment comes when employees decide to stay in the organization of their own volition (Lambert et al., 2015).

2.4.5 Predictors and Outcomes of Affective Commitment

There are several factors that influence affective commitment. They include work experience, employees' characteristics and the organizations characteristics. Most importantly, perceptions of justice and fairness of organizational policies have been reported as important in the development of affective commitment. Employee

characteristics include demographics such as age, gender, and years of experience, in addition to dispositional variables such as personality traits and values. Work experiences are found to correlate with affective commitment. Such variables include job challenge, level of autonomy, and employees' skill variation (Wong et al., 2002). It has been further suggested that factors like type of business, positions, and number of employees might have an influence on the affective commitment of employees (Aladwan et al., 2013). The huge interest in studying affective commitment can be attributed to the fact that it influences many individual attitudes and behaviors in the workplace (Yousaf et al., 2015).

Of all the types of commitment, affective commitment has is considered to be having the strongest correlation with positive organizational outcomes and individual outcomes (Jang & Kandampully, 2018; Bell-Ellis et al., 2015) outweighing the effects of the continuance and normative components of commitment (Tornikoski, 2011). It is suggested that affective commitment leads to reduced stress, reduced work-family conflict, decreased turnover and absenteeism and higher levels of performance and organizational citizenship behavior (Meyer et al, 2002; Rego et al., 2004).

2.4.6 Affective Commitment in Hospitality

Although the service sector is known for low affective commitment rates, organizational attachment is a crucial job factor among hotel workers (Guzeller & Celiker, 2019): hospitality employees' organizational commitment acts as a mediator between the service organization and the customer (Wu & Chen, 2018). Affectivity plays an important role in the service sector, as engaging with (often demanding) customers takes an emotional toll of hospitality employees and negatively impacts both their affective organizational commitment and emotional well-being (Raub, Borzillo, Perretten & Schmitt, 2021). Hotel workers who are affectively committed to

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their organization are more customer-oriented, which is a crucial job attitude in an industry where customer is king (Lombardi, Sassetti & Cavaliere, 2019).

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter expatiates on the research methodological approach used, measures and analyses each of the variable used in the research in other to arrive at the result of the research.

3.1 Sample and Procedure

The philosophy behind this research is positivism which states that studies related to human behavior should be conducted in the exact way as that of the natural sciences. (Collins and Hussey, 2003:52). In this research, a deductive approach was used because it aids in appropriately describing the nature of the relationships between the variables (Gallaire, H., Minker, J., & Nicolas, J. M.;1989). In deductive approach, the hypothesis is first deduced from a theory, it is then expressed in what is known as operational terms which proposes the relationship between particular variables which is then tested through an empirical enquiry that would then result in the confirmation or modification of a theory.

If the study objectives and the hypothesized relationships are to be tested, then there is a need to use a quantitative research approach therefore, quantitative research was carried out in other to achieve this as quantitative allows data collected to be processed as statistical information in other to support or denounce claims (Creswell, 2003).

In this research, a non-probability sampling was used, sampling refers to the use of a sufficiently large representative of a whole population for a research. Judgmental sampling which is also known as purposive sampling was used because our focus was placed on 5star hotels as they are known to have the highest number of customers as well as employees in the hospitality industry of Northern Cyprus. They are also known for their professional finesse due to the institutionalization of the5-star hotels (Özduran and Tanova, 2017). Convenience sampling was also used as most of the employees that were on duty at the hours visited where used. Due to the nature of the world when the research was carried out, some hotel facilities had to temporary decrease the working hours of some staff, hence volunteer sampling with reference to self-selection in web surveys was also used.

In Turkish Republic of Northern there are 133 hotels with 18 of them regarded as five-star facilities and they account for 13 percent of the total number of accommodations in the country (Ozduran,2017; MTES, 2016) in light of the covid situation only seven five-star hotels where open. The data obtained from where from four 5-star hotels in Northern Cyprus. Due to the fact that there would be missing data and non-respondents.

We targeted 300 hotel employees for the self-administered survey. A total of 262 where returned surveys were deemed useable. For the web surveys, a total of 100 was gotten but only 70 could be used. The employees that participated in the survey where from 12 departments in the hotel, the accounting department, animation, bar, food and beverage, front office, housekeeping, kitchen, reception, security, sales, maintenance and spa department. All employees had been with their organization for at least 6-months. All scales where in English language and were translated to Turkish using

back-translation process for Turkish-speaking employees. For intermediary level Turkish-speakers, the original English version of the questionnaires was provided for them. This made sure that the initial translation did not take meaning from the questions within the questionnaires. It also ensured that both the Turkish and English responses were from the same questions to ensure data integrity.

For the hotels with the self-administered questionnaires, top managers of the hotels were contacted in advance and permission was obtained. A trial test was carried out with 17 employees to ensure that the meaning of the questionnaires was completely understood. All response was obtained voluntarily and the anonymity as well as the confidentiality of the respondents was assured. The questionnaire had two sections. Section one had to with details of the respondents such as age, relationship status, sex, nationality, education, working experience and shift type. The second section contained four scales which are subjective well-being, Affective organizational commitment, Distributive organizational justice and work family conflict. All data was gathered using the Likert type scale and was coded by department, hotel and employee.

As our questionnaire contained 32 items, with a sample size of 332 participants, it was enough to complete the survey and generalize our result because of data saturation. (. In this research we had a total of 332 responses out of 400 with the subtraction of the eliminated questionnaires (response rate = 83%). The sample profile is presented in Table 1 and 2.

Table 1: Sample Profile Night Shift

Demography		Frequency	%
Nationality			
	Brazilian	3	2.4
	Cameroon	4	3.3
	Gambian	2	1.6
	Iranian	1	0.8
	Kazakistan	1	0.8
	KKTC	8	6.5
	Kyrgystan	2	1.6
	Moldova	1	0.8
	Nigerian	10	8.1
	Ozbek	1	0.8
	Pakistan	2	1.6
	Polish	1	0.8
	Russian	2	1.6
	Slovakia	1	0.8
	TC	80	65.0
	Turkmen	4	3.3
	Total	**123**	**100.0**
Department			
	Animation	23	18.7
	Bar	3	2.4
	Bar/FB	7	5.7
	FB	38	30.9
	Front Office	10	8.1
	Garden	5	4.1
	Health	1	0.8
	House Keeping	11	8.9
	Kitchen	6	4.9
	Maintenance	1	0.8
	Pool	1	0.8
	Reception	4	3.3
	Sales	1	0.8
	Security	12	9.8
	Total	**123**	**100.0**
Age			
	18-27	52	42.3
	28-37	58	47.2
	38-47	13	10.6
	Total	**123**	**100.0**
Sex			

	Male	89	72.4
	Female	34	27.6
	Total	**123**	**100.0**
Marital Status			
	Single	89	72.4
	Married	20	16.3
	Divorced	4	3.3
	Widowed	10	8.1
	Total	**123**	**100.0**
Education			
	High School	53	43.1
	University	48	39.0
	Masters/PHD	22	17.9
	Total	**123**	**100.0**
Working Experience			
	1Year	7	5.7
	2Years	11	8.9
	3Years	4	3.3
	4Years	35	28.5
	5 and more	66	53.7
	Total	**123**	**100.0**
Shift Type			
	Night	**123**	**100.0**

Most of the respondent were male (72.4%) and the remaining (27.6%) female. A high majority of the respondents (47.2%) were between 27 and 37, (42.3%) were between ages 18 and 27 and the least percentage (10.6%) were between ages 38-47. More than half of the respondent (72.4%) were single, (16.3%) were married, (3.3%) divorced and (8.1%) widowed. (39.0%) of respondent were university graduates, (43.1%) were high school graduates and the remaining percentage of respondents (17.9%) had either a master's degree or a PhD degree. Most of the respondent (53.7%) had worked in the hotel industry for more than five years, (28.5%) had worked four years, (3.3%) of the

respondents had worked for 3 years, (8.9%) of the respondents had worked for 2 years and the least percentage of respondents (5.7%) had a working experience of only 1 year. A great percentage of the respondents (65%) were from Turkey, (6.5%) were from the Northern Cyprus, (8.1%) and (3.3%) were from Nigeria and Cameroon respectively. (1.6%) of the respondents were from Pakistan, (3.3%) of the respondents were from Turkmenistan and the remaining (3.7%) of respondents belonged to other nationalities. The total frequency for night shift is 123.

More than half of the respondents (63.0%) were working in day shift and the remaining responents (37.0%) were for night shifts.This sample profile is identical in attribute to past research done using data from hospitality indusrty in North Cyprus (Kilic and Okumus, 2005; Arasli et al., 2006; Karatepe and Uludag, 2008; Özduran and Tanova, 2017).

Table 2: Sample Profile Day Shift

Demography		Frequency	%
Nationality			
	Alegrian	1	0.5
	British	1	0.5
	Camaroonian	4	1.9
	Ghanaian	1	0.5
	Indonesia	1	0.5
	Iranian	1	0.5
	KKTC	21	10.0
	Kurdish	1	0.5
	Kyrgystan	1	0.5
	Nepal	2	1.0
	Nigerian	16	7.7
	Pakistan	6	2.9
	Senegales	1	0.5

TC	149	71.3
Tibetan	1	0.5
Ukraine	1	0.5
Zimbabwe	1	0.5
Total	**209**	**100.0**

Department

Accounting	3	1.4
Admin	1	0.5
Animation	2	1.0
Bar	1	0.5
Bar/FB	5	2.4
FB	71	34.0
Front Office	7	3.3
GM	1	0.5
Health	1	0.5
House Keeping	42	20.1
HR	2	1.0
IT	1	0.5
Kitchen	38	18.2
Maintenance	8	3.8
Manager	1	0.5
Reception	4	1.9
Sales	5	2.4
Security	11	5.3
Spa	5	2.4
Total	**209**	**100.0**

Age

18-27	70	33.5
28-37	94	45.0
38-47	34	16.3
48-59	11	5.3
Total	**209**	**100.0**

Sex

Male	122	58.4
Female	87	41.6
Total	**209**	**100.0**

Marital Status

Single	87	41.6
Married	84	40.2
Divorced	23	11.0
Widowed	15	7.2
Total	**209**	**100.0**

Education			
	High School	85	40.7
	University	108	51.7
	Masters/PHD	16	7.7
	Total	**209**	**100.0**
Working Experience			
	1Year	23	11.0
	2Years	21	10.0
	3Years	30	14.4
	4Years	33	15.8
	5 and more	102	48.8
	Total	**209**	**100.0**
Shift Type			
	Day	**209**	**100.0**

Most of the respondent were male (58.4%) and (41.6) female. A high majority of the respondents (45.0%) were between 27 and 37, (33.5%) were between ages 18 and 27, (16.3%) were between ages 38-47 and the least percentage (5.3%) were between ages 47-59. Almost half of the respondent (41.6%) were single, (40.2%) were married, (11.0%) divorced and (7.2%) widowed. (40.7%) of respondent were university graduates, (51.7%) were high school graduates and the remaining percentage of respondents (7.7%) had either a master's degree or a PhD degree. Most of the respondent (48.8%) had worked in the hotel industry for more than five years, (15.8%) had worked four years, (14.4%) of the respondents had worked for 3 years, (10.0%) of the respondents had worked for 2 years and the least percentage of respondents (11.0%) had a working experience of only 1 year. A great percentage of the respondents (71.3%) were from Turkey, (10.0%) were from the Northern Cyprus, (7.7%) and (1.9%) were from Nigeria and Cameroon respectively. (1.0%) of the respondents were from Nepal and the remaining (8.1%) of respondents belonged to other nationalities. The total frequency for day shift is 209.

More than half of the respondents (63.0%) were working in day shift and the remaining responents (37.0%) were for night shifts. This sample profile is identical in attribute to past research done using data from hospitality indusrty in North Cyprus (Kilic and Okumus, 2005; Arasli et al., 2006; Karatepe and Uludag, 2008; Özduran and Tanova, 2017).

3.2 Measures

3.2.1 Work Family Conflict

Work-family conflict was measured with a 5-item scale, rated through a 5-point Likert range. The scale developed by Netemeyer *et al.* (1996). This was to measure how much their work affects their family life. Netemeyer et al. (1996) five-item scales had coefficient alpha levels ranging from 0.83 to 0.89, and the average alpha coefficient was of 0.88. This scale has been used previously by Peeters et al. (2005), Pan et al. (2019), Walumbwa et al. (2010), and Vaziriet al. (2020). A sample item from the work family conlict scale is "The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.". The coefficient alpha for the night shift was 0.87 and that of the day shift was 0.92.

3.2.2 Subjective Well-Being

The employee filled the questionnaire accessing their subjective well-being. In measurements of the subjective well-being of the employee a 7-point Likert type scale was used which consisted of 5 items. This scale was developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin (1985) coefficient alpha in diener *et al*. was 0.84. This scale has been used previously by Susskind et al. (2000), Shen and Huang (2012), Butt *et al.* (2020). An example of an item in the scale is *"So far I have gotten the important things I want in life."* In this study, the coefficient alpha was 0.81 for the night shift and 0.85 for day shift.

3.2.3 Distributive Justice

The purpose of this scale was to measure how the employee felt they were rewarded based on their job stress, responsibilities and effort. Each employee filled out a 5 –item questionnaire on a 5-point Likert scale with 5-items from Moorman (1991) with Cronbach alpha of 0.88. This scale has been used by the like of Velez and Neves (2017). A sample item from the scale is "Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair". The coefficient alpha was 0.87 for the night shift and 0.8 for the day shift.

3.2.4 Affective Organizational Commitment

The affective commitment of employees was measured using the Meyer 5-point Likert scale (Meyer et al., 1993) which comprises of 10 items with three dimensions such as affective organizational commitment which has 6 items on the scale, normative with 3 items and with 2 items for continuance commitment. For the purpose of this research affective organizational commitment item was used and was filled by each employee. According to the research carried out by Meyer et al. (2002) it has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.87. This scale has commonly been used to measure affective commitment and has been used by van et al. (2020). An item from the scale is "I am very happy to work in this institution in the rest of my career". The coefficient alpha for the night shift was 0.88 while that of the day shift was 0.86.

Chapter 4

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this research four theories are used to reinforce the interrelationship between the variables used in this work through their theoretical background. These theories are social exchange theory, role theory, equity theory, spill over theory.

4.1 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory (SET) is one of an important concept for understanding workplace behavior. It originated in the 1920s (e.g., Malinowski, 1922; Mauss, 1925), enfolding disciplines as anthropology (e.g., Firth, 1967; Sahlins, 1972), sociology (Blau, 1964), and social psychology (e.g., Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1958; Thibault & Kelley, 1959). Though multiple views of social exchange have been seen to emerge, most theorist are in agreement about social exchange being a sequence of interactions that produce commitments (Emerson, 1976). Within social exchange theory, interpersonal relationships are generally considered to be interdependent and dependent on other people's actions (Blau, 1964).

4.2 Spillover Theory

Spill over theory can be spotted using its holistic nature, it spans the various interactions between work and family (Tammelin, 2009). Spillover, means a lot more than just basic cause and effect influence from one environment to another, be it family to work or vice versa. It is rather the phenomenon that "activities in one role can benefit an individual's activity in another role" (Grzywacz et al. 2007, p.561). Edwards and Rothbard (2000) observed that as a result of spillover process work and family life are

strongly linked, which can be observed along with the generated similarities. If a person brings negative moods or emotions, such as fatigue, this may result in work family conflict that affects the persons overall subjective well-being. Although, if there are positive moods are emotions the opposite tend to be the case.

4.3 Equity Theory

Equity theory views employment relationships as a transactional relationship between employee and employer. In this type of relationship, the job satisfaction results from the ratio between outputs and inputs (Lawler, 1973). Outputs can be seen as rewards employees receive from their employer (e.g., Salaries). Inputs are the employee's contribution to the organization (e.g., work effort). Employees tend to have better organizational commitment when there is a balance between what is gotten from the employer and what is put in by the employee (Huseman & Hatfield, 1990) outcomes don't match inputs then employees tend to lose their commitment to the organization.

4.4 Role Theory

Role theory describes roles as models of conduct or ways of behaving in a social context: a role is a set of activities and behaviors that other expect an individual to perform (Biddle, 1986). Kahn's et al. role theory (1964) is considered to be the founding concept for the organizational role theories that are concerned with organizational roles in the workplace and their effect on employees' nonwork life. In this theory conflict between roles occurs when an individual's multiple roles inevitably clash with each other as it is impossible to meet each role's demands (Kahn et.al., 1964).

Chapter 5

HYPOTHESES

This section expatiates on the research hypotheses and how each of the variables interact with each other. This section covers how the research hypotheses were developed.

5.1 Work Family Conflict and Subjective Well-Being

Subjective well-being is a multifaceted analysis that captures affective and cognitive components (Eid & Diener, 2004), there has been an old tradition where it is used in the analysis of problems that focus on quality of life an individual has (e.g., Campbell, Converse, & Rogers, 1976). Subjective well-being is mostly viewed from the angle of general mental health these include the depression, anxiety, social disfunctions (Diener et al., 2006). Work–family conflict happens when employees are caught between his job and private life. This is a situation where time spend on work impacts family duties and the other way around.

Adverse spillover between work and family causes negative outcomes in regards to employees' life satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Mihelic & Tekavcic, 2014): work stress that spills over to the family domain can have a significant negative impact due to the significance individuals attribute to their family and the link between family satisfaction and overall satisfaction with life. Hence, the negative impact of work-to-family tension on one's overall well-being is less significant than that of family-to-work conflict as employees are more likely to hold their organizations and not

themselves (or their family-related self-image) responsible (Zhou, Zhang & Chen, 2020; Frone et al., 1992). The significance of family satisfaction is visible in the link between family distress and depression: psychological job-related stress can lead to family-related stress and is directly related to depression, as individuals' perceived quality of life associated with their job can also produce a damaged family-related self-image, which determines their perceived overall quality of life (Wang & Peng, 2017; Frone et al., 1992). Thus, overall life satisfaction is negatively impacted by work-family tension, as this creates a more negatively perceived quality of family-life (Taşdelen-Karçkay & Bakalım, 2017). Therefore, it can be concluded that work-family conflict and has notable adverse consequences for subjective well-being (Mihelic and Tekavcic, 2014).

As I already discussed in Chapter 2, work-family conflict is also a significant predictor of job and life fulfilment among employees active in the hotel sector (Xu & Cao, 2019), Guzeller & Celiker (2019) even attribute the high level of hospitality workers quitting to the many work-family conflicts and consequent decreased workers well-being in the industry.

I therefore postulate that:

H1night: *There is a negative relationship between work family conflict and subjective well-being in night shift*

H1day: *There is a negative relationship between work family conflict and subjective well-being in night shift.*

5.2 Distributive Organizational Justice and Subjective Well-Being

According to McGillivray and Clarke (2006) and Hoorn (2007), wellbeing can be

classified into two categories, objective and subjective. Subjective wellbeing takes into considerations each individuals' feelings and experiences. Fairness and the well-being of individuals in an organization have been found to be closely related to each other. Reports have shown that job-related wellbeing is a consequence of the interaction between individuals' character and the organizations environment. There have been studies that show that employees who perceive fairness at work experience mostly positive emotions and those who felt slighted experienced the opposite. This may be during resource allocation or processes used in the allocation of these resources. Moreover, when employees perceive their work input to be proportional with the rewards their level of well-being is higher (Schulz, Martin & Meyer, 2017). In short, workers who feel they are treated justly by their employer will report increased rates of subjective well-being (Caesens, Stinglhamber, Demoulin & De Wilde, 2017).

Therefore, I hypothesize that:

H2(night shift): *There is a positive relationship between distributive organizational justice and subjective well-being.*

H2(day shift): *There is a positive relationship between distributive organizational justice and subjective well-being.*

5.3 Mediating Role of AOC

Affective organizational commitment is the measure of individuals' emotional attachment to an organization. Employees with higher degrees of affective organizational commitment prefer to stay with their current organization (Newman & Sheikh, 2012). Past work has done some investigation into the mediating role of

Affective Organizational Commitment on other variables. Affective commitment was shown to mediate between caring climate and employee performance (Dinc and Plakalovic, 2016). Camelo-Ordaz et. al. (2011) state that Human Resource Management actions do not impact knowledge transmission but rather have a positive effect through the mediating role of affective commitment. Moreover, Cruz and Perez (2009) show affective commitment to mediate between workplace rewards and the exchange of knowledge.

The majority of organizational research shows a clear link between WFC and AOC (see part *4.4*). AOC, in turn, is shown to be strongly positively linked to SWB (Schulz et al., 2017). It is no surprise that there is a strong influence from workplace antecedents on subjective well-being, given the central (or at least significant) place employment has in the lives of most individuals. Positive job conditions with limited strain, routine and pressures and a certain level of autonomy, complexity and creativity (Brown & Moloney, 2019; Kohn & Schooler,1982) and a safe and healthy work environment contribute to emotional and psychological employees' well-being (Schulz et al., 2017). Affective workplace commitment contributes to subjective well-being, as all job factors that contribute to a healthy workplace positively influence employees psychological and emotional well-being (Russell, 2008; Turner et al., 2002). Job satisfaction leads to higher levels of affective organizational commitment, which is, in turn, strongly linked to levels of positive affect among employees (Ampofo, 2020; Satuf, et al.,2018).

Given the strong relationship between WFC and AOC on the one hand and the strong link between AOC and SWB on the other hand,

I hypothesize that:

H3 night: *Affective organizational commitment mediates the relationship between work family conflict and subjective well being*

H3 day: *Affective organizational commitment mediates the relationship between work family conflict and subjective well-being.*

5.4 Work Family Conflict and Affective Organizational Commitment

Conflict will always be present in every walk of life. Taking on a lot of responsibilities may result in poor performances in one or more of the responsibilities born. This is due to the fact that individuals are wired to solve issues that interest them first before delving into other issues. Conflict of interest usually is seen with employees that work full time and also maintain a family, be it conjugal or extended. Work family conflict thus creates a conflict between home and work. This could either be work affecting home or vice versa (Akintayo, 2010). Affective commitment deals with the bond between and employee and the organization he or she works for (Akintayo, 2010). This is mostly seen where an employee is loyal to a company because of the rewards associated with such loyalty. It also seen that in case those rewards be held back the employee's commitment begins to dwindle.

The negative link between work and family does not only significantly relates to effects such as job stress and organizational citizenship behavior (Ioannidi et al., 2016) but also produces negative emotional responses towards the job and organization (Tsionou & Konstantopoulo, 2015): work-family conflict causes employees to feel less emotionally devoted to and involved in their organization and thus negatively relates to their affective organizational commitment (Mihelic & Tekavcic, 2014). Or, as Xu

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and Cao (2019) put it, work-family conflict can be considered as a source of negative affective experiences who negatively influence employees' judgement about their environment and subsequent job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. Employees' negative affective reaction to their work as a result of work-family conflict produces lower organizational commitment rates (Ismail & Gali, 2017; Anderson et al., 2002), as work-family conflict negatively affects employees' attitudes linked to the organization they work for (Hofmann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2017; Mihelic & Tekavcic, 2014). Cao et al. (2020) confirm this strong negative effect of work-family tension on affective organizational commitment. Employees that suffer from their job negatively interfering with their private life are not likely to feel an emotional attachement with the organization: a negative relationship between WFC and AOC is shown in research (Cao, Liu, Wu, Zhao & Jiang, 2020; Casper, Martin, Buffardi & Erdwins, 2002).

I therefore postulate:

H4 night: *There is a negative relationship between work family conflict and affective organizational commitment*

H4 day: *There is a negative relationship between work family conflict and affective organizational commitment.*
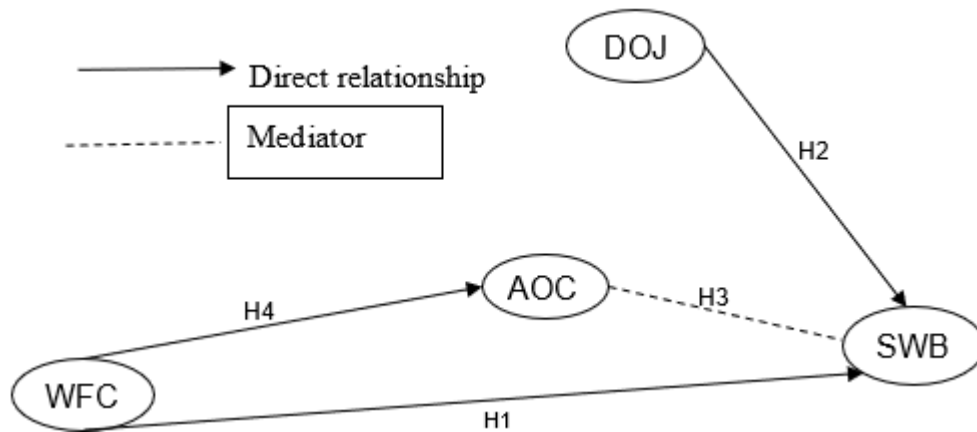
Figure 1: Proposed Research Model

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Data Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) was conducted to test the validity our measures. As can be observed in Table2, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliability (CR) and indicator loading of the study constructs were used to assess the converge validity of the measurement model. The indicator loading had a range of 0.560 to 0.924 for the day shift and the indicator loading for the night shift had a range of 0.6375 to 0.9228; this clearly show the loadings are above the required recommended level of 0.6 Chin et al (2008). Also, while looking at the construct level, composite reliability values exceeded the required 0.7 cutoff with WFCS: 0.908004332, DOJ: 0.88829261, AOC: 0.913243383 and SWB: 0.862123496. The AVE, which shows the total variance observed in an indicator met the 0.5 minimal requirement. (Hair et al., 2013). Dijkstra–Henseler's ρ (ρA), Jöreskog's ρ (ρC), Cronbach's alpha (α) values of this study was seen to have a range of 0.82 to 0.91 for the night shift and 0.79 to 1.01 for the day shift. This is shown to have met the acceptable 0.7 cutoff. The discriminant validity was also looked into, this is the range that indicators reflect its construct and not the construct of others, using Fornell and

Larckers criteria (1981). The best discriminant validity can be verified by making sure the square root of the AVE of each construct is more than its correlating coefficients (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This can be observed in Tables 3 to 8.

Table 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Day Shift Variables

Scale	Standardized Loadings	t-value	AVE	CR
WFC	0.94		0.75	0.94
WFC1	0.92	14.92		
WFC2	0.83	9.74		
WFC3	0.86	12.04		
WFC4	0.92	15.02		
WFC5	0.78	7.73		
Subjective wellbeing				
SWB			0.63	0.86
SWB1	0.81	3.96		
SWB2	0.86	4.96		
SWB3	0.73	3.82		
SWB4	0.89	5.87		
SWB5	0.65	3.43		
Distributive organizational justice				
DOJ			0.56	0.89
DOJ1	0.71	3.16		
DOJ2	0.82	2.31		
DOJ3	0.79	2.25		
DOJ4	0.81	2.65		
DOJ5	0.56	3.08		
Affective organizational commitment				
AOC			0.64	0.91
AOC1	0.76	6.93		
AOC2	0.86	12.41		
AOC3	0.82	6.71		
AOC4	0.80	6.70		
AOC5	0.73	8.11		

Note: All loadings are significant at the .001 level; AVE=Average variance extracted; CR=Composite reliability

Table 4: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Night Shift Variables

Scale

Work family conflict	Standardized Loadings	t-value	AVE	CR
WFC	0.94		0.67	0.91
WFC1	0.67	9.20		
WFC2	0.72	14.85		
WFC3	0.90	29.03		
WFC4	0.90	32.46		
WFC5	0.86	24.92		
Subjective wellbeing				
SWB			0.56	0.86
SWB1	0.79	12.16		
SWB2	0.82	13.08		
SWB3	0.73	8.03		
SWB4	0.74	8.22		
SWB5	0.63			
Distributive organizational justice				
DOJ			0.61	0.89
DOJ1	0.76	3.75		
DOJ2	0.82	3.17		
DOJ3	0.77	2.73		
DOJ4	0.73	2.64		
DOJ5	0.84	4.49		
Affective organizational commitment				
AOC			0.67	0.91
AOC1	0.92	54.14		
AOC2	0.84	29.57		
AOC3	0.88	34.99		
AOC4	0.74	15.39		
AOC5	0.73	11.50		

Note: All loadings are significant at the .001 level; AVE=Average variance extracted; CR=Composite reliability

Table 5: Fornell and Larcker Criterion (Night Shift)

Construct	WFCS	AOC	SWB	DOJ
WFCS	0.6669			
AOC	0.3627	0.6798		
SWB	0.1586	0.2600	0.5574	
DOJ	0.0000	0.0086	0.0662	0.6146

Table 6: Fornell and Larcker Criterion (Day Shift)

Construct	WFCS	SWB	DOJ	AOC
WFCS	0.7521			
SWB	0.0260	0.6274		
DOJ	0.0066	0.0775	0.5563	
AOC	0.0922	0.0354	0.0167	0.6425

Chin et al. (2008) recommends that the models predictive relevance be evaluated using the R^2 value. We can see from the report in Table 4 that R^2 indicate large predictive relevance. The results show that the variables show an acceptable level of predictive relevance.

Table 7: Result of R2 and Adjusted R2 for Constructs (Night Shift)

Construct	Coefficient of determination (R^2)	Adjusted R^2
AOC	0.3627	0.3574
SWB	0.3045	0.2930

Table 8: Result of R2 and Adjusted R2 for Constructs (Day Shift)

Construct	Coefficient of determination (R^2)	Adjusted R^2
AOC	0.0922	0.0878
SWB	0.1285	0.1200

5.4.2 Hypothesis Testing

One of the stated hypothesis in this research was that affective organizational commitment will have a positive mediation effect that is significant between subjective well-being and work family conflict (H3). The mediation effect is calculated using the two step Preacher and Hayes's (2008) approach. A bootstrapping analysis is first carried out without the mediating variable, to check the significance of direct relationships. The procedure is then repeated with the mediating variable, this confirms the indirect effects. The results show that during the night shift with the mediation variable, the relationship between WFC and SWB is supported, the relationship between WFCS and AOC is supported, DOJ and SWB is also supported as well as AOC and SWB. Without the mediation variable, only WFC to SWB is supported. During the day shift, the results show that without mediation variable, WFCS on SWB is not supported as the t-value is below 1.96. WFCS on AOC is supported, DOJ on SWB is supported as the t-values exceed 1.96. AOC on SWB is not supported. When the analysis was done with the mediating variable for the day shift, it was observed that WFCS on SWB was supported. The results can be observed in Tables 9 to 12 and figure 2 and 3.

Table 9: Effects Overview with Mediation Variable (Night Shift)

Effect	Beta	Indirect effects	Total effect	Cohen's f^2
WFCS -> AOC	0.6022		0.6022	0.5690
WFCS -> SWB		0.2953	0.2953	
AOC -> SWB	0.4903		0.4903	0.3427
DOJ -> SWB	-0.2119		-0.2119	0.0640

Table 10: Effects Overview with Mediation Variable (Day

Effect	Beta	Indirect effects	Total effect	Cohen's f^2
WFCS -> SWB	0.2406		0.2406	0.0670
DOJ -> SWB	0.3206		0.3206	0.1190

Table 11: Effects Overview without Mediation Variable (Day Shift)

Effect	Beta	Indirect effects	Total effect	Cohen's f^2
WFCS -> SWB	0.2406		0.2406	0.0670
DOJ -> SWB	0.3206		0.3206	0.1190

Table 12: Effects Overview without Mediation Variable (Night Shift)

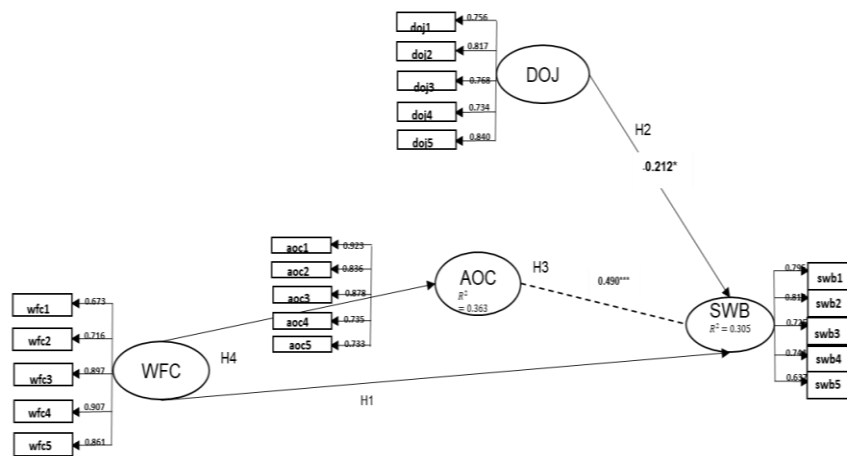| Effect	Beta	Indirect effects	Total effect	Cohen's f^2
WFCS -> SWB	0.5334		0.5334	0.4727
DOJ -> SWB	-0.2952		-0.2952	0.1448

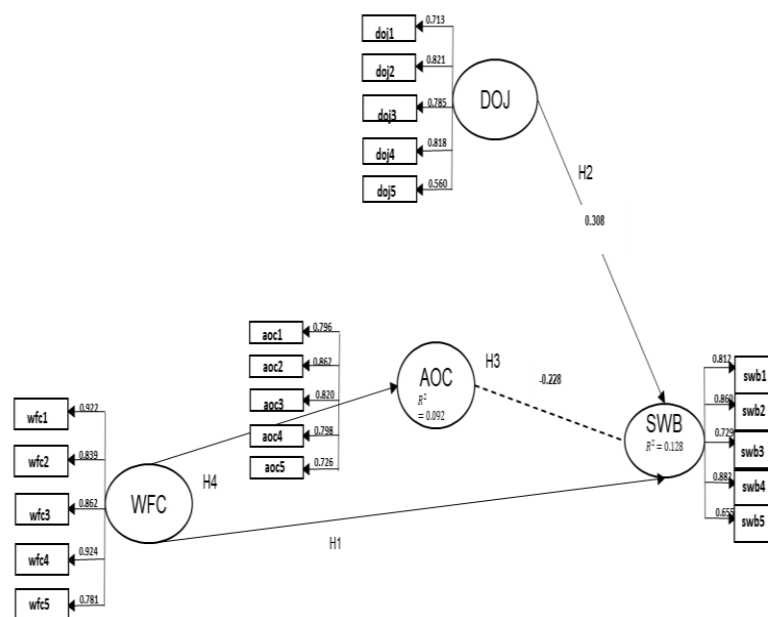Figure 2: Measurement Model (Night Shift)

Figure 3: Measurement Model (Day Shift)

Chapter 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Discussion

While there has been a lot of research into the hotel industry, few have focused on the comparative analysis between night and day shift workers. This study was a comparative analysis between night and day shift workers, using certain stressors.

The results show that during the night shift with the mediation variable, the relationship between WFC and SWB is supported; this means there is a positive relationship between WFCS and SWB. When there is work family conflict, the employees' subjective well-being will be affected. Also, it was seen that during the night shift, there is a relationship between the work family conflict and the affective organizational commitment. Employees that are committed to the organization do not mind working the night shift and do not have problems at home as they have greater ties to their work environment as a result of the benefits they may derive from the work environment. It was also seen that during the night shift there is a relationship between distributive organizational justice and subjective well-being. Employees that are treated fairly tend to feel better leading to and improved sense of wellness. Affective organizational commitment was also seen to have a relationship with the subjective well-being of the employees. Employees that are committed to the organization tend to feel better about working there thus leading to an improved sense of well-being since that is where they want to be in the first place. These are all results obtained when a mediation variable

was used in the analysis of the night shift work. When the mediation variable was taken out of the analysis only Work Family conflict and subjective well-being had a relationship. This goes to show that without Affective organizational commitment as the mediator, work family conflict has a direct impact on the subjective well-being of an employee during the night shift. If an employee has issues at home or at work, there is a tendency for these issues to affect the overall feeling of wellness of the employee.

During the Day shift, the results turned out to be quite different, without the mediation variable, it was observed that there was no direct relationship between work family conflict and subjective well-being of the employees. Work Family conflict has a relationship with affective organizational commitment. Employees will not have work family conflicts when they are committed to the organization they work for. WFCS does not have a direct impact on the subjective well-being of the employees. Employees during the day shift are not affected by issues that arise from home, at work. Distributive organizational Justice has a relationship with the subjective well-being of the employees during the day shift. Employees treated fairly tend to have better outlook on life and thus a better subjective well-being. It was also seen that there was no relationship between subjective well-being and affective organizational commitment. When the analysis was repeated with the mediating variable for the day shift, it was observed that there was a relationship between the work family conflict and the subjective well-being of the employees. Employees with work family conflict were seen to have a lower subjective well-being and vice versa.

6.2 Theoretical Implications

The results observed in this study improve upon previous research into the Hotel industry. It was observed that there are relationships that exist between work family conflict and subjective well-being of the employees. Previous research looked into

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depression in the Hotel Industry with work family conflict as a stressor. This research contributes to the previous studies by extending this study to night and day shift workers. It was observed that there is a positive relationship between work family conflict and the subjective well-being of employees. Previous studies showed that the subjective well-being of employees was a contributory factor to their depression. Our study shows that employees with lower work family conflict tend to have a better subjective well-being.

The study also looked at the relationship between distributive organizational justice and subjective well-being of the employees, it was seen that there was a positive relation between the distributive organizational justice and the subjective well-being of employees, this was seen mostly with the day shift workers. Fairness in the hospitality industry was seen to be a key factor for employees with better subjective well-being, the more fair an organization is to its employees the more the employees have a better sense of belonging and thus an improve sense of well-being. This contributed to the equity theory literature. We also got to analyse the role of affective organizational commitment as a mediator between work family conflict and subjective well-being, to the best of the researchers knowledge, there has been little research into the role of affective organizational commitment on work family conflict and subjective wellbeing. Finally there is a relationship between work family conflict and affective organizational commitment. When an employee is having work family conflict, he would most like likely have a lesser commitment to the organization and vice versa. The study showed that employees that had fewer work family conflicts had a higher affective organizational commitment.

6.3 Practical Implications

The research was a comparative analysis between night and day shift workers in the hotel industry. The research has shown that there are various relationships between the stressors used to limit the scope of this study. The stressors looked into were affective organizational commitment, distributive organizational justice, subjective well-being and work family conflict. Organizations are to ensure that their employees are taken care of . Things like healthcare and benefits may improve the affective organizational commitment of employees especially when they may not get that elsewhere. This in turn makes their work family conflict rate drop as they are happy with the organization and would do anything to remain in the organization.

Employers can lower work-family conflict by tackling the organizational stressors at the root of the conflict. By reducing employees' workplace stress and strain factors and subsequent substandard work-life balance organizations can contribute to employees sleep quality, mental health and well-being (Ioannidi et al., 2016). A significant potential job-related stress element is working hours: employees who are positive about their work schedule and the balance between work and leisure time will be more satisfied with their job and have more work-family stability (Karatepe and Kilic, 2007; McNamara, 2013; Xu and Cao, 2019). Employers can create a family-friendly workplace by offering the possibility to telecommute and flexible work systems (Zhang & Liu, 2011; Fahmy, 2020). Organizational and supervisory support is only one aspect of social support, which can also be provided by work colleagues, friends and family members and can help employees dealing with role pressure and protect them from work-family conflict (Michel et al., 2011; Xu & Cao, 2019).

It is important for organizations to be considerate of perceptions of justice among their employees, given the many possible positive outcomes of perceived organizational justice. I discussed in the previous chapters. Positive justice perception can increase organizational-relevant effects such as organizational commitment, job performance and satisfaction (Colquitt et al., 2001). Managers have significant impact on these work attitudes through their creation of a fair work place (Rahman, Shahzad, Mustafa, Khan & Qurashi, 2016; Fatt et al., 2010). Cropanzano et al. (2007) state that a solution for managers to combine equality and equity in their reward distribution is to provide employees with a minimum of benefit (equality) and add to this reward based on performance (equity), thus creating a 'hybrid' form of distributive justice.

The strategies that individuals apply to maintain or restore the balance between job and family life will therefore eventually also contribute to subjective well-being (Sirgy, Lee, Park, Joshanloo & Kim, 2020). Organizations can also help employees finding this balance: workplace and supervisory support are important organizational stratiegies to improve workers' well-being and a sense of being allowed to work autonomously, belonging in the organization and a good job-employee match are other values companies should hold high as they are crucial in promoting subjective well-being (Erdogan et al., 2012). Although the amount of hours that employees put in the company play a role in the level of their SWB, schedule satisfaction and flexibilty and schedule control also matter (Erdogan et al., 2012).

The study has analyzed the effects of the various variables on employees in the night and day shift. It is left for management to create policies that align with the results discussed. This in turn will improve the productivity of employees and the hotel industry as a whole.

6.4 Limitations and Future Research

This research was carried out during the Covid-19 global pandemic. This pandemic has had a huge impact on the hospitality industry due to the decrease in travel and demand for rooms. More than 70% of the work force were temporary laid off. There for future research can examine this topic in a period where there is no instability.

A hindrance to our research is that the sample size was from north Cyprus Therefore, there can be no generalization to other countries. This does postulate that there is need for more comparative analysis studied on day and night shift workers in the hospitality industry in different countries as well as the impact of these shifts on different gender.

Another limitation may be that the was no account made for people who deliberately asked for a particular shift. An employee might ask to be given a particular shift for a particular reason. This might affect their whole experience in regards to shift work and the stressors. Therefore more insight might be found if further investigation is carried out in this department.

In this research Harman's single factor to address the issue of common method bias statistical in SPSS (Podsakoff, N.P., 2003) The single factor showed 23% which is less than 50%, so despite our work being a cross sectional work, there are no issues linked to common method bias.

Our sample size was focused on 5star hotels in Northern Cyprus. It did not include smaller lodging facilities therefore, further research could look into smaller hotels or other 3 or 4 star accommodation and compare the differences in each shift with respect to the variables discussed in previous chapters.

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APPENDIX

English Survey

Section I.

1. Age : □ 18-27 □ 28-37 □ 38-47 □ 48-59 □ 60 and over

2. Gender: □ Male □ Female □ Other □ I don't want to identify

3. Marital Status: □ Single □ Married □ Divorced □ Other

4. Education: □ High school or below □ University □ Master or Doctorate

5. Work experience: □ 1 year □ 2 years □ 3 years □ 4 years □ 5 and more

6. Nationality: _____

7. Shift Type: □ Night □ Day (morning or afternoon)

Section II.

Please indicate the degree to which you agree/disagree with the following statement:

DISTRIBUTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE

1.	My work schedule is fair.	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
2.	I think that my level of pay is fair.	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
3.	I consider my work load to be quite fair.	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5

4.	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
5.	Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5

WORK FAMILY CONFLICT SCALE

1.	The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
2.	The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
3.	Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
4.	My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
5.	Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5

AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

1.	I am very happy to work in this institution in the rest of my career	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
2.	I enjoy talking to people outside the company about my workplace	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
3.	I feel like I have problems with	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree

	institutional problems.				5
4.	This institution means something very special to me.	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5
5.	I do not have a strong sense of belonging to this institution.	Strongly Disagree1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5

SUBJECTIVE WELL BEING

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with.

Using the 1 - 7 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item.

1.	In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	Strongly Disagree 1	Slightly Disagree 2	Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
2.	The conditions of my life are excellent.	Strongly Disagree 1	Slightly Disagree 2	Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
3.	I am satisfied with my life.	Strongly Disagree 1	Slightly Disagree 2	Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
4.	So far, I have gotten the important things I want in life.	Strongly Disagree 1	Slightly Disagree 2	Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
5.	If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing	Strongly Disagree 1	Slightly Disagree 2	Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7