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The well-being and subjective career success of workaholics: An examination of hospitality managers' recovery experience

Abstract:

Workaholism and its influence on hospitality managers' recovery experience, well-being, and subjective career success was examined. Participants were hospitality managers in the hotel, foodservice, airline, and tourism industries in the United States. Data was collected at two time points and the results show that hospitality managers' recovery experience has a positive relationship with well-being and subjective career success. Furthermore, the positive relationship between recovery experience and job satisfaction and the positive relationship between recovery experience and career satisfaction were found to be stronger for people who are high in workaholism. Theoretical and practical implications based on the results are discussed.

Keywords: workaholism; recovery experience; well-being; subjective career success; hospitality managers

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1. Introduction

Employee well-being is of concern to hospitality organizations especially as they strive to retain employees at all levels (Gordon et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2016). The hospitality industry is defined as an industry with long hours, unstable work schedules, constant face-to-face interactions with guests often requiring emotional labor, high job demands, high work-life conflict, etc., all of which can negatively impact employee well-being (Kim, 2008; Lee et al., 2016; O'Neill and Davis, 2011; Sonnentag et al., 2008; Trompe and Blomme, 2012) and as such, increase health-related costs for organizations. However, recovery from job demands during work and non-work time is a key factor which can improve employee well-being (Bakker et al., 2013; Sonnentag et al., 2017). The effort-recovery theory states that the "costs" of the effort people put into work can be recouped by recovery, such as short-term breaks during the day and longer periods of time off such as weekends or vacations (Meijman and Mulder, 1998; Tromp and Blomme, 2012). Recovery is defined as the process of reducing or eliminating strains caused by high job demands at the workplace and returning oneself to the pre-strain state (Sonnentag et al., 2008; Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007). This process can be accomplished through recovery experiences, which include psychological detachment from work, relaxation, mastery experience, and control during leisure time (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007). It is critical to study employees in the hospitality industry because this group of people often lacks work-life balance (Kandasamy and Ancheri, 2009; Trompe and Blomme, 2012) and may be more prone to workaholic tendencies, especially due to the non-standard work schedules and demands, and as such, may not gain enough recovery or the benefits that recovery brings, such as improved well-being. Furthermore, hospitality organizations wishing to retain employees and manage costs associated with absenteeism, worker's compensation, and benefits, among others, should promote employee well-being

(Gordon et al., 2019), and one way to do this is through facilitating recovery from work demands.

Obtaining recovery is especially critical for hospitality managers because they are constantly working under high workloads, dealing with employee and guest issues, and experiencing interpersonal tensions (Lee et al., 2016; Tromp and Blomme, 2012). One of the reasons managers leave not only their positions, but hospitality altogether is due to the stress of the position and lack of work-life balance (Tromp and Blomme, 2012). However, hospitality organizations often prefer to retain managers for the long-run, so should invest in managers achieving career success, and as such job satisfaction and career satisfaction, in the industry through ensuring they can recover from their daily work demands. Career success is defined as positive work-related outcomes that someone achieves through the accumulation from his or her work experiences (Judge et al., 1995). Subjective career success, which is individuals' perceived career success, has been captured by using job satisfaction and career satisfaction (Burke, 2001; Judge et al., 1995). Achieving enough recovery from job stress has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction (Hunter and Wu, 2016). Previous research has shown that executive-level employees reported high levels of job stress and work-family conflict (Judge and Bretz Jr, 1994), making recovery from job stress more difficult or even impossible if they cannot mentally remove themselves from work as per the effort-recovery theory (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007). Employees may even expend additional resources on work responsibilities, especially those high in workaholism, and thus increase their stress; this is the tenant of the conservation of resources theory (COR) which states when people perceive a loss of resources, they will feel stressed as they try to preserve these resources (Hobfoll, 1989), which can lead to lower physical and mental well-being.

Overall, previous studies found that recovery experience has a positive relationship with employees' well-being (e.g., Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007; Sonnentag and Fritz, 2015) .

However, this relationship may vary based on workaholism, as an individual difference factor. While research suggested that employees feel more energetic and engaged if they recover from work-related efforts (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2015), this may not be the case for all employees. Some employees have the inner drive to work excessively not because of the external demands, such as financial issues or poor marriages, but because they enjoy their work and it is hard for them to detach from it (Schaufeli, Shimazu, et al., 2009). Furthermore, people who are addicted to work may suffer from poor physical and mental well-being (Sánchez-Medina et al., 2019). The work environment in the hospitality industry can result in employees' devotion to work, especially for people who are in managerial roles (Pan, 2018). Pan (2018) summarized several reasons that lead to longer working hours, including the nature of the work and employees' intrinsic motivations. According to Kilroy (2007), managers made up a higher percentage of workaholics than non-managers. It is possible that managers have more responsibilities and often need to work during non-work days or hours, for example, answering work phone calls at home. Based on the effort-recovery model, those who cannot detach from work while away from work may not fully recover from the efforts put into their work (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007) and may become stressed, burned out (Clark et al., 2016), or suffer other symptoms of poor well-being. Thus, for those who are high in workaholism, the relationship between recovery and well-being may be stronger due to recovery experiences being key to their well-being versus for those low in workaholism who may sustain well-being through other means. However, for those high in workaholism, subjective career success may stem from their workaholic trait and thus, recovery is not as necessary to sustain their satisfaction with their job or career. Whereas for those low in workaholism, recovery from work demands may be key to their feeling satisfied in their jobs and with their careers because devoting too much time to work may cause them to dislike their work. Managers' poor well-being may be detrimental to hospitality organizations'

health-related costs (Gordon et al., 2019) and managers' dissatisfaction with their job and/or career can make it more difficult for organizations to retain these skilled employees (Trompe and Blomme, 2012), who are more expensive to replace. Therefore, it is necessary to understand whether the relationships among recovery experience, well-being, and subjective career success fluctuate based on an employee's workaholism tendency so that organizations can better help employees, especially managers, obtain recovery.

In summary, under the lens of the effort-recovery and conservation of resources theories, the objectives of this research were to understand how the recovery experience from days off influences hospitality managers' subjective career success and to explore the moderating role of workaholism in the relationship between recovery experience and well-being and the relationship between recovery experience and subjective career success. This research helps answer Sonnentag et al.'s (2017) call for more research on recovery, but more importantly helps fill the gap on recovery for those who do not work a typical Monday through Friday 9:00am to 5:00pm schedule and those who identify as workaholics. The study extends the work on the effort-recovery model (Meijman and Mulder, 1998) by considering the managerial domain in terms of effects on managers' well-being and subjective career success, which is important as managers are often understudied in hospitality yet are an integral component to a successful operation (Shi & Gordon, 2020). Furthermore, it also contributes to the academic body of knowledge on recovery by considering workaholism as an individual trait difference given not everyone may view recovery experience's impact on well-being and subjective career success in the same way.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Recovery experience

Exerting efforts in the workplace and responding to job demands can exhaust individuals' resources (Sonnentag and Natter, 2004). Recovery experience from work is a process that reduces or eliminates the strains caused by job demands (Sonnentag et al., 2008). It is defined as "an individual's perception that the activity he or she pursues helps in restoring his or her resource" (Sonnentag and Natter, 2004, p. 368). Meijman and Mulder's (1998) effort-recovery model posits that "effort expenditure is associated with short-term physiological and psychological costs. These costs are reversible, since after a shorter or longer break from work (effort) the psychobiological systems will stabilize to a baseline level, so called recovery" (Tromp and Blomme, 2012, p. 1214). Based on this model, recovery helps individuals to return to the pre-stressor level and people can deal with a high workload if they are able to recover from it (Tromp and Blomme, 2012). However, if individuals cannot obtain sufficient recovery, it may cause accumulative strains and lead to negative influences on well-being (Sianoja et al., 2016). The conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989) can also be used to explain the detrimental influence of insufficient recovery on well-being. According to this theory, people strive to obtain and maintain resources. The loss of their resources results in the increasing of stress, which in turn threatens their well-being.

Drawing upon the effort-recovery model and COR, Sonnentag and Fritz (2007) mentioned that recovery experience can be used to understand how specific types of off-job activities are related to well-being. The recovery process is the opposite of the strain process (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007) and is accomplished through recovery experiences. Recovery experiences encompass four aspects: control during leisure time, psychological detachment, relaxation, and mastery experience, which were developed by Sonnentag and Fritz (2007) to measure recovery experience. Psychological detachment is defined as "the absence of

something (i.e., not thinking about one's job during nonwork time) and implies "letting go" of work-related thoughts and activities" (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2015, p. 574). Many studies have shown the particular importance of psychological detachment. For example, Sonnentag and Fritz (2007) found a strong association between psychological detachment and health complaints (r = –.47), emotional exhaustion (r = –.56), and need for recovery (r = –.52). Relaxation is a process that is related to leisure activities, such as taking a walk or listening to music, that can help people to relax their bodies and minds (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007). Empirical evidence suggests that relaxation during the weekend is positively related to positive affect at the conclusion of the weekend (Fritz, Sonnentag, et al., 2010). Mastery experiences refer to the activities that can help individuals to increase competency and self-efficacy, such as learning a new language and taking up a hobby. For example, Fritz and Sonnentag (2006) found that pursuing activities to expand the horizon and learning new things during vacation was negatively associated with exhaustion upon employees' return to work. Sonnentag et al. (2008) found that mastery experiences during evening hours are positively associated with morning positive activation. Control during leisure time is defined as the degree to which an individual can decide when and how to pursue activities to reduce pressures from work during off-work time (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007). Control acts as an external source that stimulates recovery from job demands during off-work time (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007).

2.2. Recovery experience and well-being

Dodge et al. (2012) proposed the construct of well-being as "the balance point between an individual's physical, psychological, and social resource pool and the physical, psychological, and social challenges faced" (p. 230). Subjective well-being includes moods and emotions otherwise known as affect (Diener et al., 1999) or mental well-being. Physical

well-being includes aspects such as the extent someone feels energetic or tired, feels tense, has bodily ailments, has aches or pains, suffers from a chronic illness, etc. (Arjona-Fuentes et al., 2019; de Bloom et al., 2012). In this study, well-being is operationalized by using subjective well-being and physical well-being.

Recovery from days off has been found to promote individuals' affect (Fritz, Sonnentag, et al., 2010). Specifically, Fritz, Sonnentag, et al. (2010) found that having enough relaxation during the weekend promotes positive affect and reduces negative affect. A diary study showed that low psychological detachment from work predicts morning negative affect and fatigue, and mastery experience during evening hours is positively associated with morning positive affect (Sonnentag et al., 2008). Balk et al. (2019) found that mental detachment as a form of recovery was positively related to physical health and mental well-being. Martens et al. (1999) examined different types of flexible work, such as employees with a contract of limited duration, on-call employees, employees with irregular working hours, and employees who work at least ten hours per day. They found that employees who endure flexible work schedules have problems recovering from job stress and have more complaints about subjective health and well-being. However, recovery as facilitated through recovery experiences can improve physical and mental health (Balk et al., 2019). Based on the effort-recovery theory, if people recover from work-related efforts and stress, particularly through the recovery experiences of control during leisure time, psychological detachment, relaxation, and mastery experience (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007), they will positively impact their mental and physical well-being. Furthermore, according to COR, as people are able to accumulate and preserve resources, such as recovery, their well-being will benefit. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Recovery experience will be positively related to hospitality managers' well-being.

2.3. Recovery experience and subjective career success

The effort-recovery model (Meijman and Mulder, 1998) also provides an overarching framework to understand the relationship between recovery and subjective career success. The model states that people actively avoid passive exposure by adopting a certain work procedure. The details of the procedure depend on the characteristics of job demands, decision latitude, level of the skills, and employees' psychophysiological state (Meijman and Mulder, 1998). If employees experience high work demand (e.g., high workload) and employees cannot handle the negative work situations, the process of recovery will be problematic. Furthermore, negative effects, such as health problems and low satisfaction about work may occur (Balk et al., 2019; Meijman and Mulder, 1998). Lack of recovery may impact short-term outcomes such as satisfaction with a job or long-term outcomes such as satisfaction with a career especially if the lack of recovery is persistent. Thus, subjective career success, which encompasses both satisfaction with one's job and satisfaction with one's career, may be influenced.

Career success is defined as "the positive psychological or work-related outcomes or achievements one has accumulated as a result of one's work experiences" (Judge et al., 1995, p. 486). Career success includes objective components and subjective components (Judge et al., 1995). Objective career success means the success of someone's career is judged by others or society's standards, such as income, promotion, and career mobility (Gattiker and Larwood, 1988). However, even successful professionals and managers (success is defined by the society by using society standards) may view their careers as failures because of the loss of affiliative satisfaction and the difficulty to find meaning from daily activities (Korman

et al., 1981). Therefore, subjective components, such as job satisfaction and career satisfaction, have been used to define career success as well (Judge et al., 1995; Korman et al., 1981). Subjective career success refers to individuals' subjective appraisal and evaluation toward their overall career (Judge et al., 1995). It is conceptualized as job satisfaction and career satisfaction (Judge et al., 1995). This study operationalizes career success from the subjective perspective. Career satisfaction refers to an individual's overall affective orientation toward his or her career (Gattiker and Larwood, 1988). According to Joo and Lee (2017), career satisfaction has been used to measure a person's satisfaction with his long-term career and as such is used as a representation for perceived quality of work life. Job satisfaction is defined as an individual's evaluative judgment about his or her work or work conditions and is an evaluation of an immediate work situation compared to career satisfaction, which is an evaluation of one's whole career (Weiss, 2002). Furthermore, Gattiker and Larwook (1988) indicated that career satisfaction and job satisfaction are different; satisfaction with the career does not mean satisfaction with his or her work or working conditions. For example, a hospitality manager may be satisfied about his career as a whole and evaluate it positively but could be in a current position that is not satisfactory and while his current job satisfaction evaluation may be low, career satisfaction may still be high.

According to the effort-recovery theory, an individual needs to recover from work inputs such that the person can return to the pre-work input level. Given that recovery can take the form of short-term breaks throughout the day or longer-term periods such as weekends and vacations (Tromp and Blomme, 2012), recovery can impact a person's feelings about both a current position (job satisfaction) as well as his career as a whole (career satisfaction). Engaging in the recovery experiences of control during leisure time, psychological detachment, relaxation, and mastery experience (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007) can be beneficial to both job satisfaction and career satisfaction. For example, a person may

engage in psychological detachment from daily work by taking a walk during lunch or engaging in activities on their days off such as exercising, spending time with friends and family, or reading, which can help someone recover in the short-term and help him feel more satisfied with a current job. Someone who plays an instrument or who plays a sport as a way to relax may gain recovery from this activity during their days off but continues this practice for many years throughout the span of their career despite moving from position to position as his career advances. While these types of recovery experiences may not bring equal impacts on both satisfaction with a job and with a career, it may be that they each immediately impact job satisfaction as well as impart a more sustained satisfaction with a career. Thus, it is expected that recovery experience is positively associated with subjective career success, represented as job satisfaction as a measurement of the immediate work positions and career satisfaction as a measurement of the long-term career trajectory, and as such the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 2a: Recovery experience will be positively related to hospitality managers' job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2b: Recovery experience will be positively related to hospitality managers' career satisfaction.

2.4. Moderating effects of workaholism

Although recovery experience has been shown to positively influence well-being and subjective career success, the relationships might vary with the influence of the workaholism trait as recovery experiences may not have the same effects for all types of employees. Schaufeli, Shimazu, et al. (2009) defined workaholism as "the tendency to work excessively hard (the behavioral dimension) and being obsessed with work (the cognitive dimension),

which manifests itself in working compulsively" (p. 322). People work longer hours for many reasons. Instead of being motivated by external reasons, such as financial pressure or family conflict, those higher in workaholism aka "workaholics" are motivated by inner drive (Clark et al., 2016; Sánchez-Medina et al., 2019; Schaufeli, Shimazu, et al., 2009; Spence and Robbins, 1992). Spence and Robbins (1992) uncovered three sub-groups of workaholics including workaholics who are above average in work involvement and drive but below average in enjoyment, work enthusiasts who are above average on involvement and enjoyment but below average on drive, and enthusiastic workaholics who are above average in involvement, enjoyment, and drive. Ng et al. (2007) summarized two core characteristics of workaholism which are an internal drive to work and time spent working at the expense of other important life roles. Workaholics in general have the characteristics of spending a great deal of time on work activities, giving up family or personal related activities, thinking about work during non-work time, and working excessively hard beyond the requirements of their organizations and job responsibilities (Scottl et al., 1997). Schaufeli, Shimazu, et al. (2009) operationalized workaholism by using working excessively and working compulsively to denote the two core characteristics of workaholism from Ng et al. (2007). Working excessively captures the hard working characteristic of workaholics and working compulsively captures workaholics' obsession with work. Workaholics are also described as individuals who are high in workaholism characteristics, such as neglecting personal lives; while non-workaholics are described as individuals who are low in workaholism, meaning that they care about detaching themselves from work (Bakker et al., 2013). In Bakker et al. (2013), workaholics / non-workaholics and individuals who are high in workaholism / low in workaholism were used interchangbly and represented the same meanings.

Under the umbrella of the effort-recovery and COR theories, this study examines the psychological process from recovery experience to well-being such that the recovery

experience and well-being relationship is stronger for people who are higher in workaholism than for people who are lower in workaholism. Because those who are higher in workaholism do not replenish their resources at the same rate as those who are lower in workaholism or who are non-workaholics or even suffer from a constant lack of resources, it may be more important for them to actively seek out and engage in recovery experiences in order to recoup resources expended while working. Accumulating findings show that people who are higher in workaholism have a relatively lower positive subjective well-being. A diary study found that working during off-work time (e.g., evening) has a negative relationship with evening positive affect, vigor before going to bed, and the state of achieving recovery for those high in workaholism (Bakker et al., 2013). The study also found that doing non-work related activities, such as social and physical activities, has a positive relationship with evening positive affect and the state of being recovered for people who are high in workaholism. Regarding physical health, previous studies found that workaholism can produce poorer mental health and increased physical health problems because the potential career success is based on the foundation of sacrificing health (Ng et al., 2007). Balk et al. (2019) suggested that mental detachment as a form of recovery could help people fight obsessive passion which occurs when they "experience an uncontrollable urge to engage in an activity [that] ultimately results in poor health" (p. 1834), and for people high in workaholism, work may be an obsessive passion.

On the other hand, non-workaholics may be better able to detach from work, both mentally and physically, and find ways to engage in recovery and thus, balance their work and non-work lives, which can lead to higher well-being (Tromp & Bomme, 2012). This ability keep from consistently depleting their resources may mean that the impact of recovery on their well-being is not as great because they are better able to maintain their resource baseline (Hobfoll, 1989). In addition, by not constantly working, they have time to focus on

other aspects that can bring them positive well-being such as eating healthy, building and sustaining relationships outside of work, spiritual endeavors, etc. Therefore, for those who are higher in workaholism, replenishing resources through recovery experiences may be more important to produce positive affect, reduce negative affect, and improve physical well-being because they constantly consume resources due to their workaholic tendencies and forgo other well-being initiatives in favor of working. Given this, the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Workaholism will moderate the recovery experience – well-being relationship, such that the relationship will be stronger for hospitality managers high (versus low) in workaholism.

To further provide insight into the moderating role of the workaholism trait, the recovery experience to subjective career success is also examined. According to the theoretical model of the antecedents, dimensions, and consequences of workaholism (Ng et al., 2007), workaholics are more satisfied with their jobs and careers because of the enjoyment of work. This corroborates Spence and Robbins' (1992) finding that their sub-groups of workaholics and work enthusiasts in terms of higher job involvement, of which one of the measures is deriving satisfaction in life from one's job. In addition to Ng et al. (2007), other more recent studies support those higher in workaholism obtaining enjoyment from work. Burke (2001) found that joy in work, one of the characteristics of workaholics, is positively related to job satisfaction, future career prospects, and career satisfaction. Burke et al. (2008) also found workaholics have a higher job satisfaction and career satisfaction. Sánchez-Medina et al., (2019) studied tourism entrepreneurs' workaholism and proposed that driveness, a facet of workaholism, would have a positive impact on turnover, but did not find support for the direct relationship, instead finding support for enjoyment with work acting as a mediator for the relationship. This suggests that if those high in workaholism find

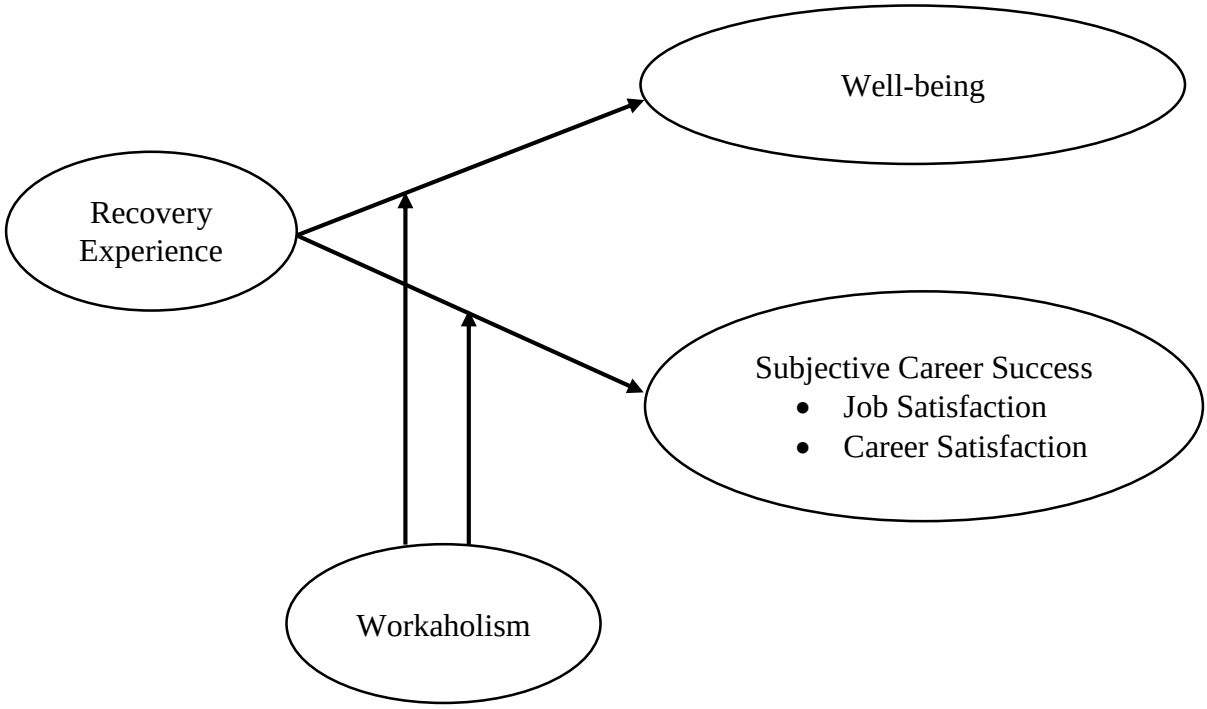
enjoyment in work, they may obtain job satisfaction and career satisfaction, as was stated by Burke (2006), without the need for non-work antecedents, such as psychologically detaching from work, leading to this satisfaction. However, for those who are low in workaholism, consistently engaging in recovery experiences is a way for them to replenish the resources they expend through work, and thus, not obtaining sufficient recovery would cause them to feel less satisfied with their jobs and careers. If, like those high in workaholism, they were constantly working and expending resources, they may start to resent their jobs which may lead them to start psychologically detaching from work and eventually physically detach from work. Therefore, it is proposed that recouping lost resources through the recovery experience for those low in workaholism or who are non-workaholics is more important than it is for those high in workaholism in order to achieve subjective career success, and as such, the following hypotheses are purported:

Hypothesis 4a: Workaholism will moderate the recovery experience – job satisfaction relationship, such that the relationship will be stronger for hospitality managers low (versus high) in workaholism.

Hypothesis 4b: Workaholism will moderate the recovery experience – career satisfaction relationship, such that the relationship will be stronger for hospitality managers low (versus high) in workaholism.

Figure 1 presents a conceptual model of the relationships being proposed in this study.

Figure 1. Conceptual Model



3. Methodology

3.1. Sample and procedure

Participants were those who are in salary-paid managerial positions in hospitality, including the hotel industry, foodservice industry, airline industry, cruise industry, and tourism industry in the United States. In order to address common method bias, procedural remedies recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003) were used in the major study.

Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) was used for the data collection in the major study. In MTurk, the location for participants was set as the United States and salary-paid managers in hospitality organizations were sought. Participants were asked to do the survey at two time points. According to Podsakoff et al. (2003), measuring predictors and dependent variables at the same time may produce artifactual covariation. Therefore, the independent variable (recovery experience), the moderator (workaholism), control variable (workload), and demographic information were measured at Time 1. The dependent variables of job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and well-being were measured at Time 2, which allowed for

the survey items to be temporally split across two surveys. In accordance to previous studies, one week between Time 1 and Time 2 was applied (Byrne et al., 2016). Two qualification questions were asked before participants were taken to the survey. The first asked the participants to choose from a list of 20 industries to answer the question of "Which industry are you currently working in?". Only those who chose hotel industry, foodservice industry, airline industry, cruise industry, or tourism industry were asked the second qualification question asking them to answer if they were in salaried managerial positions. Only the ones who selected 'Yes' moved on to the survey. The same qualification questions were used at Time 2 in order to further ensure that the participants were from the industries of interest for the study.

To avoid or eliminate the possibilities of careless response, attention check items were placed in the survey as suggested by Meade and Craig (2012). For example, recovery experience was measured by using a 16-item scale with five-point Likert scale. An attention check question of "For this question, please select 'Agree'" was added and mixed with the items used to measure recovery experience. The same attention check procedure was used in the Time 2 survey with an item added to the career satisfaction items.

A total of 768 participants were qualified and passed the attention check questions. Among these 768 participants, 626 participated in the second survey. Of the 626 participants, 329 passed the qualification and attention check questions. After matching and dropping the participants with missing information, the final sample size was 302. MTurk workers who failed the qualification questions and attention check questions were not compensated. MTurk workers who qualified and successfully completed the survey at Time 1 were compensated $0.50 and $0.75 for completing the survey at Time 2 resulting in a total of $1.25 for both surveys.

3.2. Measures

The survey at Time 1 included recovery experience, workaholism, job demands, and demographic information. Recovery experience was assessed using a 16-item scale developed by Sonnentag and Fritz (2007). The scale captures the four aspects of recovery experience, including "psychological detachment," "mastery experience," "relaxation," and "control during leisure time." The scale of Sonnentag and Fritz (2007) is one of the most cited scales and has been used by studies to examine hospitality employees' recovery experience from their days off or holidays (e.g., Chen et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2016). A sample item is, "I don't think about work at all during my days off" (Cronbach's alpha = .91). Workaholism was measured using a 10-item scale developed by (Schaufeli, Shimazu, et al., 2009). The scale of Schaufeli, Shimazu, et al. (2009) was developed and validated by using both European (The Netherlands) and Asian (Japan) samples. Hence, the scale may have less issues in cultural bias. The scale was also used to test workaholism among hospitality employees who are in managerial positions in Macau, China and the scale showed both reliability and validity (Pan, 2018). A sample item is, " I feel obliged to work hard, even when it is not enjoyable" (Cronbach's alpha = .78).

Control variables. Job demands are found to be negatively related to employees' well-being (Bakker et al., 2014), career satisfaction (Ren et al., 2013), and job satisfaction (Chiang et al., 2014). In this study, workload was used to measure job demands. It was measured using an 8-item scale from Janssen (2001). A sample item is "In general, I have to work fast" (Cronbach's alpha = .85). Additionally, age, gender, education, and domestic responsibilities (i.e., responsibilities for taking care of family or kids) were used as control variables. According to Judge et al. (1995), demographics, including age, gender, education, and family responsibility all influence employees' subjective career success. For example, females are found to be more easily satisfied with their careers than males do (Judge et al.,

1995; Ng et al., 2005). Age and education may influence employees' subjective career success, as order people and people with a higher level of education may have a higher level of expectations on achievements about their job and career than younger people (Judge et al., 1995). Demographic information, such as age, gender, education, and domestic responsibility were also found to influence employees' wellbeing (Pinquart and Sörensen, 2000; Shmotkin, 1990).

The survey at Time 2 included subjective career success and well-being. Well-being was adopted from the 8-item scale to capture employees' physical and subjective well-being from de Bloom et al. (2012). Sample items are "I generally feel satisfied about my days" and "In general, I feel physically fatigued" (Cronbach's alpha = .78).

Subjective career success was measured by using job satisfaction and career satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using a 5-item scale developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). A sample item is, "I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job" (Cronbach's alpha = .91). Career satisfaction was assessed using a 5-item scale (Greenhaus et al., 1990). A sample item is, "I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals" (Cronbach's alpha = .90). Greenhaus et al.'s (1990) scale was chosen as it has been widely used in studies related to hospitality management and showed acceptable reliability and validity (e.g., Kong et al., 2012).

All variables in Time 1 and Time 2 were measured on a five-point Likert scale and negative items were reverse coded for analysis. Demographic variables included: gender, age, highest completed education, industry, responsibility for taking care of kids, and responsibility for taking care of family (such as parents).

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with the maximum likelihood method of estimation was used to test the convergent and discriminant validity. The factor loadings for the constructs of recovery experience, workaholism, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, well-

being, and workload were significant at the .001 level. All five constructs displayed good construct validity, as indicated from the CFA indices for recovery experience ($\chi^2 = 733.60, Df = 104;\ RMSEA = .07, CFI = .90, TLI = .90$), career satisfaction ($\chi^2 = 10.35, Df = 5;\ RMSEA = .06, CFI = .99, TLI = .98$), job satisfaction ($\chi^2 = 109.89, Df = 5;\ RMSEA = .01, CFI = .98, TLI = .92$), wellbeing ($\chi^2 = 351.93, Df = 20;\ RMSEA = .07, CFI = .90, TLI = .90$), workaholism ($\chi^2 = 133.71, Df = 35;\ RMSEA = .07, CFI = .96, TLI = .94$), and workload ($\chi^2 = 129.49, Df = 20;\ RMSEA = .08, CFI = .91, TLI = .92$). The composite reliability values for recovery experience, workaholism, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, wellbeing, and workload are .92, .76, .83, .93, .81, and .86, which are all above .70. The average variance extracted values are .53, .52, .63, .73, .51, and .52, which are all above .50. These indicate that both convergent and discriminant validity were met.

Correlations were run to check that the relationships between the variables exist and the relationships between the variables performed as expected. For example, recovery experience has a positive relationship with job satisfaction (r = .38) and career satisfaction (r = .41). Table 1 outlines the means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations among the variables.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables

	Mean	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**
1. recovery	3.48	.69										
2. workload	3.38	.84	.12*									
3. workaholism	3.68	.64	.18**	.19*								
4. job	3.33	.73	.38*	.12*	.12*							
5. career	3.59	.90	.41***	.18**	.15*	.76***						
6. well-being	3.48	.67	.13*	–.24***	.06	.54***	.52***					
7. gender	.49	.51	–.01	–.01	.21*	–.01	–.02	–.14*				
8. education	3.79	.97	.14*	.24***	–.07	.23***	.28***	.05	–.02			
9. age	2.35	.86	.02	–.09	.11	.05	–.03	.05	–.03	–.03		
10. family	.62	.49	–.20***	–.29*	–.05	–.18**	–.16**	.10	.05	–.19**	.06	
11. kids	.41	.49	–.06	–.10	–.07	–.14*	–.12*	.02	–.02	–.17	–.11	.45***

Note.

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Job = job satisfaction; career = career satisfaction; family = responsible for taking care of family; kids = responsible for taking care of kids

4. Results

4.1. Participants

The majority of the participants were male (52%) and were between age 25 and 34 (52.6%). Almost half hold bachelor's degrees (49.3%) and 41.4% work in the hotel industry; there were no participants from the cruise industry. While the majority of the participants have responsibilities to take care of kids (58.9%), the majority does not take care of other family members (60.9%). Table 2 shows the demographics of the participants.

Table 2. Participant profile

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	157	52%
	Female	143	47.4%
	Prefer not to say	2	0.7%
Age	18-24	36	11.9%
	25-34	159	52.6%
	35-44	77	25.5%
	45-54	24	7.9%
	55-64	4	1.3%
	65 and over	1	0.3%
Education	Some high school	1	0.3%
	High school diploma or equivalent	48	15.9%
	Associate's degree	50	16.6%
	Bachelor's degree	149	49.3%
	Master's degree	50	16.6%
	Doctoral or professional degree	4	1.3%
Industry	Airline industry	46	15.2%
	Foodservice industry	95	31.5%
	Hotel industry	125	41.4%
	Tourism industry	36	11.9%
Responsible for taking care of kids	Yes	178	58.9%
	No	122	40.4%
Responsible for taking care of family	Yes	114	37.7%
	No	184	60.9%

Note.
gender was coded as a dichotomous variable (0 = male, 1 = female, 2 = prefer not to say), responsibility of taking care of kids was coded as a dichotomous variable (0 = yes and 1 = no) and responsibility of taking care of family was coded as a dichotomous variable (0 = yes and 1= no).

4.2. Hypotheses testing

To test the hypotheses, multiple regression analysis was employed. Hypotheses 3, 4a, and 4b were tested with an interaction effect between workaholism and recovery on well-being, job satisfaction, and career satisfaction, respectively. Hypothesis 1 stated that there is a positive relationship between recovery experience and well-being. We firstly tested the pure relationship between recovery experience and wellbeing. The result shows that the relationship is positive (b = .13, p < .05). Model 1 in table 3 shows that there is a positive relationship between recovery experience and well-being after controlling for workload and relevant demographics (b = .15 p < .001), supporting hypotheses 1. Hypotheses 3 stated that workaholism moderates the relationship between recovery experience well-being. Model 2 in table 3 illustrates that the interaction between recovery and workaholism on well-being is not significant (p = *ns*.). Table 3 reports the results of these hypotheses testing.

Table 3. Regression results for hypotheses H1 and H3 testing

Variables	**Well-being**	
	Model 1	Model 2
Intercept	3.21 (.20)***	3.21 (.20)***
Recovery experience	.15 (.06)***	.12 (.06) *
Workload	–.02 (.05)***	–.23 (.05)*
Age	.01 (.04)	.00 (.04)
Gender	.17 (.07)**	.21 (.07)
Education	.07 (.04)*	.08 (.04)*
Kid responsibility	–.04 (.09)	–.03 (.09)
Family responsibility	–.13 (.09)	.13 (.09)
Workaholism		.15 (.06)*
Recovery*Workaholism		.02 (.07)
ΔR^2		.01
R^2	.12	.13
F	5.41***	4.87***

Note.
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Hypothesis 2a stated that there is a positive relationship between recovery experience and job satisfaction and hypothesis 2b stated there is a positive relationship between recovery

experience and career satisfaction. Before testing hypothesis 2a, we ran the regression model with only recovery experience and job satisfaction. There is a positive relationship between recovery experience and job satisfaction (b = .48, p < .001). After controlling for workload and relevant demographics, the model 1 in table 4 shows that there is a positive relationship between recovery experience and job satisfaction (b = .44, p < .001), supporting hypotheses 2a. Further, when testing hypothesis 2b, we firstly tested the relationships between recovery experience and career satisfaction without the control variables (b = .52, p < .001). After controlling for workload and demographics differences, the model 3 in table 4 shows that the more recovery experience the participants obtain, the higher their career satisfaction is (b = .48, p < .001), supporting hypothesis 2b.

Table 4. Regression results for hypotheses H2a, H2b, H4a, & H4b

Variables	**Job Satisfaction**		**Career Satisfaction**	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Intercept	3.06 (.25)***	3.06 (.25)***	3.00 (.25)***	3.01 (.25)***
Recovery experience	.44 (.07)***	.38 (.07) ***	.48 (.07)***	.42(.07)***
Workload	–.02 (.06)	–.02 (.06)***	.08 (.06)	.07(.06)
Age	.05 (.05)	.05 (.05)	–.03 (.06)	–.04(.06)
Gender	.05 (.09)	.04 (.09)	.02 (.09)	.02(.10)
Education	.14 (.05)***	.13 (.05)**	.19 (.05)***	.19(.05)
Kid responsibility	–.10 (.11)	–.10 (.10)	–.11 (.11)	–.10(.11)
Family responsibility	–.02 (.11)	.01(.10)	–.01 (.11)	.01 (.11)
Workaholism		.12 (.08)		.17(.08)
Recovery*Workaholism		.24 (.09)**		.17(.09)*
ΔR^2		.03		.02
R^2	.19	.22	.23	.25
F	9.78***	8.70***	12.18***	9.36***

Note.
*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Hypotheses 4a & 4b stated that workaholism moderates the relationship between recovery experience and job satisfaction (4a) and career satisfaction (4b). Model 2 in table 4 illustrates that the interaction between recovery and workaholism job satisfaction is

significant ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $b = .24$, $p < .01$). Adding the interaction of recovery experience and workaholism explained an additional 3% of the variances in job satisfaction. Model 4 shows that the interaction on career satisfaction is significant ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $b = .17$, $p < .05$). Beyond the variance counted by recovery experience and control variables, the interaction effects between recovery experience and workaholism explained an additional 2% variance in career satisfaction.

Furthermore, the effects of recovery experience on job satisfaction were compared for participants who are lower in workaholism (–1 *SD*) and higher in workaholism (+1 *SD*) where the determination for low and high followed the same process of using standard deviation from the mean as Bakker et al. (2013) did in their study on workaholism to determine who was low in workaholism and who was high in workaholism. The positive relationship between recovery experience and job satisfaction is stronger for the employees who are higher in workaholism ($b = .39$) with CI [.23, .55] than the employees who are lower in workaholism ($b = .37$) with CI [.21, .53]. Figure 2 shows the interaction of recovery and workaholism on job satisfaction. For the role of workaholism on recovery – career satisfaction relationship, the results show that the positive relationship is stronger for participants who are higher in workaholism ($b = .46$) with CI [.31, .62] than those who are lower in workaholism ($b = .37$) with CI [.21, .54]. The results show the opposite effect for H4a and H4b. Figure 3 shows the interaction of recovery experience and workaholism on career satisfaction.

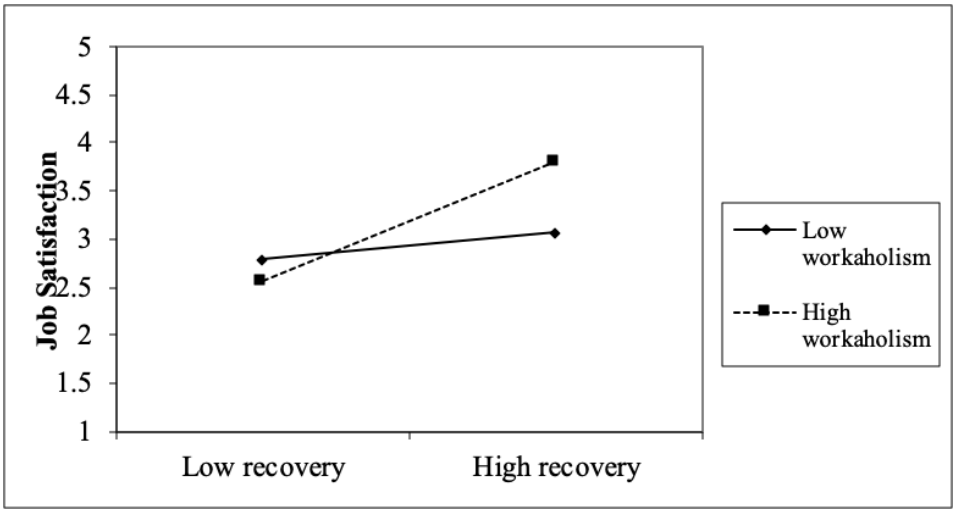


Figure 2. The interaction of recovery experience and workaholism on job satisfaction

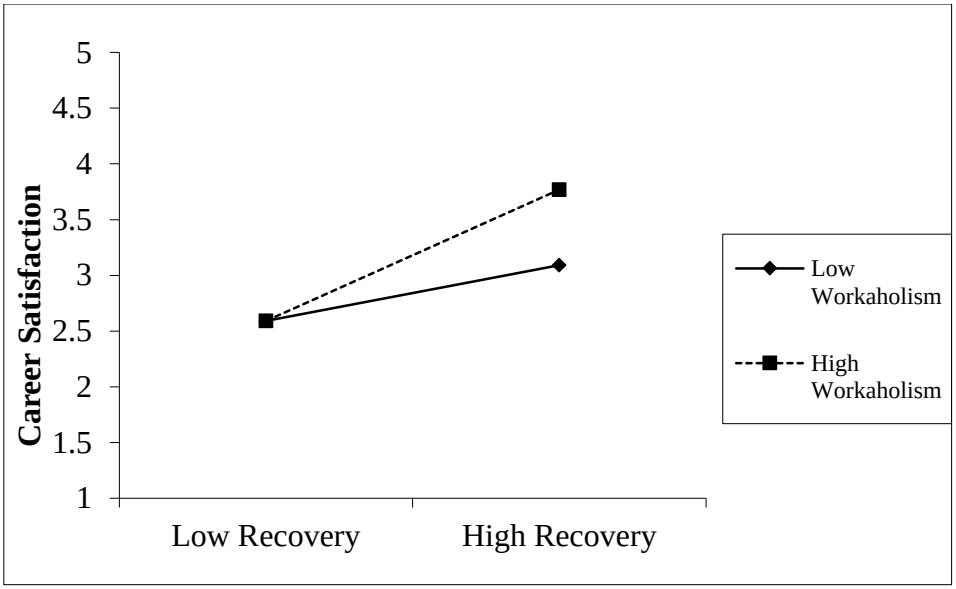


Figure 3. The interaction of recovery experience and workaholism on career satisfaction

5. Discussion

This study explored and tested the influences of recovery experience and workaholism on subjective career success and well-being of hospitality managers. The data from the sample supported three of the initial hypotheses. The hypothesis that workaholism would moderate the relationship between recovery experience and well-being was not supported, which suggests that recovery as a mechanism for well-being is considered important regardless of level of workaholism. While the methods in which people recover

vary, this provides evidence that hospitality managers who are higher in workaholism perceive recovery to be a key element to maintain their well-being. According to Clark et al. (2016), workaholics may seek out work with higher job demands, which is one of the characteristics of the hospitality industry. Therefore, managers who have workaholic tendencies may be attracted to the hospitality industry and enter it with the understanding they will be working longer hours, varying schedules, dealing with work issues during time off, etc. and as such, may make a greater effort to ensure they obtain recovery in order to not suffer ailments such as burnout, physical exhaustion, mental strain, etc. from work demands. Furthermore, there is no consensus on whether workaholics derive enjoyment, an aspect of positive mental well-being, from work as researchers have supported both a lack of enjoyment (Spence and Robbins, 1992) and much enjoyment (Burke, 2001; Clark et al., 2016; Ng et al., 2007; Sánchez-Medina et al., 2019). Again, those in hospitality generally know the attributes of the industry when they assume management positions, particularly in operations, and as such, those who are higher in workaholism may not consider workaholism to be a negative trait and in fact, may derive happiness from their workaholic ways. In addition, they may even consider some facets of their work not to hinder their recovery, such as when they have to answer emails or perform administrative tasks from home, and therefore, not negatively impact their well-being. While those high in workaholism who work standard schedules in industries with Monday through Friday 9am to 5pm hours tend to view working at home as a negative and depleting of their resources, hospitality managers who are higher in workaholism may align more with the non-workaholics of other industries who view working during off hours to be a positive experience to the point they gain happiness (Bakker et al., 2013). This suggests further research into the workaholism trait of those in hospitality and other service-related industries should be compared with those in industries with standard hours.

The hypothesis that the relationship between recovery experience and job satisfaction would be stronger for those hospitality managers who were low in workaholism and the hypothesis that the relationship between recovery experience and career satisfaction would be stronger for those managers who are low in workaholism both turned out to be the opposite, which indicates that recovery is perceived to be more impactful on job satisfaction and career satisfaction for those hospitality managers who are high in workaholism. This finding may be due to some perceiving job satisfaction, and by extension career satisfaction, as a measurement of well-being. Diener et al. (1999) stated that subjective well-being is not a single specific construct and can cover affect, life satisfaction, and domain satisfaction. One of the types of domain satisfaction is job satisfaction, so it is possible that hospitality managers who are higher in workaholism perceive job satisfaction to be a measure of their well-being and by extension, feel that recovery experiences are important to their job satisfaction. Another possible explanation for the opposite findings is that those who are high in workaholism may view recovery experiences as important non-work resources necessary to achieve satisfaction more so than those who are low in workaholism or who are non-workaholics who may view another non-work resource as more important such as social support. For example, if those who are high in workaholism forgo non-work resources such as attending family events, socializing with friends, going to museums or concerts, etc. on a regular basis in place of work, then the time they do dedicate to recovery may either be spent doing solo activities such as playing an instrument or working out or they may devote larger spans of time less frequently with activities involving others which may cause them to place more importance on these to recoup resources expended at work in the recovery to subjective career success relationship. Whereas those who are low in workaholism or who are non-workaholics may engage in frequent less intense non-work resources such as spending time with friends, attending kids' school events, volunteering in the community, etc. and thus,

these are less impactful on their subjective career success because they continually replenish the expended resources. Thus, the frequency and intensity of the activities should be studied in future studies on the moderating role of workaholism.

5.1 Theoretical contributions

Theoretically, this study fulfills several calls by Sonnentag et al.'s (2017) review article regarding recovery studies. Firstly, different from most of the previous research on recovery that has been conducted in a more standard working environment, this study focuses on hospitality managers, who tend to work in non-standard arrangements due to the characteristics of the industry, and as such expands on the domains for applying the effort-recovery model (Meijman and Mulder, 1998). The finding that recovery experience positively impacts well-being for hospitality managers shows that despite the characteristics of high job demands, long hours, varying schedules, emotional labor, balancing employee and guest needs, etc. that these managers encounter on a daily basis at work, they still feel they benefit from recovery during their days off. This supplements the COR theory in that managers in these non-standard work environments can accumulate and utilize recovery experiences as a resource to maintain their well-being. Secondly, not all recovery activities and experience are equally important to every employee. This study considers the individual difference, workaholism, to explore the relationship between recovery experience and well-being. In this study, both the positive and negative aspects of workaholism are considered and the different influences of workaholism on well-being and subjective career success are explored.

Thirdly, beyond examining the recovery experience – well-being relationship, this study adopted the effort-recovery model (Meijman and Mulder, 1998) and extended the recovery experience in the domain of managerial-level employees' subjective career success. This study found that the recovery has a positive relationship with hospitality managers'

subjective career success, measured by job satisfaction and career satisfaction. Contrary to what was hypothesized, the positive relationship between recovery experience and job satisfaction and recovery experience and career satisfaction are stronger for employees who are higher in workaholism than those are lower in workaholism. It is possible that career satisfaction is an accumulative long-term result from satisfaction about multiple positions (Judge et al., 1995) given that it spans the whole of one's career as a measure of perceived quality of work life (Joo and Lee, 2017). Job satisfaction is more of a short-term construct especially because it also includes affective components (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Furthermore, job satisfaction has been used to measure well-being as a satisfaction domain variable, so workaholics may perceive the recovery – job satisfaction relationship to actually be a recovery – well-being relationships. In addition, in the long term, recovery may influence workaholics' satisfaction with their careers because career goals may not only be limited to work, but also include goals related to individuals' well-being, advancement opportunities, career development, etc. Sánchez-Medina et al. (2019) noted that workaholism may negatively impact a person's personal and work satisfaction and as such, recovery may be a way to alleviate this negative influence, especially for those who perceive their workaholism to be a negative trait.

While recovery experience was found to be positively significantly related to well-being as per the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), workaholism was not found to moderate this relationship suggesting that contrary to previous findings, hospitality manager workaholics feel they are obtaining enough recovery from work and it is not impacting their well-being. They may feel that even if they are working during off-work hours, their recovery and well-being are not negatively impacted because they are still away from the busyness and stress of the operation, given that is a different environment than a standard office work environment in which other studies may have been conducted. These managers may consider these

changes in environment and getting small doses of recovery as elements of control during leisure time, a type of recovery experience (Sonnentag and Fritz, 2007). Therefore, it may be enough to return them to their pre-stress level as per the effort-recovery model (Meijman and Mulder, 1998) and as such, the types of recovery experiences that lead to recovery may be different for those working in non-standard industries. In addition, if these workaholic managers are attracted to the hospitality industry due to the high-volume atmosphere, serving employees and guests, and handling different issues every day, the industry's characteristics serve to reinforce their workaholic behavior (Clark et al., 2016) which may help them to continue to thrive and as such, not suffer from poor well-being.

5.2 Managerial implications

This study shows that workaholics may not need more recovery to maintain their well-being than non-workaholics in the hospitality industry. Based on this result, organizations may not need to provide different structured well-being programs for workaholics and non-workaholics, but rather ensure that recovery efforts are made for all employees to achieve optimal well-being given that recovery experience does positively impact well-being. Promoting a climate where breaks are encouraged and a culture that promotes work-life balance will help all employees seek recovery opportunities and not feel guilty for doing so. Ensuring that employees have a welcoming space for breaks that has comfortable seating, places for socializing and quiet reflection, a welcoming décor, etc. can help employees feel "more at home" at work. Too often employee breakrooms are the most neglected part of a hospitality workplace given that efforts are put into guest spaces at the expense of employee spaces, yet employees spend long periods of time at work.

Organizations need to identify who their workaholics are and of these people, who thrives as a workaholic and who wishes to stop being a workaholic. This can be

accomplished through administering an assessment or even just one-on-one conversations. Organizations can then flex their policies based on managers' needs. For example, for those who wish to break free of their workaholic ways, organizations should educate them on the negative effects of workaholism, such as stress, burnout, emotional exhaustion and physical ailments among others, and offer job stress recovery programs to reduce this groups' stress levels and improve physical health and thus, impact their subjective career success. For those who identify as workaholics, organizations should not force managers to shed their workaholism tendencies if they are not suffering from lack of recovery or poor well-being nor should they encourage workaholism for those who are not workaholics or for those who are workaholics, but do not wish to be. Instead, organizations can find ways to facilitate recovery experiences for workaholics. For example, because work enjoyment as an aspect of workaholism has been shown to positively impact mental and physical well-being (Burke, 2000), hospitality companies could foster work enjoyment among all managers, but especially to promote positive workaholism for those who are high in workaholism. Some ways companies can do this are by organizing volunteer outings where managers can give back to the community such as painting a school's playground or planting a community garden or by embarking on a cultural outing to a museum or show.

The study also found that recovery impacting both job satisfaction and career satisfaction is stronger for those high in workaholism compared to those who are low. Workaholism tends to have a negative connotation, but the positive influence of workaholism should be considered as it may improve overall career success for those who identify as workaholics. As such, organizations should ensure that those who thrive as workaholics are not penalized or admonished for their ways and they should not try to force workaholics to break their ways. Instead, because workaholics may obtain job and career satisfaction by working excessively, organizations could provide different types of programs to enhance

their recovery through human resource management practices. Given that workaholics may not be as interested in detaching from their jobs in the short-term, some long-term detachment programs could prove to be more beneficial for career satisfaction. For example, allowing managers to take their vacation time all at once in a block of time almost like a three or four week-long sabbatical program could be implemented to provide workaholic managers opportunities to rejuvenate and return to work with more energy. While it does not mean that a manager can use more vacation than earned and as such there should still be adequate coverage whether someone takes the vacation in three one-week periods over the course of the year or in one three-week block, so in order to balance the needs of the operation, managers may need to be flexible and partake in this option only during slower seasons. This offering may work better in a larger operation like a hotel where there are multiple managers in a department. Organizations could continue to offer the regular two days off to those who are not workaholics or who are lower in workaholism to ensure they continue to derive job satisfaction, but also allow managers to take "back-to-back" days off for a four-day weekend for those who do not mind possibly having to work several days in a row over a couple of weeks to take advantage of this time off without using vacation. Even allowing managers the option of split shifts might be appealing for those who wish to have some recovery time in the middle of their shift or who want to engage in an activity that can aid in recovery such as taking a music lesson, attending a language class, going for a run, or spending time with kids after school. This particular action may be of interest to restaurants where the time between lunch and dinner tends to be slower. By engaging in variable scheduling practices for all managers, organizations may be able to better ensure management coverage of daily operations and meet managers' desires for recovery, both in small and large chunks.

If managers who identify as workaholics want to break the workaholic habit in order to obtain higher well-being, job and career satisfaction, or work-life balance, organizations

can support this effort. First, they should ensure the people to whom managers report, such as directors and executives, are not inadvertently setting an expectation that employees work excessive hours. For example, by giving the impression that a manager cannot go home from his shift before his manager leaves, expecting responses during hours and days off, calling managers in to cover shifts, not asking about personal work-life balance needs, etc. Second, organizations should make an effort to help people who do not want to engage in workaholic ways to stop the behavior. For example, offering counseling to help workaholics better understand the real reasons they cannot stop working and helping them find activities they would rather do than work to ensure they take some recovery time on a regular basis. To help promote this idea, organizations can encourage all managers to add personal goals to their development plans, not just professional goals. These personal goals could be learning a new language, playing an instrument, taking a cooking class, playing a sport on a regular basis, volunteering for a local non-profit organization, etc. For non-workaholics and wish-to-not-be workaholics, time to engage in their personal goals could be built into their weekly schedules. For workaholics, time for personal goals could be given for longer periods of time, such as multiple days to one week, but less often throughout the year, such as during slower periods. This no-cost action of including personal goals on development plans would signal that the organization is invested in managers achieving their personal goals and would encourage managers actively pursue these goals and not feel guilty for taking the time to do so. It would also hold their directors and executives accountable for supporting them in meeting their personal goals and by extension ensuring they take time to engage in actions to meet goals. Allowing people the opportunity to break free of workaholism and obtain the recovery needed to return to their pre-work effort level may help to retain them in the long run especially as burnout, stress, and emotional exhaustion leading to poor well-being and increasing health-related costs in the hospitality industry is a concern.

5.3. Limitations and future research

First, we should note that the variance explained by the moderator of workaholism in explaining the relationship between recovery experience and subjective career success was relatively small (i.e., 2%, 3%). As discussed by Aguinis et al. (2005), both study design and measurement issues could cause small effect sizes. However, Aguinis et al. (2005) recommended that the choice of targeted effect size should not be based on the conventional cut-off standard from previous studies (e.g., Cohen, 1988). Aguinis et al.'s (2005) review work indicated that .009 and .002 are the mean and the median effect sizes for the articles they have reviewed. Hence, Aguinis et al (2005) and Kenny (2018) recommended to conduct a power analysis to further determine if the statistical power is sufficient to detect the effects. Using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007), a sample size of 302 in this study was found to have sufficient power (80%) to detect the effect of 0.02. This study has involved multiple approaches, such as inserting attention check questions in the survey and separating the measuring time of variables into two times, to improve the study design and measurement accuracy. Aside from increasing sample sizes or conducting a pilot study for estimating the sample size before the major study, it is recommended that researchers may need to carefully design the studies by using more powerful designs (e.g., within-person designs) and procedures.

This study used a cross-sectional design to measure recovery, well-being, and subjective career success, but future studies could utilize a longitudinal approach to measure changes in these variables over time. A longitudinal study could also help to better understand the connection between organizational culture, or even hospitality industry culture, and workaholism as it is not clear as to whether one causes the other (Clark et al, 2016). Uncovering that for the hospitality industry could lead to further investigations as to

the long-term impacts on various outcome variables such as attracting recruits, career satisfaction, employee well-being, intention to stay with an organization or in the industry, etc. Additionally, future research may also examine if a within-person variability of recovery experience influences well-being and subjective career success through a daily dairy study, which would help organizations better understand how the fluctuations in daily operations affect individual employees, especially those who identify as workaholics.

Second, this study considers the effects of recovery experience on well-being and subjective career success, but future studies could consider types of days off, such as two days versus split days, or employ a daily diary study to explore the influence of workday breaks (e.g., lunch break), which may be especially useful to understand workaholism in hourly employees. While managers may tend to be workaholics more so than non-managers, the hospitality industry's work characteristics could cultivate workaholic hourly employees given the often ample opportunities for overtime within a day or week and those employees who work more than one job within the industry, such as banquet servers who tend to work the "circuit" in their cities as on-call servers for multiple hotels and convention centers. Future studies could also measure the frequency and intensity of recovery activities to check whether this impacts the recovery to subjective career success relationship as moderated by workaholism as this may help to better understand why the relationships of recovery to job satisfaction and recovery to career satisfaction were stronger for those who are higher in workaholism.

Finally, this study did not aim to consider the type of workaholic someone is, so a future study could also include types, such as using the profiles uncovered in Spence & Robbins' (1992) study, which may better explore the positive and negative aspects of workaholism to help bridge the gap in the consensus of whether workaholism is a positive or negative trait (Clark et al., 2016) and further understand which profile may thrive in

hospitality. Other moderators such as social support, organizational support, organizational culture or climate, and work-life balance could also be explored in the impact of recovery experience on well-being and subjective career success.

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