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領隊工作雕琢--量表發展與實證研究

Tour leaders' job crafting: A scale development and empirical study

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中文摘要

工作雕琢是目前新興的工作設計概念，然而至今並未涉及觀光旅遊領域，更未有相關量表能有效衡量領隊的工作雕琢。本研究主要目的是從領隊觀點發展具有信效度之領隊工作雕琢量表，此外，驗證兩個領隊工作雕琢之前因及結果模式。透過嚴謹的量表發展程序，本研究確認領隊工作雕琢的四個構面，衡量工具亦具有良好的配適度、信度及效度。接著，運用此發展的領隊工作雕琢量表，確認重要的前因及結果變項。本研究貢獻在於擴充工作雕琢的相關理論，並將其應用於觀光旅遊領域。本量表可以提供領隊人員衡量自我的工作雕琢程度，並對於旅行業之人力資源管理實務領域提出建議。

關鍵詞：領隊、工作雕琢、團體旅遊、量表發展

Abstract

Job crafting is an emerging construct that has been applied in various disciplines but remains largely unexplored in the tourism industry. This study developed a scale for tour leaders' job crafting. Furthermore, this study examined two models of antecedents and consequences of tour leaders' job crafting. Through a rigorous instrument development process, the four dimensions of tour leaders' job crafting were identified. The instrument was proven to have a good fit, reliability, and validity. Applying the scale of tour leaders' job crafting enabled identifying crucial antecedents and consequences in the research models. The results may be used to extend the scope of existing theories on job crafting and its application in tourism context. Tour leaders can use the questionnaire items in the scale for self-assessment of current job status to understand their own job crafting level. Furthermore, the present research expands human resource management knowledge and proposes practical managerial suggestions.

Keywords: tour leader, job crafting, group package tour, scale development

INTRODUCTION

Group package tours (GPTs) are a common overseas travel mode in numerous Asian countries (Tsaur & Teng, 2017). In 2016, there were 14.59 million outbound departures of Taiwanese nationals; 72.1% of those were for tourism, and 31.3% of tourists from Taiwan chose a GPT for their overseas travel (Taiwan Tourism Bureau, 2017). These data indicate that GPTs remain essential in the tourism market. The most distinctive feature of a GPT is the tour leader, who accompanies and helps customers throughout their journey (Wang, Hsieh, & Chen, 2002; Wang, Hsieh, & Huan, 2000). A tour leader is indispensable to a GPT and represents the travel agency as its frontline employee (Wong &

Lee, 2012). In addition, a tour leader is a key intermediary between the destinations and tourists. Therefore, tour leaders' various service qualities and tourists' impression of them are crucial to the overall success of tours (Chang, 2014; Wang et al., 2002) and affect the overall reputation of the travel agency (Heung, 2008).

Numerous studies in recent years have explored topics related to tour leaders. For example, Bowie and Chang (2005) stated that a tour leader requires a variety of skills and faces numerous challenges, not only needing to implement and arrange various GPT tasks, but also facing and handling various emergency situations. During a service encounter, a tour leader requires patience and caution to accomplish various tasks. Because tour leaders work lengthy hours and interact frequently and closely with tour members, they are required to display various emotions and perform a considerable amount of emotional labor (Wong & Wang, 2009). Tsaur and Lin (2014) asserted that tour leaders have to endure complaints, rebukes, and unreasonable requests from tour members during journeys. In addition, the nature of the tourism industry inevitably hinders tour leaders' ability to maintain relationships with their family members, resulting in hassle such as work–family conflict. These studies have demonstrated that the tour leader job characteristics tend to cause frustration and a negative attitude toward job content, resulting in a lack of vigor and enthusiasm. Therefore, examining and recreating tour leaders' existing job content is a topic that both tour leaders and travel agencies must deal with collectively to enhance work engagement and efficiency.

Job design is a crucial topic in human resource management (HRM) research (Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001). Managers take a top-down approach to designing employees' job tasks and roles, and they construct job descriptions to influence employee attitude and behavior and improve organizational efficiency and effectiveness. However, in recent years, numerous scholars have stated that employees are capable of designing and fulfilling their own job roles, proposing supplementary perspectives on classical job design theory (Black & Ashford, 1995; Grant & Ashford, 2008). Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) argued that formalized job descriptions do not seem to create adequate job boundaries, job meanings, and work identities. Conversely, employees frequently alter their own job boundaries, and these bottom-up behaviors shape how the employees understand the job objectives and clearly define their own job content. The concept of job crafting refers to an employee's exquisite redefining of their own job to enhance its perceived meaning.

Grant and Ashford (2008) stated that job crafting is an informal and uninstructed proactive behavior in the workplace. Job crafting reflects an employee's effort to successfully complete tasks and matches employee's preferences and abilities. Leana, Appelbaum, and Shevchuk (2009) argued that job crafting refers to an employee's proactivity to change their own job boundaries and craft their own job content. The three dimensions of job crafting comprise task, relational, and cognitive boundaries (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2012) used the job demands–resources model (JD-R) as a theoretical framework and redefined job crafting as employees taking initiative and making changes to balance their job demands and job resources according to their personal abilities and needs. In addition, Tims et al. (2012) divided job crafting into four dimensions comprising (a) increasing structural job resources, (b) increasing social job resources, (c) increasing challenging job demands, and (d) decreasing hindering job demands.

Although several studies on organizational behavior have investigated job crafting, the concepts and connotations of job crafting have been inconsistent. Particularly, a tour leader's job characteristics differ from those in typical office jobs. The relational boundary of tour leader is more extensive and complex. Tour leader can make greater proactive behavioral changes to their jobs by altering the extent or nature of their relationship with other stakeholders as well as creating more job resources than other jobs, which implies that tour leaders may enact different forms of job crafting behaviors. Therefore, existing job crafting scales and questionnaire items may not effectively interpret a tour leader's behavior and performance. The existing literature is indeed inadequate to elaborate the contents and dimensions of tour leaders' job crafting from a tour leader's perspective. To answer these questions, the present study investigated tour leaders' job crafting by clarifying its meaning and connotations and developed a conceptualized scale for measuring tour leaders' job crafting. Essentially,

the present study applied job crafting theory to topics related to tour leaders. To fill the research gap regarding tour leaders' job crafting, the present study outlined and summarized tour leaders' job crafting behaviors according to their job characteristics before further clarifying the applicability of job crafting theory in practical job design for tour leaders. The present study expected to expand HRM and organizational behavior theories and knowledge, specifically for tour leaders, and propose practical managerial suggestions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tour Leaders

The World Federation of Tourist Guide Associations defines a tour leader as a person who manages an itinerary on behalf of their travel agency to ensure that the program is implemented as described in the travel agency's literature and the agreement with consumers (WFTGA, 2003). According to the definition by the International Association of Tour Managers and the European Federation of Tourist Guide Associations, a tour leader's job is to escort an individual or group of travelers from a foreign country or the tour leader's home country to a city or a region where they visit memorial halls, attractions, or museums; the tour leader also gives information about the local culture, natural heritage, and environment in the language of the tour members' choice and using motivating and entertaining approaches (EFTGA, 1998). Therefore, a tour leader is the provider of core tourism products and services during tourism product transactions and service consumption, and they play an indispensable and crucial role in a GPT (Heung, 2008; Luoh & Tsaur, 2014). Numerous studies have stated that a tour leader plays multiple roles including leader, communicator, pathfinder, mentor, mediator, and entertainer (Cohen, 1985; Weiler & Black, 2014). Luoh and Tsaur (2014) adapted the research findings in Cohen (1985) and incorporated GPT characteristics in Asia to classify a tour leader's roles as follows: instrumental role, social role, interactional role, communicative role, dealing with emergency, and care role.

A tour leader's job requires diverse skills, involves complex tasks, and possesses autonomy (Cheng, Chen, Teng, & Yen, 2016). To increase tour members' satisfaction during their journey, tour leaders frequently seek new ideas about how to service their customers (Tsaur, Yen, & Yang, 2011) and display different tour guiding styles (Tsaur & Teng, 2017). Mancini (1996) proposed that in response to their multiple rules, tour leaders employ strategies and approaches that include maintaining fairness, praising tour members' behaviors, exceeding customers' expectations, remaining calm while dealing with chaotic behavior, employing effective leadership, and maintaining flexibility. Tour leaders conduct their business according to the travel itinerary and content arranged by the hiring travel agency, and related regulations also list detailed job duties and content. However, facing GPT travelers' diverse needs and various emergencies during a journey, tour leaders must self-craft their job attitude, content, boundaries, and how they approach interaction with customers. In addition, tour leaders must convert their ideas into action to meet each tour member's individual needs, which indicates the importance of job crafting in the accomplishment of tour leader tasks.

Job Crafting

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) pioneered the concept of job crafting and defined it as an action in which employees change their job content and boundaries through practical and cognitive adjustments. Their proposed job crafting model states that the motivations of job crafting comprise the need for control over job meaning, need for positive self-image, and need for interpersonal connection with other employees; the model also states that job crafting practice consists of changing task boundaries (i.e., altering the type and number of job tasks), changing cognitive boundaries (i.e., altering the view of work as discrete parts or a whole), and changing relational boundaries (i.e., altering approaches and the nature of interactions with others at work). Through changes in job design and the social environment of the workplace, job crafting changes employees' job meaning and work identity. Therefore, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) argued that job crafting is accomplished by an

individual's construction of their job and execution of the job's content. Job crafting enables employees to establish job meaning, understand the job's objective, and shape their work identity and roles. Subsequent empirical studies have revealed that job crafting is crucial to person–job fit (Chen, Yen, & Tsai, 2014; Tims, Derks, & Bakker, 2016), work engagement (Bakker, Rodríguez-Muñoz, & Sanz Vergel, 2016; Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli, 2016; Van Wingerden, Bakker, & Derks, 2017), job satisfaction (Cheng et al., 2016), job performance (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2015), workplace well-being (Slemp, Kern, & Vella-Brodrick, 2015) and burnout (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2013).

Leana et al. (2009) developed evaluation dimensions and questionnaire items for the investigation of childcare workers' job crafting and argued that job crafting refers to employees' proactive changing of their own job boundaries and shaping of their actual job content so that employees' efforts better reflect their job performance and capability. Leana et al. (2009) further divided job crafting into individual crafting and collaborative crafting. Individual crafting refers to employees' proactive changing of their own job boundaries to enable actual job performance, whereas collaborative crafting involves collaborative efforts among employees to change work processes. Tims et al. (2012) developed a job crafting scale according to the four dimensions in the JD-R model. Increasing structural job resources refers to increasing resource variety, opportunities for self-development, and job autonomy; increasing social job resources refers to seeking social support, supervisory coaching, and performance feedback; and increasing challenging job demands refers to attempting to expand job boundaries or adjusting tour-leading tasks in order to seek challenges. However, employees may proactively lower their job demands by avoiding difficult job tasks and setting low performance goals when they perceive that the job demands have exceeded their capability; this phenomenon is known as decreasing hindering job demands.

Nielsen and Abildgaard (2012) adapted the findings in Tims et al. (2012) to further develop a job crafting scale suitable for blue-collar workers. The five dimensions in this questionnaire comprise increasing challenging job demands, increasing social job demands, increasing social job resources, increasing quantitative demands, and decreasing hindering job demands. By contrast, Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013) adapted the definition of job crafting in Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) to divide job crafting into three dimensions consisting of task crafting, cognitive crafting, and relational crafting. Lu, Wang, Lu, Du, and Bakker (2014) employed a similar approach and divided job crafting into two dimensions comprising physical job crafting and relational job crafting.

Tour Leaders' Job Crafting

Existing job crafting scales are loosely categorized into three types. First, the three dimensions of job crafting proposed by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) consist of task, cognitive, and relational boundaries. These three boundaries depict individual task and relational boundaries primarily on the basis of the concept of job crafting. However, from a tour leader's perspective, these three dimensions cannot clearly reflect the behavior and performance required in tour leaders' job crafting. Second, Leana et al. (2009) divided job crafting into two dimensions comprising individual crafting and collaborative crafting. This scale is more suitable for jobs with a both individual- and team-based job nature, but collaborative crafting is difficult to evaluate for tour leaders because their jobs possess autonomy. Finally, in the four-dimension scale developed according to the JD-R model, Tims et al. (2012) divided job characteristics into job demands and job resources. This job crafting scale not only explores the job demands and resources that employees may alter during job crafting, but also includes the dimension of decreasing hindering job demands because Tims et al. (2012) argued that employees may proactively lower their job demands by avoiding difficult job tasks and setting lower performance goals when they perceive that the job demands have exceeded their capability.

Because of tour leaders' job characteristics, their job demands not only need to be consistent with the travel itinerary and content arranged by their travel agency, but tour leaders are also required to expand or reduce the scope of work according to tour members' attributes or needs. For example, tour leaders will preconceive how to deliver customer satisfaction before interacting with customers, and they provide the services that will maximize customers' interest (Wong & Lee, 2012). In terms of job

resources, GPTs are composed of numerous products and services in the tourism industry, involving airlines, hotels, restaurants, buses, attractions, and local suppliers. Because tour leaders need to utilize personal and other social resources when conducting GPTs alone in foreign countries, they must cooperate and coordinate with other tourism professionals if they are to collectively deliver tourism services. Therefore, the job crafting construct and scale proposed by Tims et al. (2012) on the basis of the JD-R model is theoretically more suitable to interpret tour leaders' escorting behavior or performance in the tourism industry than the other mentioned scales.

According to tour leaders' job characteristics and the findings of previous studies, the present study defined tour leaders' job crafting as the proactive changes tour leaders make to balance their job demands and resources, using their individual skills and needs to enhance their enthusiasm and performance. The present study adapted the scale proposed in Tims et al. (2012) and defined the four dimensions of tour leaders' job crafting as increasing structural job resources, increasing social job resources, increasing challenging job demands, and decreasing hindering job demands. Each dimension is described as follows.

Increasing structural job resources

Increasing structural job resources refers to tour leaders' proactive utilization of their own job resources. Examples include opportunities for self-development, job autonomy, and resource variety. Tsaur et al. (2011) stated that after a tour is completed, tour leaders are given feedback from the tour members about their service via questionnaires or tipping. Therefore, to increase tour members' satisfaction during the journey, tour leaders seek new ideas for how to accommodate customers' various needs. In addition, they capitalize on their job autonomy and available resources to generate numerous creative ideas about how to provide services to customers with varying attributes. In practice, many tour leaders apply new approaches and techniques when escorting a tour. For example, tour leaders use text messages to notify tour members to access online tour briefings on tour leaders' blogs, or they employ instant messaging software to supplement communication with their tour members. In addition, tour leaders utilize their job duties abroad to collect tourism information in foreign countries that can be added to their knowledge database. This knowledge can then be employed subsequently. Therefore, tour leaders seek new knowledge or approaches to improve their job performance, and this phenomenon is known as increasing structural job resources.

Increasing social job resources

Increasing social job resources refers to tour leaders' efforts to seek social support, supervisory coaching, or performance feedback from others (e.g., supervisors, colleagues, and tour members). Tour leaders also need to obtain external job resources to effectively perform GPT duties. All tour-leading partners are key job resources for tour leaders, including tour guides, bus drivers, restaurant staff, local travel agencies, tour controllers, and tour operators. For example, tour leaders need to be up to date on the latest tourism news to provide their tour members with accurate information, and one of the fastest methods to obtain such information is through local tour guides or bus drivers. Gathering the latest information not only ensures tour quality, but also increases tour leaders' understanding of local tourism status by consulting with or inquiring from work partners. In addition, exchanges of experience among tour leaders enhance tour leaders' professional effectiveness. Wong and Wang (2009) stated that inexperienced tour leaders consult experienced tour leaders regarding the appropriate attitude, etiquette, and skills when dealing with customers. Tour leaders who work at the same destination also exchange destination information, and learning the latest news through other tour leaders who have already been to the destination may prepare a tour leader to handle any possible scenario (Tsaur & Teng, 2017). Therefore, tour leaders seek work partners' advice and suggestions and other necessary information.

Increasing challenging job demands

Increasing challenging job demands refers to tour leaders' attempts to expand their own job scope

or adjust the content of their escorting tasks in challenging jobs. Because of global population aging, age-specific tourism is in high demand and has gradually drawn attention. Senior citizens, who have high spending power, are one of the age groups for whom tour leaders actively seek professional development. Escorting senior citizens is a challenging job for tour leaders without prior experience; they must adjust their tour-leading style. For example, tour leaders working with older adults cultivate their patience and seek common topics of interest with their senior tour members (Tsaur & Teng, 2017). Therefore, tour leaders use different itineraries or address different customer attributes according to the current status of the tourism market to increase their challenging job demands.

Decreasing hindering job demands

Decreasing hindering job demands refers to tour leaders' proactive attempts to reduce the content of tour-leading tasks and lower their job's demands. In practice, tour leaders who face complex job demands attempt to lower these demands in order to avoid overwhelming hassle. For example, tour leaders explain the principle of a seating arrangement before seating their tour members in a vehicle to avoid or reduce tour members' complaints. In addition, to avoid disputes with hotels, tour leaders prevent tour members from accessing pay-per-view channels by requesting that hotels lock these channels in advance (Wong & Lee, 2012). Tour leaders may also prepare the mindset of tour members in advance to minimize customer complaints and unnecessary problems. Therefore, tour leaders may utilize appropriate tour-leading styles to decrease hindering job demands during the journey.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research content of this study was divided into two stages according to the research questions and objectives. In Study 1, qualitative and quantitative research methods were adopted for developing the scale of tour leaders' job crafting. In Study 2, the scale constructed in Study 1 was used for verifying the causal relationship of tour leaders' job crafting. The following sections detail the methods and findings of both studies.

STUDY 1: SCALE DEVELOPMENT

In the present study, the steps used for scale construction were primarily in accordance with the paradigm advocated by Churchill (1979) and Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams (2000). This paradigm is not only simple and clear but also widely used in academia. The development process for the tour leaders' job crafting scale consisted of the following three steps: (a) initial item generation, (b) Phase 1 of data collection and purification of measures, and (c) Phase 2 of data collection and reanalysis of measures (Figure 1).

Item Generation

Specify Domains of Tour Leaders' Job Crafting Construct. Churchill (1979) stated that during the early development of a scale, the scope of definitions should be specified. During this step, the present study conducted a literature review and divided tour leaders' job crafting constructs into four dimensions on the basis of Tims et al. (2012): increasing structural job resources, increasing social job resources, increasing challenging job demands, and decreasing hindering job demands. The present study collected data from a wide range of literature and compiled an initial list of items potentially related to tour leaders' job crafting. First, tour leaders' job characteristics and roles were explored in the related literature, the dimensions of tour leaders' job crafting were defined, and questionnaire items were collected from literature related to job crafting. Second, in addition to adapting the job crafting dimensions and questionnaire items in Tims et al. (2012), the present study referred to the individual crafting items in Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013) and Leana et al. (2009) to identify suitable items from existing scales. After compiling an initial list of items potentially related to tour leaders' job crafting, the present study revised these items according to tour leaders' occupational

situations. A total of 24 questionnaire items had been obtained at the end of this step.

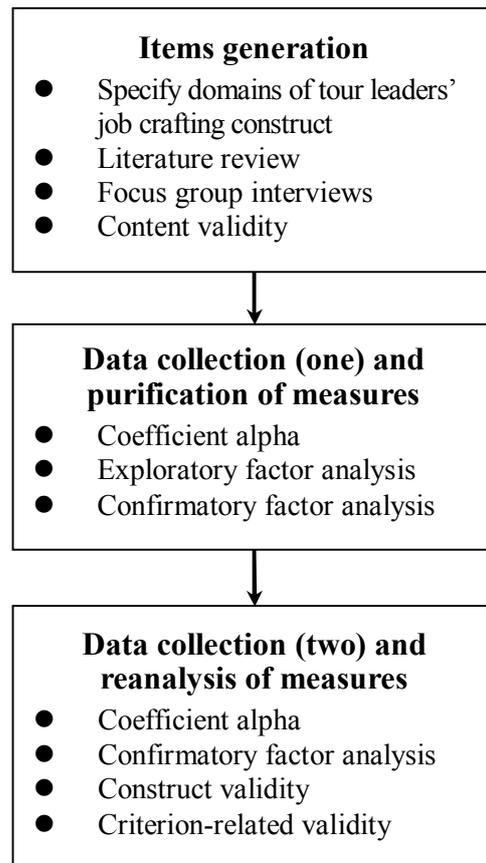


Fig. 1. Flowchart of the scale development procedure

Focus Group Interviews. The literature review could not completely outline the connotations of tour leaders' job crafting. To systematically understand the content or orientation covered in tour leaders' job crafting, the present study invited 17 renowned tour leaders for two sessions of focus group interviews regarding the 24 initial items generated through the literature review. During the interview process, the researcher first explained the concept of job crafting and the meanings of the four dimensions. Subsequently, the invited respondents examined the wording and context of the initial items according to their tour-leading experience, and they then revised items that did not match the context. In addition, the present study added questionnaire items to address situations that were not addressed in the initial item list. Each interview lasted between approximately 1.5 and 2 hours, and the entire interviews were voice-recorded. After the focus group interviews had been completed, the present study converted the voice recordings into transcripts for subsequent data analysis.

The two focus group interview sessions took place on April 15 and 20, 2016. Among the 17 respondents, 11 were male and 6 were female. All respondents were certified foreign-language tour leaders. Their ages ranged between 32 and 70 years, with a mean age of 51.3 years. Their tour-leading experience ranged between 3 and 26 years, with a mean working experience of 9.3 years. After the two focus group interview sessions, the present study added 15 new questionnaire items that mainly focused on increasing social job resources. Once this step was complete, the total number of questionnaire items had increased to 39.

Item Content Validity. After the initial items of the scale were compiled, an expert panel was recruited to evaluate the scale's content validity and assess its content and relevance. The panel consisted of three experienced tour leaders and two scholars specializing in tourism or tour leading.

Gable and Wolfe (1993) stated that when the items in a single dimension exhibit inadequate internal consistency, the questionnaire items must be revised or deleted. Therefore, the expert panel evaluated the suitability between questionnaire items and the operational definition and expressed their opinions for changing the wording of, adding, or deleting items. Consequently, three questionnaire items were deleted, and the number of initial items was reduced from 39 to 36.

Data Collection (One) and Measure Purification

Exploratory Factor Analysis. In the initial questionnaire of tour leaders' job crafting, the 36 initial items obtained in the previous step were scaled using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) for subsequent surveying. In practice, the Taiwanese tourism industry classifies package tours as long-haul and short-haul tours according to the flying time and travel distance involved. Long-haul tour involves a flight of more than five hours or travel distance of more than 3,000 miles, while short-haul tour involves a flight of five hours or less (Lo & Lam, 2004). Long-haul tour leaders usually play the role of a tour guide, and short-haul tour leaders also handle some of a tour guides' job content. Tour leaders who lead the two types of package tours must perform varying job content. Therefore, to ensure the applicability of the tour leaders' job crafting scale constructed in this study, the questionnaire distribution and data collection process was divided into two phases corresponding to both types of tour leaders.

In Phase 1 of questionnaire distribution, 300 short-haul tour leaders from the Travel Agents Association of Taiwan were randomly sampled from May 1 to June 30, 2016. A total of 273 questionnaires were returned and 268 copies were valid, a valid response rate of 89.3%. The male respondents (50.7%) outnumbered their female counterparts. Most of the respondents were married (61.9%). The majority age group was ≥ 50 years old (35.8%). Most of the respondents had a bachelor degree (70.1%). The most common number of years of experience was < 5 years (57.1%). Most of the respondents had escorted 1–6 tours in the preceding 6 months (52.2%). The most common destination of the tours they conducted was Northeast Asia (37.3%).

To reduce the number of items and simplify the scale, the present study conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) focusing on Phase 1 of data collection. In this step, the criteria for deleting an item were (a) a factor loading of < 0.5 and (b) if the item exhibited a high factor loading on another factor (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). The EFA results revealed that the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin value was 0.923; the approximate chi-square distribution was 5360.216; and the degree of freedom (df) was 435, achieving the level of statistical significance ($p < .01$). Through this simplification process, the 36 initial items were reduced to 30 items with sufficient explanatory power.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis. In this step, the present study conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to verify the validity and reliability of the short-haul tour leader data collected in Phase 1, as shown in Table 1. For the four factor models of tour leaders' job crafting, the Cronbach's alpha of the 30 items ranged between 0.88 and 0.90, and the composite reliability (CR) of the latent variables ranged between 0.88 and 0.90. Both criteria exceed the threshold (0.70) suggested in Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Bagozzi and Yi (1988), indicating the excellent internal consistency of the initial tour leaders' job crafting scale developed in the present study.

The first CFA results revealed the following values of model fit indices: $\chi^2/df = 2.15$, goodness-of-fit index (GFI) = 0.84, adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) = 0.81, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = 0.05, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.07, non-normed fit index (NNFI) = 0.90, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.92, and incremental fit index (IFI) = 0.92. All these indices exceeded the standards suggested by Hair et al. (2010), indicating that the tour leaders' job crafting scale was acceptable for measurement (Kelloway, 1998). In addition, the average variances extracted (AVE) of the latent variables verified the scale's convergent validity. The higher the AVE, the higher convergent validity a dimension exhibited. The AVE of each dimension exceeded the standard of 0.5 (Table 1; Fornell & Larcker, 1981), indicating the excellent convergent validity of the scale developed in the present study.

Table 1

Confirmatory factor analysis - Sample one (short-haul tour leaders) and sample two (long-haul tour leaders)

Factor/Item	Mean	Factor loading	CR	AVE	Cronbach's α	Model Fit Indices
Increasing structural job resources			0.90(0.93)	0.71(0.76)	0.90(0.94)	$\chi^2=822.64(793.40)$ df=382(373) $\chi^2/df=2.15(2.13)$ GFI=0.84(0.84) AGFI=0.81(0.80) SRMR=0.05(0.05) RMSEA=0.07(0.07) NNFI=0.90(0.93) CFI=0.92(0.94) IFI=0.92(0.94)
1. I try to improve my own tour-leading capability (e.g., acquiring new knowledge and improving my stamina).	4.63(4.60)	0.79(0.74)				
2. I try to enhance my tour-leading skills.	4.63(4.60)	0.77(0.75)				
3. I try to learn new things when leading a tour.	4.63(4.60)	0.73(0.75)				
4. I make sure that I use my tour-leading capacities to the fullest.	4.49(4.30)	0.76(0.81)				
5. I seek new approaches with which to improve my tour-leading job performance (e.g., information technology and online resources).	4.57(4.46)	0.65(0.74)				
6. I use new tour-leading techniques to enhance my job performance.	4.55(4.40)	0.66(0.76)				
7. I revise or adjust my operating procedure to make a tour go smoothly (e.g., canceling unnecessary commentary).	4.59(4.48)	0.61(0.76)				
8. If permitted, I change my tour-leading style to make the itinerary go smoothly.	4.54(4.45)	0.62(0.74)				
9. I am good at adjusting my work mentality to lead my tours.	4.62(4.47)	0.72(0.81)				
Increasing social job resources			0.90(0.90)	0.72(0.73)	0.90(0.90)	
10. I seek advice or assistance from experienced tour leaders.	4.49(4.40)	0.74(0.85)				
11. I ask whether my supervisor is satisfied with my work.	4.21(3.98)	0.64(0.60)				
12. I look to my supervisor for inspiration and encouragement.	4.05(3.93)	0.62(0.63)				
13. I ask others for feedback on my job performance.	4.22(3.87)	0.64(0.50)				
14. I seek tour-leading advice from work partners (e.g., tour guides, bus drivers, restaurants, local travel agency, tour controllers, and tour operators).	4.38(4.27)	0.69(0.78)				
15. I consult with work partners who provide me information required for tour leading.	4.44(4.37)	0.84(0.85)				
16. When I face problems during a tour, I seek assistance from work partners.	4.49(4.39)	0.80(0.76)				
17. I build excellent interpersonal relationships with work partners to benefit my tour-leading job.	4.60(4.51)	0.78(0.79)				
Increasing challenging job demands			0.88(0.95)	0.71(0.86)	0.88(0.95)	
18. When a challenging situation arises, I offer myself proactively as the tour leader.	4.42(4.13)	0.78(0.80)				
19. I offer myself proactively as new tour-leading opportunities arise.	4.43(4.14)	0.82(0.85)				
20. Once I become familiar with standard GPTs, I try to escort tours with different itineraries.	4.40(4.15)	0.76(0.87)				
21. I put extra effort into my work even though I do not receive extra remuneration.	4.42(4.14)	0.75(0.90)				
22. I try to make my work more challenging by examining various aspects of my job.	4.37(4.14)	0.64(0.85)				
23. Even if I accomplish basic tour-leading duties, I still seek	4.43(4.15)	0.70(0.89)				

Factor/Item	Mean	Factor loading	CR	AVE	Cronbach's α	Model Fit Indices
24. I seek additional self-responsibility and demands regarding my tour-leading job.	4.23(4.16)	0.52(0.83)				
Decreasing hindering job demands			0.90(0.94)	0.77(0.86)	0.91(0.94)	
25. When leading a tour, I try to minimize interactions with tour members who have unrealistic (deviating from reality) expectations.	4.38(3.66)	0.70(0.79)				
26. When leading a tour, I try to avoid making difficult decisions.	4.42(3.72)	0.79(0.87)				
27. I adjust my tour-leading style to avoid spending too much time on a specific task.	4.41(3.55)	0.80(0.87)				
28. I adjust my tour-leading style to simplify job complexity.	4.37(3.67)	0.70(0.88)				
29. I choose tourist groups suitable to my interests and capacity.	4.49(3.66)	0.85(0.84)				
30. When leading a tour, I communicate with tour members regarding my tour-leading style to simplify the tour-leading job.	4.43(3.63)	0.77(0.89)				

Note: *Sample one (n=268), sample two (n=253)

* The second CFA data are expressed in parentheses.

Data Collection (Two) and Reanalysis of Measures

Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Churchill (1979) suggested conducting a second survey with a different sample using the simplified questionnaire items to test the simplified scale. Accordingly, a reanalysis was performed in this step to further validate the tour leaders' job crafting scale. In Phase 2 of questionnaire distribution, 300 long-haul tour leaders from the Travel Agents Association of Taiwan were randomly sampled from July 1 to August 30, 2016. A total of 262 questionnaires were returned and 253 copies were valid, a valid response rate of 84.3%. The male respondents (50.6%) outnumbered their female counterparts. Most of the respondents were married (60.5%). The majority age group was ≥ 50 years (64.4%). Most of the respondents had a bachelor degree (61.3%). The most common number of years of experience was < 5 years (61.3%). Most of the respondents had escorted 1–6 tours in the preceding 6 months (70.8%). The most common destination of the tours they conducted Europe (39.5%).

Subsequently, the present study verified the validity and reliability of the simplified scale (Table 1). Among the four factor models of tour leaders' job crafting, the Cronbach's alpha of the 30 items ranged between 0.90 and 0.95, and the CR of the latent variables ranged between 0.90 and 0.95. Both criteria exceed the threshold (0.70) suggested in Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Bagozzi and Yi (1988), indicating the excellent internal consistency of the simplified tour leaders' job crafting scale. The values of fitness indices obtained in the second CFA were as follows: $\chi^2/df = 2.13$, GFI = 0.84, AGFI = 0.80, SRMR = 0.05, RMSEA = 0.07, NNFI = 0.93, CFI = 0.94, and IFI = 0.94. All of these indices exceeded the standards suggested by Hair et al. (2010), indicating that the tour leaders' job crafting scale was acceptable for measurement (Kelloway, 1998).

In addition, the present study verified the convergent validity and discriminant validity of the scale. The AVE of each dimension exceeded the standard of 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), indicating the excellent convergent validity of the scale (Table 1). The square roots of AVE of the four dimensions ranged between 0.85 and 0.93 (Table 2), and all exceeded the coefficients of correlation with other dimensions (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), indicating the excellent discriminant validity of the scale. After the aforementioned development process was complete, the tour leaders' job crafting scale was confirmed as having four dimensions and 30 items, and it qualified as the official questionnaire with which to measure tour leaders' job crafting. The present study named this scale the Tour Leaders' Job Crafting (TLJC) scale.

Table 2

Correlations of all constructs.

Tour leaders' job crafting	1	2	3	4
1.Increasing structural job resources	0.87			
2.Increasing social job resources	0.73**	0.85		
3.Increasing challenging job demands	0.39**	0.41**	0.93	
4.Decreasing hindering job demands	0.26**	0.27**	0.41**	0.93

Note: ** $p < 0.01$

Diagonal (in bold) represent the square root of average variance extracted.

Criterion-Related validity. The present study further verified the criterion-related validity of the TLJC scale. Previous studies have revealed that job crafting affects person–job fit (Chen et al., 2014; Tims et al., 2016). The present study selected the same criterion as was used in those studies to verify the correlation between the TLJC scale developed in the present study and person–job fit. To measure person–job fit, the present study employed the scale developed by Cable and DeRue (2002), which comprises three items each for needs–supplies fit and demands–abilities fit, totaling six items. Table 3 presents the results of Pearson correlation analysis between the four factors of the TLJC scale and the person–job fit scale. The results demonstrate that all four factors were positively correlated to the person–job fit scale, indicating the excellent criterion-related validity of this scale.

Table 3

Criterion-related validity analysis (n=253)

Tour leaders' job crafting	Person-job fit
Increasing structural job resources	0.485**
Increasing social job resources	0.465**
Increasing challenging job demands	0.183**
Decreasing hindering job demands	0.172**

Note: ** $p < 0.01$ **STUDY TWO: EMPIRICAL STUDY**

To further understand the goodness of fit of the scale constructed in Study 1, an additional questionnaire survey was conducted. Subsequently, the causal relationship of tour leaders' job crafting was analyzed. According to the antecedent variables, proactive personality is a personal resource and refers to the dispositional tendency to engage in proactive behavior in a variety of situations. Individuals with a proactive personality are inclined to change their circumstances intentionally (Bakker, Times, & Derks, 2012). Therefore, we expect that proactive employees are most likely to engage in job crafting behaviors. Furthermore, job resourcefulness is a situational-level trait in the structure of hierarchical personality (Ashill, Rod, Thirkell, & Carruthers, 2009; Karatepe & Douri, 2012). Based on the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), it is expected that relationships between proactive personality and job crafting is stronger when higher levels of job resourcefulness are present due to employees can perform well under resource constraints. Thus, job resourcefulness may play a contingent role in the relationship between proactive personality and job crafting.

Concerning the dependent variables, prosocial service behaviors (PSBs) represent positive behaviors that service employees direct at customers and co-workers (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). Job crafting enables individuals to gain resources from coworkers, resulting in in greater feelings of well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Slemp et al., 2015). Such employees tend to change their jobs in order to increase their available resources, thereby increasing their level of task performance and extra-role behaviors (Demerouti, Bakker, & Gevers, 2015; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2015). Thus, job

crafting is positively related to PSBs. Furthermore, job passion refers to a strong inclination toward a work. Two types of passion are possible: harmonious passion and obsessive passion (Vallerand et al., 2003). Job crafting enables employees to steer their work towards their passions (Demerouti et al., 2015). Employees with high job passion are more engaged in their job and are more inclined to perform PSBs to satisfy customer demands. Therefore, job passion may be a mediating variable linking tour leaders' job crafting and PSBs. On the basis of the aforementioned studies, the present study incorporated the antecedent and dependent variables relevant to job crafting into the research model (Figures 2 and 3) to construct the theoretical framework for tour leaders' job crafting, for proposing strategies and offering suggestions for improving HRM practices and service management.

Sampling and Data Collection

The questionnaires were distributed to 600 tour leaders who were members of the Travel Agents Association of Taiwan. The questionnaire survey was administered from November 1 to December 31, 2016. To ensure an adequate response rate and questionnaire validity, as well as to thank the respondents, souvenirs or cash vouchers for a convenience store were provided to the respondents. A total of 552 questionnaires were returned and 518 copies were valid, a valid response rate of 86.3%. The male respondents (50.8%) outnumbered their female counterparts. Most of the respondents were married (69.7%). The majority age group was ≥ 50 years old (50%). Most of the respondents had a bachelor degree (65.6%). The most common number of years of experience was < 5 years (59.5%). Most of the respondents had escorted 1–6 tours in the preceding 6 months (61.4%). The most common destination of the tours they conducted Europe (19.3%).

Measures

Proactive personality is defined as one's dispositional tendency to initiate change in a variety of situations (Bateman & Crant, 1993). The present study employed 10 items from the scale of proactive personality developed by Bateman and Crant (1993). Job resourcefulness refers to an enduring disposition to garner scarce resources and overcome obstacles in pursuit of job-related goals (Licata, Mowen, Harris, & Brown, 2003). We measured job resourcefulness using a measure of four statements proposed by Licata et al. (2003). PSBs refer to the helpful behaviors of service providers directed toward clients (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). In this study, two types of service behavior, namely role-prescribed service behaviors and extra-role-pre service behaviors, were investigated. In this study, we employed six items from the scale of PSBs proposed by Tsaur, Wang, Yen, and Liu (2014). Job passion is defined as a strong inclination toward work-related activities that individuals enjoy and in which they invest time and energy (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). Six items from the scale of work passion constructed by Trépanier, Fernet, Austin, Forest, and Vallerand (2014) were used in the present study.

Results

The structural equation model (SEM) using the maximum likelihood estimation method was adopted to investigate the relationships between proactive personality and four types of tour leaders' job crafting behaviors. According to the fit indices, the hypothesized model provided an accepted fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 2144.44$, $df = 590$, $\chi^2/df = 3.64$, $RMR = 0.08$, $RMSEA = 0.07$, $CFI = 0.89$, $IFI = 0.89$). The paths from proactive personality to increasing structural job resources ($\beta = 0.65$, $p < 0.01$), from proactive personality to increasing social job resources ($\beta = 0.62$, $p < 0.01$), from proactive personality to increasing challenging job demands ($\beta = 0.46$, $p < 0.01$), and from proactive personality to decreasing hindering job demands ($\beta = 0.36$, $p < 0.01$) were all significant. We used Hayes's (2012) PROCESS macro for SPSS to test the moderating influence of job resourcefulness. The model set proactive personality as the independent variable (X), job resourcefulness as the moderator (W), and four types of tour leaders' job crafting behaviors as the outcomes (Y) (Figure 2). For the analyses, the products were mean centered, and a 95% CI was used. This process was repeated to obtain all the required coefficients. Job resourcefulness moderated the relationship between proactive personality

and increasing structural job resources ($\beta = -0.16$, $t = -5.66$, $p < 0.01$, CI $[-0.21, -0.10]$), the relationship between proactive personality and increasing social job resources ($\beta = -0.15$, $t = -4.60$, $p < 0.01$, CI $[-0.21, -0.08]$), and the relationship between proactive personality and increasing challenging job demands ($\beta = -0.19$, $t = -3.98$, $p < 0.01$, CI $[-0.21, -0.09]$). However, Job resourcefulness did not moderate the relationship between proactive personality and decreasing hindering job demands ($\beta = -0.10$, $t = -1.46$, $p < 0.01$, CI $[-0.23, 0.03]$).

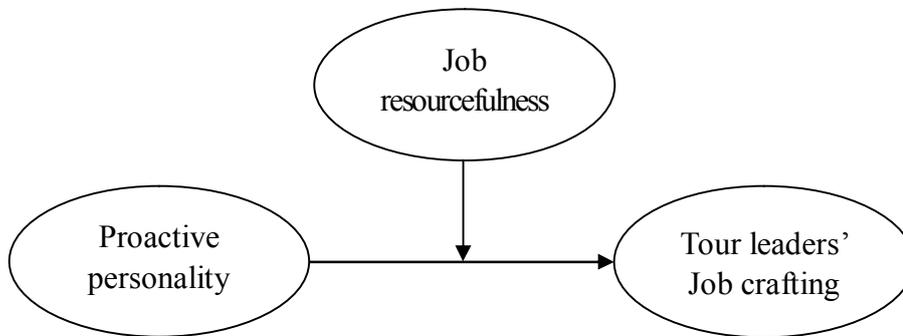


Fig. 2. The conceptual model of the relationship between proactive personality and job crafting.

Furthermore, this study examined the relationships among tour leaders' job crafting, job passion, and PSBs. According to the fit indices, the hypothesized model provided an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 2187.20$, $df = 796$, $\chi^2/df = 2.75$, $p < 0.001$, GFI = 0.83, AGFI = 0.81, NFI = 0.87, CFI = 0.92, IFI = 0.95, RMR = 0.07, RMSEA = 0.06). Figure 3 shows the standardized path estimates. The paths from tour leaders' job crafting to harmonious passion ($\beta = 0.50$, $p < 0.01$), from harmonious passion to role-prescribed service behavior ($\beta = 0.49$, $p < 0.01$), from harmonious passion to extra-role service behavior ($\beta = 0.46$, $p < 0.01$), and from obsessive passion to extra-role service behavior ($\beta = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$) were positively significant. However, the coefficient for the path from tour leaders' job crafting to obsessive passion ($\beta = 0.14$, $p > 0.05$) and from obsessive passion to role-prescribed service behavior ($\beta = 0.07$, $p > 0.05$) were nonsignificant. The Sobel test was used to examine the significance of the mediating roles of harmonious passion (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). The Sobel test was used to determine whether the indirect effect of tour leaders' job crafting on role-prescribed service behavior and extra-role service behavior through harmonious passion differed from zero. The results of the Sobel test indicated that the mediating role of harmonious passion on the relationship between tour leaders' job crafting and role-prescribed service behavior ($z = 3.06 > 1.96$, $p < 0.01$)/extra-role service behavior ($z = 2.98 > 1.96$, $p < 0.01$) was significant.

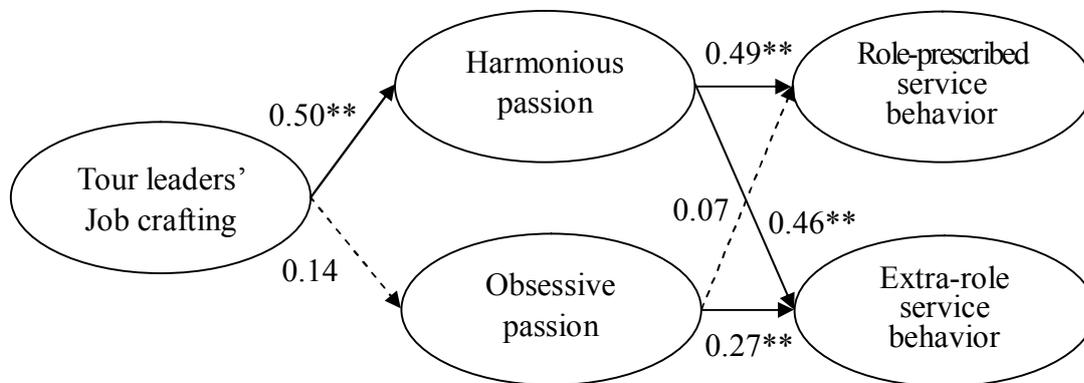


Fig. 3. The conceptual model of the relationships among job crafting, job passion, and prosocial service behaviors.

CONCLUSION

The present study referred to the scale development procedure suggested by Churchill (1979) and the literature on scale development (Carlson et al., 2000) to construct the TLJC scale in three main steps. First, four dimensions and 24 questionnaire items were generated through a literature review. After two focus group interview sessions, the number of questionnaire items was increased to 39. Of these, 36 items were confirmed through a content validity analysis by an expert panel. Subsequently, Phase 1 of data collection was conducted focusing on short-haul tour leaders based in Taiwan. The purpose of the EFA in Phase 1 of data collection was to purify the questionnaire items and identify the underlying relationships between the scale's dimensions. After the number of questionnaire items was reduced to 30, CFA verified the framework of the scale. Subsequently, Phase 2 of data collection was conducted focusing on long-haul tour leaders based in Taiwan, and a second round of CFA verified whether the factors of the scale were structured as expected. The finalized TLJC scale consists of four dimensions and 30 questionnaire items, and internal consistency, construct validity, and criterion-related validity tests confirmed the excellent validity and reliability of the scale.

The present study was the first to establish the concept of tour leaders' job crafting from tour leaders' perspective. Essentially, the present study explored how tour leaders used their own abilities and needs to balance their job demands and resources, thereby enhancing their enthusiasm and performance toward their work. First, the present study compiled the initial questionnaire items through a literature review. Because the job crafting scale developed by Tims et al. (2012) originated from the JD-R model and exhibited theoretical reliability, the questionnaire items in the present study were largely based on those in Tims et al. (2012). In addition, the present study referred to the individual crafting items in Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013) and Leana et al. (2009). After the initial items assessing potential connotations of tour leaders' job crafting were identified, the present study conducted two focus group interview sessions with experienced tour leaders. During these sessions, the participating tour leaders examined the wording and context of the initial items according to their tour-leading job-related content and occupational situations. In addition, the present study added questionnaire items to address situations not addressed in the initial list of items.

The new questionnaire items added after focus group interviews mainly concerned *increasing social job resources*. In addition to supervisors and experienced tour leaders, all tour-leading partners are key external job resources for tour leaders, including tour guides, bus drivers, restaurant staff, local travel agencies, tour controllers, and tour operators. Furthermore, tour leaders acquire necessary information from these work partners and build excellent interpersonal relationships with them to make their jobs easier. These types of social job resources are distinctive from those in typical office jobs, and the unique feature of the TLJC scale highlights the difference and contribution from existing generic job crafting scales.

Subsequently, to determine the applicability of the scale of TLJC developed in this study and to construct a theoretical framework for tour leaders' job crafting, the relevant antecedent and dependent variables associated with tour leaders' job crafting were examined. The results indicated that proactive personality is positively related to four types of tour leaders' job crafting behaviors. Job resourcefulness moderates the relationship between proactive personality and tour leaders' job crafting. Furthermore, the results revealed that tour leaders' job crafting is positively related to harmonious passion. Harmonious passion is positively associated with role-prescribed service behavior and extra-role service behavior. Obsessive passion is positively related to extra-role service behavior. Harmonious passion mediates the relationship between tour leaders' job crafting and PSBs.

Theoretical Implications

The objective of the present study was to investigate the meaning and connotations of tour leaders' job crafting and develop a conceptualized scale for tour leaders' job crafting. In addition, the developed scale was applied to practical operation and management for tour leaders and travel

agencies. Job crafting is an emerging job design concept. Although numerous job crafting scales have been developed in previous studies (Leana et al., 2009; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013; Tims et al., 2012), they are more suitable to employees in generic office jobs. Because tour leaders face complex and varying group travel environments when escorting tours, existing scales may not comprehensively highlight their unique job characteristics or effectively interpret their behavior and performance. In contrast to job crafting scales designed for employees in generic office jobs or with a fixed scope of work, the scale developed in the present study was specifically developed for tour leaders. The findings in the present study revealed that the contrasting dimensions and content of the TLJC scale partially differed from those in existing scales, highlighting the uniqueness of the scale developed in the present study. Therefore, the contribution of the present study was to apply the concept of job crafting to the tourism profession by developing a construct and scale of tour leaders' job crafting using qualitative and quantitative research methods. The findings of the present study are expected to contribute to the knowledge of the field of job design and serve as a reference for HRM practice and organizational behavior in the tourism industry.

Topics related to tour leaders have gradually drawn attention in academia. Recent studies have emphasized the facets of tour leading to investigate tour leaders' service quality, emotional labor, hassles, leadership style, and tour guiding style (Heung, 2008; Tsaor & Lin, 2014; Tsaor & Teng, 2017; Wong & Lee, 2012; Wong & Wang, 2009), but few have focused on tour leaders' job crafting behavior. Several studies have mentioned the phenomenon or behavior of tour leaders' job crafting. For example, when escorting tours, tour leaders capitalize on their job autonomy and available resources to generate numerous creative ideas about how to provide services to tourists with varying attributes (Tsaor et al., 2011). Additionally, tour leaders may lower their job demands to avoid hassle when facing complex job demands (Wong & Lee, 2012). However, previous studies have not further explored the construct and facets of tour leaders' job crafting. The TLJC scale developed in the present study may serve as a reference and be applied in future quantitative research and verifications of causality. Therefore, the theoretical contribution of the present study is the construction of the TLJC scale, which serves as a theoretical foundation for further investigation of tour leaders' job crafting and the relationships between the related constructs.

Furthermore, this study further extends the job crafting theory by incorporating the role of job resourcefulness. We have contributed to the job crafting literature by examining situational influences on the proactive personality–job crafting relationship. This study supplements previous research that has explored a direct relationship between proactive personality and employee job crafting (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012) by emphasizing a crucial contingent factor of job resourcefulness in regard to such a relationship. The present study also examined the relationships among tour leaders' job crafting, job passion, and PSBs. Based on the proposition in JD-R theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016) and COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), this study contends that harmonious passion is one of the mediators in the relationship between job crafting and PSBs. The current research findings contribute to the extant knowledge base by uncovering the role of harmonious passion in the link of job crafting and PSBs. Thus, this research proposes that harmonious passion may be seen as an important checkpoint in detecting how job crafting influences employees' PSBs.

Managerial Implications

The connotations of the TLJC scale developed in the present study may serve as a reference for both tour leaders and tourism managers. First, tour leaders can use the questionnaire items in the scale for self-assessment of current job status to understand their own job crafting level. In addition, these questionnaire items provide tour leaders with a direction of how job crafting could be implemented and effectively applied to tour-leading tasks. For example, to increase structural job resources, tour leaders can enhance their own job resources according to the methods described in questionnaire items such as Item 10, *I try to improve my own tour-leading capability*, and Item 11, *I seek new approaches with which to improve my tour-leading job performance (e.g., information technology and online resources)*, thereby enhancing their own job resources.

For managers, the TLJC scale may serve as a reference for HRM in travel agencies. First, managers can objectively learn the degree of implementation of tour leaders' job crafting by conducting periodical surveys using the scale. The scores of each dimension or questionnaire item may further demonstrate causal relationships, and managers can provide tour leaders with job crafting assistance according to the periodic survey results. The survey results can also serve as a reference for tour leaders' professional training, and managers can arrange job crafting lessons or activities that instruct on the job crafting skills lacked by tour leaders. The focus group interviews conducted in the present study revealed that tour leaders' social job resources are also one of the key job crafting dimensions. Therefore, the present study suggests that tour leaders should strengthen their relationships with work partners to promote experience exchange among work partners, enhance tour leaders' escorting competency, and form close friendships with work partners to increase their social job resources, which will benefit their tour-leading.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although the present study revealed key insights into tour leaders' job crafting and the scale development underwent a rigorous procedure, including validity and reliability tests, the present study still had some limitations. First, during the sampling process, the present study focused solely on Taiwan-based tour leaders as its subjects. Therefore, research applying this scale for tour leaders based in other countries should be cautious. The present study suggests that to enhance the generalizability of the TLJC scale, future studies can verify the reliability of the scale by sampling tour leaders from other countries or regions (e.g., China, Japan, and Southeast Asia). Second, because tour leaders' attributes and experience may vary, job crafting phenomena may also vary by individual tour leader. However, the main purpose of the present study was scale development, and the present study suggests that future research may conduct descriptive analysis on demographic variables such as age, experience, and employment status to further investigate topics related to tour leaders' job crafting. Third, although the present study surveyed both short-haul and long-haul tour leaders in two phases to verify the applicability of the scale, factors such as GPT type (e.g., special interest tour and shopping tour) and tour members' attributes (e.g., senior citizens and teenagers) were not considered. The present study suggests that future research can further explore these factors to demonstrate the generalizability of the scale. Finally, during the second phase of surveying, the only criterion that the present study incorporated into the criterion-related validity was person-job fit. There is still a dearth of research on the causality of tour leaders' job crafting. The present study suggests that future studies can utilize the scale and questionnaire items developed in the present study to conduct empirical research using a causal model.

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