

# The Process of Leadership

From Leadership Styles to Subordinates' Attitudes  
and Behaviors in the Hospitality Industry

by

Zhenpeng Luo

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Universitetet  
i Stavanger

Faculty of Social Sciences

Norwegian School of Hotel Management

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University of Stavanger  
P.O.Box 8002, Ullandhaug  
N-4068 Stavanger  
NORWAY  
[www.uis.no](http://www.uis.no)

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## SUMMARY

**Background:** This thesis is based on the context of China's hotel industry. Since the enactment of China's opening up policy in 1978, its hotel market has attracted many international hotel operators, and it was opened to international investors in 2001 after China joined the World Trade Organization in the same year. As a less developed industry, hotels in China were facing management problems not only in operations, but in management as well. Leadership is the core issue in management which is so important in motivating employees to perform with excellence in hotel services. With limited leadership theory, hotels managers were eager to improve themselves by attending training programs, in order that they could compete with international hotels. Currently western leadership theories dominate training programs; however there has been a lack of investigation into their compatibility with Chinese culture. With significant cultural differences between the eastern and the western worlds, these western theories deserve further examination in the context of Chinese culture. As the direct reporter of frontline employees, the executive role of supervisors is less focused, especially on their leadership effects. To fill in the above mentioned gaps, this thesis worked on testing western leadership theories and their effects on hotel employee attitudes and behaviors at the supervisor level.

**Purpose and aims:** The purpose of this thesis is to explore the relationships between leadership and its effects on employee attitudes and behaviors in China's hotel industry. In detail, antecedents of employee attitudes and behaviors at work such as leadership, justice, and self-concept, and how these issues are causally related to each other were discussed. Aims of this thesis include: (1) to test the construct validity of well developed leadership theories in the western world within the context of China's hotel industry; (2) to test the effects of different leadership styles (FRLT, LMX) on employee attitudes and

behaviors (self-concept, helping, loafing behaviors); (3) to test the effects of theories like justice, self-concept on employee attitudes and behaviors (organizational commitment, turnover intention, helping, and social loafing behaviors).

**Methods:** In order to get representative data, forty-three hotels were, ranging from two to five stars, were selected. These consisted of: state-owned (74%), private-owned (12%), and joint-venture properties (14%). 1000 questionnaires were delivered. With the strong support of hotel managers, a total of 640 responses were collected, indicating a response rate of 71%. A total of 326 responses were collected from 20 hotels in Beijing by one of the authors in person. 314 responses were collected from 23 hotels in other provinces administered by HR managers of the hotels. The questionnaires filled out by employees were mailed to the author. With all 640 questionnaires received, 585 valid responses were used in the data analysis. A total of 55 returned questionnaires were excluded in the study due to being incomplete, thus the valid response rate is 91.4%.

**Findings:** The following findings are highlighted in accordance with the aims of this thesis based on four papers:

(1) The nine-factor construct of FRLT is a two-factor one in the context of China's hotel industry at supervisor level, and transformational leadership was confirmed as being most effective for supervisors at hotels (Paper 1).

(2) There are significant relationships between transformational leadership and collective (and relational) self-concept; and LMX mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and collective (and relational) self-concept (Paper 2).

(3) Justice perceptions are antecedents of employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, employee turnover intention, and social loafing behavior. In particular there are significant relationships between procedural justice and affective organizational commitment,

and employee turnover intention (both direct and mediated by management satisfaction). Turnover intention is the main drive of employee social loafing behavior (Paper 3).

(4) Affective group commitment plays the mediating role between interpersonal justice (and LMX) and helping behavior. Specifically, helping behavior amongst co-workers at hotels is driven by affective group commitment, while affective commitment is mainly driven by interpersonal justice and LMX. Therefore, interpersonal justice and LMX are very important antecedents of employee helping behaviors (Paper 4).

The thesis also addressed that it should be careful when applying western leadership theories in the context of Chinese culture by both Chinese leaders and western leaders. Learning from other cultures is the best way to get new ideas; while for the cultural specific theories, it is necessary to proof them first before applying them in a different context. Some differences in the construct of transformational leadership between China and the west world like the differences between Shi et al. (2005)'s TLQ and Avolio & Bass (2004)'s five-factor model of transformational leadership in MLQ (form 5X), and the differences are mainly caused by cultural differences; In addition, the two-factor model of FRLT identified in paper 1 of this thesis also indicated that levels of leadership can also be considered when applying leadership theories. In line with contingent theory, the cultural context, and leader level should be taken into consideration when western leadership theories are applied in China. Learning well developed western leadership theories can help inexperienced leaders improve their leadership effectiveness; while a simple application of the theories without validation may cause side-effects or cultural conflicts between leaders and employees in a situation of globalization, especially for hospitality services. Therefore, researches on the validations of western leadership theories in China are crucial to make them well applied and more effective. Leaders should also pay attention

to the appropriateness of applying western leadership theories or make adjustments of these theories when applying them in the Chinese context.

## **LIST OF PAPERS**

**The thesis was based on the following papers:**

- I. Testing the Structure and Effects of Full Range Leadership Theory in the Context of China's Hotel Industry**
- II. How is leadership related to employee self-concept? -an empirical study in the hospitality industry**
- III. Justice Perceptions and Drives of Hotel Employee Social Loafing Behavior**
- IV. Antecedents of Employee Helping Behavior in the Hospitality Industry**



## ABBREVIATIONS

<b>FRLT</b>	<b>Full Range Leadership Theory</b>
<b>MLQ</b>	<b>Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire</b>
<b>OCB</b>	<b>Organizational Citizenship Behavior</b>
<b>LMX</b>	<b>Leader Member Exchange</b>
<b>II (A)</b>	<b>Idealized Influence (Attribute)</b>
<b>II (B)</b>	<b>Idealized Influence (Behavior)</b>
<b>IS</b>	<b>Inspirational Stimulation</b>
<b>IM</b>	<b>Intellectual Motivation</b>
<b>IC</b>	<b>Individualized Consideration</b>
<b>LF</b>	<i>Laissez-faire</i>

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## PREFACE

After finishing my master study in “International Service Management” in the Netherlands in 2004, I began to work as a lecturer in Department of Hotel Management at Institute of Tourism, Beijing Union University, China. Teaching and researching experiences drove me to think about improving my knowledge on management in hospitality industry.

It was in the spring of 2007, when a program called “Master in Service Management” was started by the University of Stavanger and Institute of Tourism, Beijing Union University. As a lecturer in this program, I had the opportunity to meet Professors Einar Marnburg, Torvald Øgaard, and Svein Larsen. I expressed my idea of starting my PhD study at University of Stavanger to them, and then I was accepted as a PhD candidate in Tourism and Hospitality Management by University of Stavanger in the fall of 2007.

Quality is the core of hospitality services, while what are the drives of service quality and how to improve service quality are very important questions. With regards to China’s hotel industry, management of service quality is less experienced compared to western hotel groups. Based on the above question and the status quo of China’s hotel industry, we identified the topic of my PhD project concerning the process of leadership: From leadership styles to subordinates’ attitudes and behaviors in the hospitality industry.

This topic extends researches from quality evaluation to drives of service quality. It relates to management theories such as leadership theory and organizational behaviors that deal with management issues in the hotel industry. We believe the results of this thesis made great contributions to these theories and they could also be instructive to hotel managers in terms of quality management of hotels. Still, my knowledge on management, especially leadership theory, has been enriched through the study process and I am so satisfied with the process of my PhD study.

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Development of China's hotel industry**

China's hotel industry has witnessed dramatic changes over the past 30 years. There are three time periods which can be identified as milestones of its development. The first phase was from 1978 to 2000. It began with China's "opening up" and "reconstruction" policies introduced in 1978. This was a rapid development phase with an average increase rate of 18%.

Since China became a member of the World Trade Organization in 2001, its hotel industry was opened up to the international market, and the development of China's hotel industry entered its second phase, which was from 2001 to 2008. By December 2005, China had completely opened up its market to international hotel operators. The 2008 Beijing Olympic Games also stimulated investment from domestic and international hoteliers, which contributed to a huge increase in the number of hotels in Beijing, and China, to the point of saturation, with an average increase rate of 10%. As a result, almost all of the famous international hotel groups are now operating in China; such as Accord, Hilton Hotels Corporation, Cendant Corporation, Intercontinental Hotels Group, Marriott International Inc. Hotels, Starwood Hotels & Resorts Worldwide, Hyatt Corporation, Four Seasons, and Kempinski Hotel.

The third phase can be identified as being from 2009 to the present. Investments from international and domestic hotels are still ongoing. In other words, new hotels are springing up continuously and heading to a point of saturation. There has been more than 22 international hotel groups with 33 branches in Beijing since 2007, and the number of hotels in China increased from 1,496 to 14,639 from 1988 to 2009; it increased around 10 times within 20 years according to the NBSC (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2011).

The structure of hotel ownership in China is complex due to the fast development of the hotel industry. These various forms consist of: collective, share holding co-operative, alliance, joint-venture, limited liability, private and other, Hong Kong, Macao, Taiwan invested, and foreign-investment. This structure creates intensive competition in both the market itself and within human resources among the hotel groups. It also makes it more difficult for hotel managers to attract and retain the qualified staff required to achieve excellent standards.

## 1.2 Challenges and opportunities facing the hotel industry in China

As a result of its rapid development, along with the globalization of the hotel industry, and social changes during the last three decades in China, China's hotel industry is experiencing the following challenges. According to Yu and Gu (2005), the biggest challenges lie in the marketing of both domestic and international hotel companies; the training of competent hotel professionals; the corporate and academic knowledge of all staff; and the development of new hotel standards. In general, crucial challenges can be summarized as follows: (1) fierce competition among international hotel groups and Chinese national brand hotels; (2) human resource competition among hotels; (3) increased employee turnover rates in hotels, and consequently, (4) the decreased service quality of hotels.

One particular challenge deserving more attention is the branding problem of Chinese hotels. It is hard to compete with international hotel groups in China if Chinese hotels fail to build a good reputation of service quality, may be subject to mergers or acquisitions. So whilst on one hand these challenges may prove formidable for Chinese hotels, they may on the other hand become opportunities for the development of China's hotel industry.

### 1.3 Purpose and objectives of the thesis

#### *1.3.1 The purpose and objectives of the thesis*

The purpose of this thesis is to explore the relationships between leadership and its effects on employee attitudes and behaviors. In achieving this purpose, the following research questions will be addressed in line with corresponded objectives:

- Are Western leadership theories appropriate for supervisors in China's hotel industry? The objectives of this research question are to test the structure of FRLT and to investigate the effects of different leadership styles in China's hotel industry.
- How is varied leadership style associated with employee self-concept? The objectives of this research question are to find out how collective and relational level self-concept are shaped by leadership styles, and to discuss the status of self-concept of Chinese hotel employees.
- What are the impacts of justice perceptions on employee attitudes such as satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and behaviors such as helping or social loafing behavior? The objectives of this research question are to identify how the above concepts are causally related, and how negative attitudes and behaviors are caused in order to alleviate these negative outcomes at the organizational level.

#### *1.3.2 The conceptual model of the thesis*

From a management perspective, leadership styles and leader-member relationships are keys to employee attitudes like justice and self-concept. On the other hand, justice and self-concept can be considered causes for employee attitudes and behaviors such as organizational commitment, turnover intention, and organizational citizenship behaviors (i.e. helping) or negative behaviors (i.e. loafing).

Based on related theories from literature review, a conceptual model relating to the above concepts was developed as Figure 1.

### 1.3.3 Specification of the model

The model tries to describe the global relationships between leadership styles such as transformational, transactional, *laissez-faire*, and LMX and employee justice perceptions, self-concept and related consequences. The core parts of the model are LMX, justice perceptions, and self-concept.

Justice and self-concept of employees are two important variables which reflect followers' status and reflections upon leadership styles. The relationship between the two is twined (R.G Lord & Brown, 2004). If leaders can change the way in which followers perceive themselves, great consequences such as organizational, work group, and individual functioning may be caused by leadership, with self-concept playing a mediating role of leadership effectiveness (van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004).

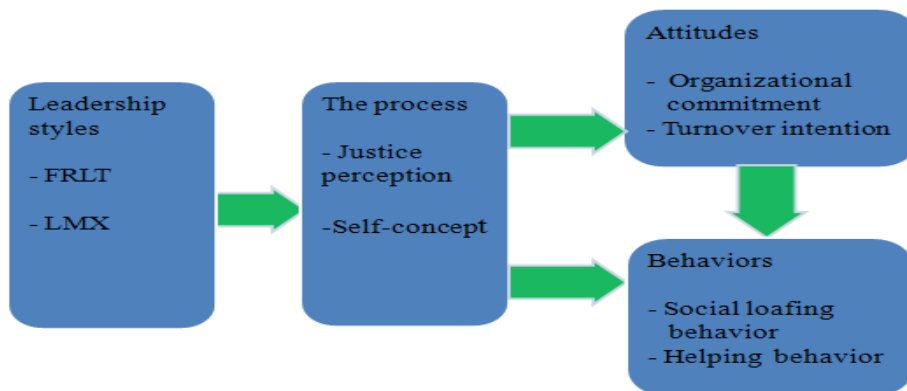


Fig. 1 Conceptual model of the thesis



Leadership styles of FRLT are considered exogenous variables; while consequences like employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, loafing, and turnover intentions are treated as endogenous variables in this study.

The four subsequent studies of this thesis were based on this conceptual model, with some adjustments made based on the purposes of each study.

#### 1.4 Structure of the thesis

Based on the purpose of the thesis, background of China's hotel industry is introduced first, then a development model is explained, and related theories are analyzed through literature review. Methodology is explained in the third part, and the fourth part – RESULTS consists of findings in four papers based on the conceptual model. The general conclusions, contributions to theories and practices of the thesis are presented in the end of the thesis, and four papers are attached as an appendix for references.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Leadership Theory

Dozens of leadership theories have been developed in the past decades (Yukl, 2004). Bass and Stogdill (1990) summarized that “leadership has been conceived as the focus of group process, as a matter of personality, as a matter of inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviors, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, as initiation of structure, and as many combinations of these definitions.” Yukl (2004, p. 8) defines leadership as “ the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared

objectives.” This definition reflects not only the specialized role of a leader, but also the social influence process of leadership.

For the varied existing definitions, leadership theories can be categorized into two groups (Northouse, 2001): The first group focuses on the characteristics or behaviors of leaders and followers as well as the situation of leadership, such as “trait” and “style”, “contingency” theory; whereas the second group focuses on the interaction and the relationship between leaders and followers, such as “leader-member exchange theory”, “transactional” and “transformational” leadership theories. Full range leadership theory, categorized in the second group, has received a great deal of attention by researchers during the last decades, and it has become popular in practices.

### *2.1.1 Full range leadership theory*

Burns (1978) was the first one to present transformational leadership. He characterized political transformational leadership as a process to transform or influence followers’ values and morale to a higher level by followers’ commitment to achieving goals. Based on Burns (1978)’s political transformational leadership idea, Bass (1985) developed the concept of transformational leadership theory. The essence of this theory is to distinguish transformational leadership from transactional leadership. These two styles of leadership were defined in terms of behaviors used by leaders to influence followers and the effects of the behaviors on followers (Yukl, 2005). With the development of leadership theories, Avolio and Bass (1991) proposed the “full-range leadership theory” (FRLT), and the construct of the FRLT consists of the three leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership.

The essence of transformational leadership is to “move” the followers’ motivation from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation, which is called internalization. As a result, followers perform beyond the expectations of leaders. For instance, employees will do more to satisfy

a customer's needs than just doing the required tasks, and this is very important to achieving high quality in service sectors like the hospitality industry.

Behaviors embodied by transformational leaders include idealized influence or charisma (idealized influence behavior and idealized influence attribute), individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation. Transformational leaders ask followers to develop their own interests for the good of the group, organization, or society; to consider their long-term needs to develop themselves rather than their needs of the moment; and to become more aware of what is really important. So transformational leaders are about more than just charisma and must be capable of developing people and team building.

In terms of their effects on followers, transformational leaders gain trust, loyalty, and respect by: (1) generating awareness and acceptance of the purpose and mission of the organization, (2) inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization, and (3) activating their higher-order needs.

In contrast to transformational leadership, transactional leaders emphasize the clarification of tasks, work standards, and outcomes. They seek task completion and employee compliance by exercising contingent rewards (CR), active management by exception (MBEA) and passive management by exception (MBEP).

Laissez-faire leadership, according to Bass and Stogdill (1990), is a passive leadership in which leaders avoid attempting to influence their subordinates and shirk their supervisor duties. They set no clear goals, leave too much responsibility with their subordinates, and do not help their group to make decisions. Leaders make little attempt to help followers satisfy their needs, and just take a "hands off" approach. Inactivity of laissez-faire leadership has been confirmed consistently to be negatively related to productivity, satisfaction, and cohesiveness

(Felfe, 2006; Judge, Woolf, Hurst, & Livingston, 2006; Molero, Cuadrado, Navas, & Morales, 2007; Rowold & Heinitz, 2007; Yao & Chen, 2005). Although laissez-faire or passive leadership were considered ineffective in leadership processes, it was still exercised in organizations, and the real effects of it demand more detailed investigation due to the small number of studies conducted on this leadership style.

The three leadership styles are not mutually exclusive. Many studies show that some items are correlated with both transformational and transactional leaderships, while some items are correlated with transactional and laissez-faire leaderships. It should be noted that CR was found to be closely related to the transformational leadership construct (Tejeda, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001). In addition, Schriesheim, Wu, and Scandura (2009) also suggested that MBEP and LF were mixed and they can be combined together to represent “non-leadership” or “passive leadership”. This means that the nine-factor FRLT structure deserves more investigation in different cultural contexts, situations, or levels of leadership. For its ideal effectiveness, transformational leadership captured more attention than the other two in researches.

### *2.1.2 Studies on transformational leadership*

Bass (1997) claimed that transformational leadership is effective in any situation or culture, while Yukl (2004) concluded that in most situations, only some aspects of transformational leadership are relevant. Transformational leadership is likely to be more important in dynamic, unstable environments where there is an increasing need for changes, and in conditions where the organizational culture encourages innovation (Yukl, 2004). Transformational leadership occurs at two levels: individual level and organizational level. At the individual level, leaders change attitudes, behaviors, and performances of followers to optimal levels; at the organizational level, leaders deal with unstable, competitive environments. The first level is a critical and lasting

process in follower identity formation, commitment, innovation, and so on. Furthermore, it is also a basis for organizational change. Top managers exercise strategic leadership to initiate changes at the second level. From this two-level point of view, transformational leadership could occur at any time in any organizations.

The hundreds of studies on transformational leadership and its effectiveness, which have been done at different leader levels and in different areas or organizations by researchers, have been conducted using survey searches (mostly used), laboratory experiments, field experiments, descriptive and comparative studies, and incentive case studies. The following eight papers (see Table 1) were selected to show the main issues relating to transformational leadership studied in terms of year, field, methods, and findings.

(1) Personality and transformational leadership (Khoo & Burch, 2008; Shao & Webber, 2006).

(2) Effects of gender, education, and age upon transformational leadership behaviors (Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin, & Marx, 2007; Eagly, 2005; Kark, 2004; Vecchio, 2003).

(3) Transformational leadership and outcomes such as organizational citizenship behavior (Purvanova, Bono, & Dzieweczynski, 2006), organizational commitment (Leach, 2005), team performance (Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, & Spangler, 2004), job behaviors (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006), organizational change (Mao & Long, 2007), innovations (Rowold & Heinitz, 2007), organizational culture (Masood, Dani, Burns, & Backhouse, 2006).

(4) Relationship between transformational leadership and other leadership styles (Felfe, 2006; Judge et al., 2006; Molero et al., 2007; Rowold & Heinitz, 2007; Yao & Chen, 2005).

(5) Mediating, moderating factors between transformational leadership and varied outcomes (Meng, Liu, & Jing, 2006; Pundt, Boehme, & Schyns, 2006; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005; Zhu, Chew, & Spangler, 2006).

(6) Transformational leadership and justice (De Cremer, van Dijke, & Bos, 2007; van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & van Knippenberg, 2007), transformational leadership and identity ( Lord & Hall, 2005).

For all the studies on transformational leadership, the majority of the more than 3,000 studies listed by Bass were focused on the relationship between leaders and their immediate followers, organization, and culture in which leaders function (Littrell, 2002). However, from the organizational point of view, the differences between the manufacturing industry and the service industry were less discussed. From the culture point of view, almost all of the prevailing theories on transformational leadership and the empirical evidence are solely American in character, while the majority of studies in a Chinese context were mainly conducted in other parts of Chinese communities like Hong Kong, Macao, Taiwan, and Singapore. Many theories are culturally sensitive, so this may lead to difficulties if theories are applied directly to mainland Chinese culture due to the differences in culture between mainland Chinese and other Chinese communities, and between Chinese and the westerner culture.

Table 1 Prior studies on transformational leadership

Author, year, field	Study design	Main findings
1. Shao and Webber, (2006)  A cross-cultural test between north America and China	Survey research: Big-Five personality traits and transformational leadership questionnaire were completed by 200 Chinese EMBA students and two direct subordinates of each student	Certain personality traits positively associated with transformational leadership behavior in the North American context are not evident in the Chinese environment. The Chinese leaders were rated comparatively high in idealized influence and inspirational motivation, while low in intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.
2. Shi, Li, & Chen, (2005)  Six different companies in China	Exploratory survey to get items of transformational leadership; and then EFA analysis to get factors of transformational leadership; finally CFA analysis to test the goodness-of-fit of the model.	Transformational leadership in China is a four factor structure, including visionary inspiration, charisma, moral model, and individualized consideration. The first two factors are similar to Bass's factors, idealized influence and charisma, while individualized consideration has more items and meanings. Moral model is unique for Chinese leaders. They name it TLQ (Transformational Leadership Questionnaire).
3. Rafferty and Griffin (2004)  Public sector organization	Survey research: questionnaire was completed by 1398 employees in an Australian public sector organization.	Inspirational communication had a unique positive relationship with affective commitment;  Intellectual stimulation was significantly positively associated with affective commitment. Contrary to expectations, however, vision did not display a significant unique positive relationship with affective commitment; vision was not significantly associated with turnover intentions; inspirational communication was significantly positively associated with interpersonal helping behaviors.
4. Mary (2005)  Human Service Organization	Survey research:  MLQ Form 5x-Short were completed by 835 memberships of two US human service organizations.	The results indicated that all five of the transformational factors and one (contingent reward) of the three transactional factors significantly correlated with the leadership outcomes (perceived effectiveness of the leader, extra effort inspired by the leader, and satisfaction with the leader). Laissez-

**Table 1(cont.)**

		faire was significantly negative correlated with these outcomes.
5. Hinkin (1996) hospitality industry	Survey research:  Six scales from MLQ Form 5-X and other questions were completed by 141 people including both corporate employees and general managers in a hotel chain in the USA.	The four selected scales (idealized influence, inspirational communication, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) are significantly correlated with transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is significantly correlated with other mediate and final variables. The mediate variables are significantly correlated with others in the causal relationships, except the correlation between mission clarity and leader satisfaction.
6. Bass, Avolio, Jung, and Berson (2003)  Military service	Survey research:  MLQ (Form 5X) including idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration	Both transformational and transactional contingent reward leadership ratings of platoon leaders and sergeants positively predicted unit performance. The relationship of platoon leadership to performance was partially mediated through the unit's level of potency and cohesion.
7. McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002)  pharmaceutical firm located in Australia	Survey research:  A survey of sales representatives of a global pharmaceutical firm located in Australia was undertaken. 137 responses received.	Effect of transformational leadership style on performance is significant, but indirect.
8. Boal and Hooijberg (2001)  No specific field	Analysis	Researchers can gain a better understanding of the processes that lead to effective strategic leadership if they focus on the essence of strategic leadership and incorporate the new and emerging theories of leadership;  The new theories of leadership (i.e., vision, charisma, and transformational leadership) have a positive moderating effect on the 11 hypotheses.

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Shi, Li & Chen (2005) conducted a study on the structure of transformational leadership in the context of Chinese culture using data collected from 456 employees in 6 different firms in China. Four factors were identified through exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) regarding the structure of transformational leadership. These factors are: *moral modeling* (8 items, Cronbach' alpha= 0.92), *charisma* (6 items, Cronbach' alpha= 0.84), *visionary* (6 items, Cronbach' alpha= 0.88), and *individualized consideration*. They name this instrument Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ) to measure transformational leadership developed in the Chinese context. While there are similarities between TLQ and the five-factor model of transformational leadership in MLQ (form 5X), essential differences can also be identified between the two, mainly caused by cultural differences rooted in Confucianism (Shi et al., 2005). Compared to former results by other researchers and the latest form of MLQ (form 5X), it is noticeable that there are indeed some differences in the structure of transformational leadership within different cultures and fields.

Consensus in the components of transformational leadership is not well reached. In a new service economy and globalization, transformational leadership theory would be more popular in organizations, and the construct of transformational leadership should be tested in different cultures and different situations. With regard to studies on transformational leadership in the hotel industry, limitations of existing studies include the following: (1) the surveys on transformational leadership in the hotel industry are very few; (2) the characteristics of service were less considered in their models; (3) no research extended the study on transformational leadership to the customer group. For example, leaders or supervisors make contact with customers frequently in hotel services, so they can also influence customers to cooperate with employees during service delivery, and they can even build good relationships with customers which is very

important in hotel services marketing; (4) the cultural context was less discussed in leadership studies since most of the studies were conducted in western countries, so the question “is it possible to apply transformational leadership in China?” deserves more investigation.

### *2.1.3 The importance of culture to leadership*

“There are no universal solutions to organization and management problems.” Hofstede (2001, p. 375) emphasized, “the lack of universal solutions to management and organization problems does not mean that countries cannot learn from one another: on the contrary, looking across the border is one of the most effective ways of getting new ideas for management, organization, or politics. But the transfer of these ideas across borders calls for prudence and judgment” because “theories, models, and practices are basically culture specific; they may apply across borders, but this should always be proven.” In reality, “ideas and theories about management and organization are often exported to other countries without regard to the values context in which these ideas were developed,” so cultural context should be taken into consideration when western leadership theories are applied in China.

Leaders may indeed be people who can be understood in terms of traits and behavioral styles, but leadership is a social process that involves both a leader and a follower (Lord & Brown, 2004). In studying leadership effectiveness, leaders, followers, and the process all need to be considered. Based on the idea of “contingent theory”, leadership is contingent to social environments such as nations and cultures. A number of situational variables may increase the likelihood of the occurrence of transformational leadership, or may enhance its effect on followers (Bass, 1985, 1996; Hinkin & Tracy, 1999, Yule, 2005), but followers’ traits and values may determine how they respond to transformational or charisma behaviors of a leader (de Vries, Roe, &

Tharsi, 2002; Ehrhart & Klein, 2001), so we have to see how leadership theories work in different cultural contexts.

#### *2.1.4 The Chinese culture*

##### *2.1.4.1 Traditional Chinese culture*

Confucianism is the fundamental and prevailing influence on Chinese culture. Chinese culture has distinct characteristics from western cultures. Concepts such as *Guan xi* (relationship or connections among individuals), *mian zi* (face; maintaining the respect of others as well as to respect them), *Ren qing* (being kind or respecting the feeling of others), *wan zhuan* (indirect, non-confrontational expression), *harmony*, *large power distance*, *collectivism*, and “*choosing the Middle way*” are some other typical examples. These values are the primary motive of attitudes and behaviors of Chinese people.

Generally speaking, mainland Chinese culture is characterized by Masculinism, large power distance, collectivism, high uncertainty avoidance, and future orientation (Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007; Hofstede, 2001), which is totally different from western cultures Hofstede (2001) (see Table 2). This means leadership theories and their applications may face problems in China. Furthermore, Chinese culture is important in understanding the differences in behaviors and values between Chinese and westerners, and these differences are the keys for leadership and business operations in China.

##### *2.1.4.2 Current and future Chinese culture*

Although culture is a trait-like concept, social changes and culture influences may cause changes in people beliefs. Chinese people experienced a ten-year Cultural Revolution (chaos), economic reform, and opening up policies. These historical events to some extent influenced the beliefs of Chinese people. Consequently, characteristics such as distrust, looking down on service works, the chasing of a

'western' lifestyle, becoming money-oriented, focused on status, "Chinese-style" Individualism (GLOBE), and short-term orientation are becoming far more common in the younger generations. This is especially true with the post 1980's generation, as they are often only children and are subsequently treated like the kings or princesses of the families.

China has been undergoing cultural change for decades, ever since the establishment of the People's Republic of China. The trend of change proposed by this study is displayed in Table 2, in which the future Chinese culture will be similar to western culture, or fall in between the traditional Chinese culture and western culture, and this is why some people claimed that Confucianism failed to survive western cultures in China. Even though some changes may happen, the main stream of Chinese culture will still dominate in the future, and this is reflected by Chinese people in Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Singapore. The change of culture suggests that researchers should see Chinese culture in a new perspective instead of the traditional one. From the above analysis, western leadership theories may encounter cultural conflicts in China today, but the conflicts may be alleviated in the future.

Table 2 Conjectured trend of changes in Chinese culture

Traditional Chinese culture	Future Chinese culture	Western culture
Masculinism	Equal in gender	Gender egalitarianism
Large power distance	Medium or small power distance	Small power distance
Collectivism	"Chinese-style" Individualism	Individualism
High uncertainty avoidance	Midium uncertainty avoidance	Low uncertainty avoidance
Long-term orientation	Not long-term orientation	Short-term orientation

### *2.1.5 Leadership styles of Chinese leaders*

“Confucianism is an authoritarian system that places great emphasis on values such as conformity, submission and respect for one’s elders,” Littrell (2002, p.20) said, “the Chinese have carried these values into their management practices to such an extent that a distinct leadership pattern has emerged”, and the pattern is “authoritarian” in which subordinates must show respect and obedience to superiors.” According to Littrell (2002), many Chinese leaders tend to use the authoritarian leadership style, make all the decisions, assign tasks to subordinates, and show consideration to those led. The Chinese leadership style is labeled “paternalism” with unquestionable authority, and the culture of employee obedience makes this style prevail.

Littrell (2002) noted that transformational leadership theory may have some problems with Chinese culture. Individualized consideration toward subordinates may violate the collective value, and intellectual stimulation may violate the norms of dependency and conformity. However, Avolio and Bass (2004) claimed that the collectivist societies in east Asia such as China provides a ready-made situation for transformational leadership, because “the mutual obligation in collectivist societies between leaders and followers facilitates the transformational leader’s individualized consideration.” These claims cause questions such as “is the collective Chinese culture still well maintained?” and “can transformational leadership be well applied in collective society?” China has experienced comprehensive and profound economic (open markets) and social (one-child policy) changes during the last three decades, which may have affected traditional Chinese culture. For these reasons the previously mentioned questions deserve further investigation.

A study on “Desirable leadership behaviors of multi-cultural managers in China” was conducted by Littrell (2002), and three dimensions of leadership behavior were identified: consideration, task

orientation, and another unique factor called “moral character”. The latter of which is considered as possibly being artificially defined by the CCP (Chinese Communist Party) leadership as an education program, rather than observed in research findings. The results of Littrell (2002)’s study show that Chinese employees in hotels have low expectations of consideration, tolerance of freedom, and this implies that they prefer a more directive, authoritarian leadership style. Task-oriented and person-oriented behaviors were predominant factors in the “ideal leader” scale for Chinese employees, so the mix of transformational and transactional may be more appropriate for Chinese leaders.

On comparisons between mainland Chinese hotel employees’ ratings on “ideal leader” and ratings on USA leaders using the questionnaire of LBDQ XII, the results show that “there is a very weak correlation between the Chinese ratings of hypothetical “ideal” leader and the typical leader in the USA.” This means that expected behaviors of Chinese managers and supervisors are quite different from the behaviors of leaders in the USA. This result reflects that there are differences in employee desires for leadership styles between Chinese and westerners.

The results also show that (1) western leadership styles are not appropriate for Chinese hotel employees; (2) Chinese leadership styles are more appropriate than those of expatriate leaders against the “ideal leader” ratings; (3) ratings of both Chinese leaders and expatriate leaders in Chinese hotels are significantly different from the “ideal leader” ratings.

From the perspective of leaders, Chhokar et al. (2007) listed some “ideal” characteristics of leaders provided by Chinese leaders through focus group interviews, and they are: to keep balance between being conservative and aggressive; to be open to new ideas and

constant self improvement; to initiate and carry out changes; to be humane; to adjust western theories to a Chinese context.

The GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) leadership dimensions in the questionnaire survey are summary indexes of the characteristics, skills, and abilities that are perceived to inhibit outstanding leadership (1, 2, 3), have no impact (4), or contribute to outstanding leadership (5, 6, 7) in the 7-point scale. The highest scores within China are integrity (5.98), inspirational (5.92), administratively competent (5.88), and visionary (5.85).

Based on the above results, Chhokar et al.(2007) conclude that compared to other scores of the leadership dimensions, the universally endorsed charismatic leadership is relatively strongly espoused within Chinese leaders. While Shao and Webber (2006) also discovered that certain transformational leadership behaviors in the North American context are not evident in the Chinese environment in a cross-cultural test. Chinese leaders were rated comparatively high in idealized influence and inspirational motivation, while low in intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. This suggests Chinese leaders are “authoritarian” and Charismatic, and while this mix of leadership may be appropriate for Chinese employees, due to the evident differences in leadership styles between Chinese leaders and western leaders, along with different desired leadership styles by employees, the application of western leadership theory in China needs should be approached with caution.

Human resources will experience dramatic changes in China’s hotel industry in the future. On one hand, most of the senior and middle managers in Chinese hotels are in their 40’s and they are taking advantage of vocational education to improve their leadership skills. Meanwhile, some the generation is entering the middle manager and supervisor positions in hotels, especially in international or joint venture hotels. These managers have traveled outside of China and

received western a management education, so their leadership styles may vary dramatically from the older generations. Additionally, with the development of the Chinese mainland education system, both university and professional education are becoming more popular, therefore, young generations of employees in the hotel industry will be tend to be well educated. Furthermore, more employees in the hotels in mainland China will have bachelor degrees or master degrees in the future. All of these changes would be expected to create new challenges in the leadership process.

#### *2.1.6 Discussions*

The current situation of western leadership theories in China can be presented in three aspects: (1) theories are taught without being tested but are applied in the eastern cultural context; (2) some leadership theories were adjusted in accordance with western theories like TLQ (Shi et al., 2005), but they are not prevalent or need further testing; (3) leadership of lower level leaders were less studied.

The forgoing discussions don't provide us with a clear answer about whether it is possible to apply western leadership theories to the Chinese hotel industry. They do help us to understand however, that: (1) current leadership styles of Chinese leaders are different from western leaders; (2) there are some differences in the “ideal” leaders or leadership styles between Chinese employees and western employees; and (3) there may be changes in leadership and desired leadership styles of young generation of employees.

Transformational leadership has become a hot topic for researchers around the world, and different studies have been conducted in various countries, especially in the west. China will be the new area for the examination and application of western theories due to its opening up policy and globalization, especially in areas such as the hospitality industry. The results of studies will be meaningful not only academically, but also for the development of China's hotel industry.



As traditional Chinese leadership is labeled as being "authoritarian" or "paternalistic", one may ask questions such as: "is transformational leadership appropriate for Chinese employees in the hotel industry?", "what will happen if the leader positions are dominated by post-80's generations with well educated younger employees?" "Will the employees desire more "paternalism" or transformational leadership?" and "could transformational leaders transform the new generations and what will be the related outcomes?" To answer the above questions, further comprehensive studies on these issues are needed in China's hotel industry.

## 2.2 Leader-member exchange theory

Leader-member exchange refers to the quality of the exchange relationship that exists between employees and their superiors (Graen & Uhlbien, 1995). LMX theory was formerly called the vertical dyad linkage (VDL) theory because its focus was on reciprocal influence processes within vertical dyads between one leader and his/her direct reporters. It describes the role-making processes between a leader and each individual subordinate and the exchange relationship over time (Yukl, 2005). LMX clearly incorporates an operationalization of a relationship-based approach into leadership. The essence of LMX is that effective leadership process is based on the development of a mature leader - subordinate relationship, and the two parties gain many benefits from the relationship (Graen & Uhlbien, 1995). From the above explanations about LMX, we can consider it as a very important variable in leadership process.

According to Graen and Uhlbien (1995), the development of LMX experienced four stages: the identification of differentiated dyads, (2) the investigation of the characteristics of LMX, (3) the description of dyadic partnership building, and (4) the aggregation of differentiated dyadic relationships to group and network levels.

In the first stage, the focus of LMX is on the discovery of differentiated dyads that exist mainly on VDL; the second stage focuses on the relationship and its outcomes; the third stage is relationship building, which is also called the role-making stage. Yukl (2005) divided role-making into three stages called the “life cycle model”: (1) the initial testing stranger phase, during which leader and subordinates evaluate each other’s motives, attitudes, and potential resources to be exchanged, and mutual role expectations are established; (2) the acquaintance stage or the development phase at which point the two parties refine exchange arrangement, and develop mutual trust, loyalty, and respect; (3) the mature stage that transforms the exchange from self-interest toward mutual commitment to the mission and objectives of the work unit. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) related the first stage (stranger) to transactional leadership and the third stage (mature) to transformational leadership. What is the leadership style in the second stage? A mixed style of transactional and transformational leadership may exist during this phase instead of nothing in Graen (1995)’s model. Based on the former three stages, the fourth stage focuses on the expansion of LMX from independent dyads to interdependent dyadic relationships, and this stage relates to inter-group or inter-organizational relationships, studies on this stage are desired in organizations.

As Graen and Uhlbien (1995) argued, despite many years of leadership research and thousands of studies, there is still not a clear understanding of what leadership is and how it can be achieved. Theories tend to address different aspects of leadership from different perspectives, which can cause complexity and ambiguity. One way to solve this problem is to extend the classification system from leader focus to subordinates and processes (i.e. followers and the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers). The three-domain (leader, follower, and LMX) leadership model can help us understand and analyze leadership better.

In the three-domain model, LMX is in a place of leadership between leader and follower. Within each domain, we can also analyze the levels of a single variable, such as leadership styles in the domain of leader, different stages of LMX, and different levels of follower attitudes and behaviors. These level-based analyses can help us understand leadership and the effects of leadership more comprehensively.

Researchers have demonstrated that LMX and transactional leadership are highly related, and high LMX may also help foster collective-level self-concept, which links to transformational leadership (Lord & Brown, 2004), so LMX may relate to both transformational and transactional leaderships.

Consequences or outcomes of LMX may include variables such as employee performance, turnover, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance appraisal, job climate, innovation, organizational citizenship behaviors, empowerment, procedural and distributive justice, and career progress (Graen & Uhlbien, 1995). These outcomes are immediate outcomes about follower's attitudes and behaviors rather than delayed outcomes such as customer perceptions of service quality or outcomes about customer attitudes and behaviors. Relationships between LMX and follower self-concept, justice perception were less researched in former studies, so attention was given to them in this thesis.

## 2.3 Self-concept

### 2.3.1 *Self-concept*

Self-concept is an overarching knowledge structure that organizes memory and behaviors (Lord & Brown, 2004). From multiple perspectives of cognition, personality, and social psychology, Lord & Brown (2004) argued that self-concept can help individuals

know the self, others, and regulate social interactions. The structure includes schemas that help organize one's memory and behaviors; scripts that help combine contextual cues with self-consistent goals and behaviors. So the multidimensional nature of self-concept may offer rich information useful for executive control of thoughts and actions. Therefore, self-concept of leaders and followers plays very important roles in the process of influence and also the process of service delivery.

According to Lord & Brown (2004), self-concept comprises both personal and social identities. These identities correspond to the levels of self-concept. There are three alternative focal levels of the self-concept—the individual, relational, and collective levels. The individual level involves interpersonal comparisons where one's sense of uniqueness and self-worth are derived from perceived similarities with, and differences from, other individuals. The relational level is based on the extent to which individuals define themselves in terms of dyadic connections and role relationships with others. The collective-level involves self-definition based on one's social group memberships, where favorable inter-group comparisons give rise to self-worth. The last two levels of identity refer to social identity.

### *2.3.2 The chronic and working self-concept*

Self-concept activation is argued to have both trait and state-like qualities. Chronic self-concept refers to the relative time-invariant (i.e., trait-like) accessibility of the individual, relational, and collective levels for a particular person. This occurs because different learning histories produce stable differences among people's self-schemas, and the three levels exhibit different levels of accessibility across different people. On the other hand, the working self-concept refers to the situation-specific, moment-to-moment (i.e., state-like) activation of one's self-concept levels, which is produced by priming factors that vary across situations. Consequently, the self-concept level that is currently active will vary across people and over time (Johnson, Selenta, & Lord, 2006).

From an organizational point of view, high levels of chronic and working self-concept such as relational and collective level-identity are preferred by leaders. Leaders should try to fertilize or activate collective level identity.

### *2.3.3 Self-concept and leadership*

“An overriding principle with respect to leadership is that self-concept operates as a boundary variable for leadership theories”( Lord & Brown, 2004). According to Lord & Brown (2004), different self-concept levels of followers need varied leadership styles and the effects of specific leadership behaviors are determined by self-concept levels. When individual-level self-concept is salient for both leaders and followers, a more hierarchical person-centered type of leadership is appropriate, such as transactional leadership. When relational-level self-concept is salient, dyadic-level process, such as LMX, mentoring, interpersonal justice, and reflected selves are likely to be more important in leadership. When self-concept is at the collective-level, leadership practices that foster group or organizational level performance should be the core focus. For example, timely innovation and vision will reflect follower’s beliefs and perspectives. At this level, transformational leadership may match the situation. The tasks of leaders are threefold: the first is to develop follower’s chronic self-concept to the preferred level; the second is to activate high-level WSC, and the third is to identify the real chronic self-concept of the followers and then practice appropriate leadership styles. This means levels of self-concept and leadership styles need to be matched, and measuring the self-concept level of employees is also critical.

In addition to the boundary role of self-concept, it is also important to assess the mediating role of different levels of the self-concept simultaneously (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). It was found that transformational leadership and LMX were positively related to group commitment (Ariani, 2010; DeConinck, 2011; Wikaningrum,

2007), helping behavior (Dadhich & Bhal, 2008), and instrumentality, whereas passive leadership may have negative relationships with them. How self-concept mediates these relationships needs more investigation.

#### *2.3.4 Self-concept and justice*

When individual-level self-concept defines the WSC, one may produce biased perceptions of both the self and others, and distributive justice may be salient (Lord & Brown, 2004). Relational self-concept and interpersonal justice are very important in the early stage of dyadic relations, and interpersonal justice plays a critical bifurcating role in which low interpersonal justice fosters individual self-concept, while high interpersonal justice develops collective self-concept. This argument suggests that organizational justice, especially interpersonal justice, is very important for employee self-concept development within organizations. It is also a critical stage for leaders to influence followers to develop collective-level identity. When collective-level self-concept is active, procedural justice may be important because followers at this stage will be more concerned about the procedure that is enacted for the whole group. The relationship between self-concept and justice is twined, or interactive, so when we consider the relationship between leadership, self-concept, and justice, it can be described as being the following order: (1) leadership, self-concept, justice, and outcomes; or (2) leadership, justice, Self-concept, and outcomes.

#### *2.3.5 Self-concept related outcomes.*

Van Knippenberg et al. (2004)'s review on leadership, and self-concept found that most of the studies support the idea that relational-level identity mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and empowerment, self-efficacy, collective-efficacy and organization-based self-esteem; while collective-level identity mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and cooperation, in pursuit of the collective interest. Individual-level identity relates to

low relational and collective interests. In summary, transformational leadership plays a more important role in changing follower's self-concept and outcomes. Lord and Brown (2004) indicated that preferred organizational citizenship behaviors relate to collective-level concept and relational-level concept stronger than to individual-level concept, and organizational citizenship behaviors are critical links between organizational concept and customer perceptions of service quality (Bell & Menguc, 2002). As a result, self-concept is important to shaping employee organizational behaviors.

#### 2.4 Justice theory

Organizational justice refers to perceptions of fairness by employees in organizational settings (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Justice perceptions may produce varied attitudes and behaviors of employees such as trust in, and satisfaction with leaders. Organizational citizenship behaviors, and these outcomes are important for organizations (Lord & Brown, 2004). Organizational justice indicates employee perceptions of fairness in the workplace. Because it relates to significant individual and organizational outcomes (Johnson et al., 2006), justice has received ample attention from researchers.

Colquitt (2001) tested four models of justice from one-factor to four-factor models by using CFA, and the four-factor model including procedural, distributive, interpersonal, and informational justice was well supported. Distributive justice focuses on whether outcomes are consistent with norms for outcome allocation, while procedural justice pertains to the fairness on making outcome distribution decisions ( Lord & Brown, 2004). Interpersonal justice reflects the degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect by authorized parties or third parties involved in executing procedures or determining outcomes. Informational justice focuses on the explanations provided to people that convey information about why

procedures or outcomes were used in a certain way (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Yee Ng, 2001).

A meta-analysis by Colquitt (2001) showed that a two-factor model, which distinguishes distributive from procedural justice, was dominant in justice researches. On the other hand, organizational justice researchers have long debated the distinction between procedural and interpersonal justice. Recently, several researchers have argued that procedural and interpersonal justice can be distinguished from one another using social exchange theory. For example, Bies (2001) provided evidence that people can distinguish interpersonal from procedural justice. In particular, procedural justice applies more to the exchange between the individual and the organization, whereas interpersonal justice generally refers to the exchange between the individual and his or her supervisor. Based on these findings, procedural justice should be more closely associated with reactions toward upper management and organizational policies, whereas interpersonal justice should be more closely associated with reactions toward one's supervisor and job performance. Bies and Moag (1986) introduced interpersonal justice by combining interpersonal and informational justice in the four-factor model to emphasize the importance of the quality of the interpersonal treatment people receive when procedures are implemented, and the three-factor model was proposed including procedural, interpersonal and distributive justice. The model was also supported by Cropanzano (2002), and it was commonly used in researches, so this thesis was based on the three-factor model.

Three outcomes including instrumentality, group commitment, and helping behavior were tested and found to be positively related to distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice respectively (Colquitt, 2001). Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), organizational commitment, and withdrawal are also driven largely by justice perceptions, and procedural justice has stronger linkages with OCB



than does distributive justice. Procedural justice has stronger relationships with organizational commitment than does distributive justice, while the relationship between withdrawal and the three kinds of justice is not consistent (Colquitt et al., 2001). Subsequently the relationships between justice and related consequences mentioned above still need more investigation.

## 2.5 Organizational commitment

Commitment, as a psychological concept, has been defined by many researchers and with varied names and contents (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005). Commitment is “the strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization”, which is reflected by: (a) the strong belief in the goals and values of an organization; (b) a willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the organization; and (c) the desire to maintain organizational membership (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Operationally, the three-factor construct of organizational commitment is widely accepted, which consists of affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006; Lee, Allen, & Meyer, 2001; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnysky, 2002; Powell & Meyer, 2004).

Of the three factors, affective commitment is related to helping behaviors (Organ & Ryan, 1995). “Affective organizational commitment deals with how closely a person relates to, and is interested in, being a part of his or her organization” (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005, p. 243). The consequence of affective commitment is expected to have the strongest positive effect on desirable work behaviors (e.g. attendance, performance, organizational citizenship behavior) (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Most measures of organizational commitment focus on affective commitment (Colquitt et al., 2001), so affective commitment is still the focus of this study.

Commitment can be directed toward various foci including the organization, occupation, supervisor, team, customer, and union (Organ

& Ryan, 1995). So commitment can occur at both the group level and the organizational level, therefore employee commitment in this thesis refers to group commitment and organizational commitment. Group commitment and organizational commitment are largely driven by justice perceptions, and it was found that procedural justice and distributive justice have a significant influence on organizational commitment (Colquitt et al., 2001; Gaertner, 1999; E. Lambert, 2003). The influence of interpersonal justice on employee commitment and group commitment was less discussed, and this provided an interesting topic of study for this thesis.

## 2.6 Turnover intention

Turnover is a universal issue of business, especially in the hotel industry, which tends to maintain a high voluntary turnover rate. The antecedents of turnover have been studied by many researchers. They are predominately identified as being job satisfaction (Currivan, 1999; Gaertner, 1999; Kankaanranta et al., 2007; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001), HR satisfaction (Khilji & Wang, 2007), abusive supervision (Harvey, Stoner, Hochwarter, & Kacmar, 2007), perceived external prestige and needs for organizational identification (Mignonac, Herrbach, & Guerrero, 2006), organizational justice (Parker & Kohlmeyer, 2005), poor supervision, poor work environment, and inadequate compensation (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000).

Consequences of turnover can be fatal to organizations. The costs of turnover are mentioned as the main consequence (Tziner & Birati, 1996); meanwhile, it also determines customer satisfaction, loyalty, and finally the bottom line and growth of the organization.

Turnover is, generally speaking, bad for hotel services, while turnover intention may cause more serious problems in the service delivery process due to negative attitudes of employees. It is therefore argued that turnover intention requires more attention in studies,

because it may reduce turnover rate and keep stable service quality if managers detect or predict employees with turnover intention.

Turnover intention, as a predictor of turnover, is conceived to be a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Turnover intention reflects the quality of internal marketing, and will influence external quality to customers. Causes and alleviations of turnover intention have been thoroughly studied (Blau, 2007; Bridges, Johnston, & Sager, 2007; Currivan, 1999; Gaertner, 1999; Kankaanranta et al., 2007; Morrow, McElroy, Laczniak, & Fenton, 1999; Sexton, McMurtrey, Michalopoulos, & Smith, 2005). Existing studies were mainly focused on job satisfaction and organizational commitment as causes of turnover intention. For consequences, excluding costs, turnover intention may reduce intrinsic motivation of employees at work, as Brickner et al. (1986) found in laboratory settings. Social loafing may occur when employees have low motivation on involvement in tasks, but the relationship between turnover intention and social loafing were seldom investigated.

Despite the industry's high turnover rate, some hotels manage to keep theirs relatively low. In addition some employees will leave one hotel to join another, despite no real increase in salary. We have to ask why they leave and what they are looking for. A superficial answer may be that they are not satisfied with their job, but if we go deeper into the question, there may be more critical causes that lead to turnover. For example, leadership style and employees' perception of justice may play an important role in employee satisfaction, commitment to an organization, and their performances.

## 2.7 Social loafing

Social loafing refers to an effect whereby individuals put forth less effort working in a group than when working alone (Mulvey & Klein, 1998), and it can be a way in which individuals respond to

perceived injustice attributed to leaders and co-workers (Murphy, Wayne, Liden, & Erdogan, 2003). Social loafing may reduce the motivation of other group members when it is perceived, and may cause quality problems in service delivery.

Interpersonal justice and distributive justice were negatively related to social loafing, and the indirect causal relationship between social loafing and the two justice perceptions was supported by Murphy et al. (2003). But the direct relationships between them were not tested and procedural justice was not discussed in previous studies, and further studies on these relationships were not available. With limited findings on the direct relationships between justice perception (and justice-related satisfaction) and social loafing, further studies need to be conducted to get more knowledge on the relationships.

Absenteeism and withdrawal are loafing oriented, and affective commitment was found to be negatively related to withdrawal, including lateness, absence, and turnover (Krausz, Koslowsky, & Eiser, 1998), but positively related to job performance and altruism (Chen & Francesco, 2003; Meyer et al., 2002). So commitment is a key to employee social loafing and OCB.

## 2.8 Helping behavior

The root of helping behavior lies in the identity of organizational citizenship behavior. Helping behavior or so called altruism or helping (or helpfulness) is a factor of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) that provides aid to specific persons such as co-workers, leaders or customers. Katz & Kahn (1966) pointed out that employees often do more than expected from their organizations, and they named this “extra role behavior”. One result of this extra role behavior is to be helpful to fellow employees inside or outside of the employee’s department or physical place of work. Employee helping behavior is what leaders expected, while the causes of it were less discussed. This

thesis intends to investigate factors that influence employee helping behavior.

In summary, the hotel industry is service-oriented. Services are deeds, processes, and performances (Valarie Zeithaml & Mary Jo Bitner, 2004), so employee behaviors are the keys to hotel service quality. Services quality is difficult to measure due to its intangible characteristics, and the processes of production are even harder to control due to heterogeneity of services. Supervisors cannot follow every customer contact employee to control the quality, while employees can deliver services with more or less efforts, so extra efforts, self discipline, self efficacy, and helping behaviors are the keys to service quality, therefore, good organizational citizenship behaviors should be the goal of leadership.

## 2.9 Hypotheses of papers in the thesis

Bases on the purposes and the conceptual model (see Figure 1) of the thesis, four empirical studies were conducted with three papers published and one ready for submission (see Appendix). Title, purpose, and hypotheses of each study of the four papers are presented in Table 3.

## **3. METHODOLOGY**

For the completion of the abovementioned four studies, the following research methods regarding instrument, sampling, data collection, and data analysis were used in the processes, and they are explained as followings.

Table 3 Outlines of the four papers

<p>Paper I : Testing the structure and effects of Full Rang Leadership Theory in the context of China’s hotel industry</p>
<p>Purpose of the study: To test if the structure of FRLT is applicable in China’s hotel industry at supervisor level and related effects of different leadership styles.</p>
<p>Hypotheses:  H<sub>1</sub>: FRLT is a nine-factor construct in China’s hotel industry.  H<sub>2</sub>: Transformational leadership is positively related to effectiveness of leadership, employee satisfaction, and employee extra effort.  H<sub>3</sub>: Passive leadership is negatively related to effectiveness of leadership, employee satisfaction, and employee extra effort.</p>
<p>Paper II: How is leadership related to employee self-concept? -an empirical study in the hospitality industry</p>
<p>Purpose of the study: To identify drives of employee self-concept and its influences on employee attitudes and behaviors.</p>
<p>Hypotheses:  H<sub>1</sub>: Transformational leadership is positively related to collective self-concept.  H<sub>2</sub>: LMX mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and collective self-concept.  H<sub>3</sub>: LMX mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and relational self-concept.  H<sub>4</sub>: LMX is positively related to relational self-concept.  H<sub>5</sub>: Passive leadership is positively related to individual self-concept.  H<sub>6</sub>: LMX mediates the relationship between passive leadership and individual self-concept.</p>
<p>Paper III: Justice perceptions and drives of hotel employee social loafing behavior</p>
<p>Purpose of the study: To identify causes of employee social loafing behavior and the causal relationships.</p>

<p><b>Table 3 (cont.)</b> Hypotheses:</p> <p>H<sub>1</sub>: Justice perception is positively related to justice-related satisfaction.  H<sub>2</sub>: Justice perception is positively related to employee commitment.  H<sub>3</sub>: Justice-related satisfaction is positively related to employee commitment.  H<sub>4</sub>: Justice perception has negative impact on employee turnover intention.  H<sub>5</sub>: Justice-related satisfaction has negative impact on employee turnover intention.  H<sub>6</sub>: Employee commitment has negative impact on employee turnover intention.  H<sub>7</sub>: Justice perception is negatively related to employee social loafing behavior.  H<sub>8</sub>: Justice-related satisfaction is negatively related to employee loafing behavior.  H<sub>9</sub>: Employee commitment is negatively related to employee loafing behavior.  H<sub>10</sub>: Employee turnover intention is positively related to employee social loafing behavior.</p>
<p>Paper IV: Antecedents of employee helping behavior in the hospitality industry</p>
<p>Purpose of the study: To identify antecedents of employee helping behavior in hotel industry and the causal relationships.</p>
<p>Hypotheses:</p> <p>H<sub>1</sub>: Interpersonal justice perception is positively related to employee group commitment.  H<sub>2</sub>: Interpersonal justice is positively related to LMX.  H<sub>3</sub>: LMX is positively related to employee group commitment.  H<sub>4</sub>: Interpersonal justice is positively related to helping behavior.  H<sub>5</sub>: Employee group commitment is positively related to helping behavior.  H<sub>6</sub>: LMX is positively related to helping behavior.</p>

### 3.1 Instruments of the studies

The 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = no idea, 4 = agree, to 5 = strongly agree are used to measure all of the questions except for the measures for FRLT, which use a frequency level from 1 = not at all, to 5 = frequently, if not always. Questions of the instrument are originally in English, to conduct the survey in China's hotel industry, the translation and back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1980) was used in administering the questionnaire. The instrument was translated from English into Chinese by a bilingual scholar first, afterwards, an English teacher (Chinese) was invited to back-translate the questionnaire from Chinese to English.

#### *3.1.1 Measures for FRLT*

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire-MLQ (Form 5X) from Avolio & Bass (2004) was used to test the full-range leadership theory. The development of MLQ experienced varied versions from Form 1 to Form 5X by different researchers as illustrated (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003, p. 263). The constructs were tested in different industries like hotels, banks and public organizations, and the factors included in the constructs were also varied from 1 factor to 9 factors. It was claimed by Avolio & Bass (2004) that the nine-factor model has the best fit compared to other editions. The latest version of MLQ is the MLQ (Form 5X) with 45 items, in which 36 items represent the nine factors of FRLT and 9 items assess outcomes of leadership. The outcomes include three factors: "extra effort", "effectiveness", and "satisfaction with the leadership".

#### *3.1.2 Measures for LMX*

The Measurement procedures of LMX was examined and redefined, concerning the difference between new version and the old version. Many researches were conducted on multidimensional LMX, but the factors are highly correlated and this suggests that a single



dimension is enough for measuring LMX. According to Graen (1995), there are 2-item, 4-item, 5-item, 7-item, 10-item, 12-item, and 12-item versions of LMX. Keller and Dansereau (2001) evaluated the 2-item, 3-item, 4-item, and 5-item LMX, and they concluded that adding one more item to the former scale of LMX may increase reliability but the validity may be reduced for the 5-item LMX, so when choosing the version of LMX, the validity and reliability should be taken into consideration. A seven-item measure of LMX is recommended by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) for its content validity such as the item “how effective is your working relationship with your leader?” which is the most appropriate measure of LMX, and its consistent reliability compared to 5-item, and 10-item LMXs. As a result, the 7-item LMX is predominately used in studies (Boies & Howell, 2006; Michael, Guo, Wiedenbeck, & Ray, 2006), so the 7-item LMX measure was used in this study.

### *3.1.3 Measures for self-concept*

Chronic self-concept was measured with the Levels of Self-concept Scale-LSCS (Selenta & Lord, 2002). The LSCS contains multiple subscales for each of the three levels of self-concept, and each level contains five items. According to Johnson et al. (2006), comparative identity, which emphasizes one’s abilities, performance, and general standing above that of others, was used to measure the individual level. An example item is: “I have a strong need to know how I stand in comparison to my coworkers.” Being concerned with others, which emphasizes sharing benevolent relationships with other individuals (e.g., being committed, helping, and caring), measured the relational level. An example item is: “caring deeply about another person such as a close friend or relative is important to me.” Group achievement focus, which emphasizes being a member of a successful group, measured the collective level. An example item is: “I feel great pride when my team or group does well, even if I’m not the main reason for its success.”

### *3.1.4 Measures for justice perception*

The three focal dimensions of Colquitt's (2001) scales were used in assessing organizational justice, which are based on the study of Johnson et al. (2006). The high reliabilities and validity of the instrument are very good for measuring justice perceptions. Distributive justice was measured with four items, which assesses the extent to which respondents perceive their work outcomes as being fair. Procedural justice was measured with seven items, which assesses the extent to which respondents perceive the system that determines pay and other work outcomes as fair. Four items were used to measure interpersonal justice, which assesses the extent that the individuals were responsible for enacting procedures and treating the respondent with respect and dignity.

### *3.1.5 Measures for turnover intention*

Turnover intention was measured with varied items by different researchers. Some of them used one-item questions since turnover intention is clearly defined by the question itself, and a single-item measure was considered sufficient to measure it (Sackett & Larson, 1990; Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). For example, one question used was "Sometimes I feel like leaving this organization" (Khilji & Wang, 2007); another question was "Barring any unforeseen circumstances, I intend to stay with my current firm" (Parker & Kohlmeyer, 2005); a third example is "Taking everything into consideration, how likely is it that you will make a genuine effort to find a new job (with another employer) within the next year?" (E. G. Lambert et al., 2001)

Three-item or more than three-item questionnaires were also used by researchers (Karatepe, Uludag, Menevis, Hadzimehmedagic, & Baddar, 2006; Luthans, Zhu, & Avolio, 2006; Vidal, Valle, & Aragon, 2007). The following three questions were designed for measuring the turnover intention of hotel employees (Karatepe et al., 2006), and they

are: “I often think about leaving this hotel,” “It would not take much to make me leave this hotel,” and “I will probably be looking for another job soon.” For the validity and reliability of the construct, the above three-item questionnaire was used to measure employee turnover intention in hotels of this study.

### *3.1.6 Measures for organizational commitment and group commitment*

There are various questionnaires for organizational commitment studies. For example the four-item questionnaire (Yoon & Thye, 2002), the 9-item measure (Parker & Kohlmeyer, 2005) and 15-item measure (Luthans et al., 2006), and six-item, seven-item questionnaires. In this study, we chose the four-item factor used by Yoon & Thye (2002) to measure employee organizational commitment for its high reliability, whereas group commitment was measured with three items from Allen & Meyer (1996).

### *3.1.7 Measures for helping behavior, social loafing, and instrumentality*

Helping behavior and instrumentality were measured with three and two questions respectively (Colquitt, 2001). Measures for social loafing consists of 4 items from Price, Harrison, & Gavin(2006).

## 3.2 Sampling

A two step procedure was used to collect data. For the first step, a convenience sampling method was used to select hotels in mainland China because many hotels were not open to survey requests. To get representative data, forty-three hotels were selected ranging from two to five stars, including state-owned (74%), privately-owned (12%), and joint-venture properties (14%). For the second step, to be representative, every three frontline employees in each department at a hotel were selected to participate in the survey. To get an absolute precise estimate of the population proportion within  $\pm 5$  percentage

points at 95% of confidence level, the sample size can be calculated with the formula:  $n = z^2 \times p(1-p)/H^2$  (Churhcill & Iacobucci, 2007), in which  $z = 1.96$  for 95% confidence level;  $H = 0.05$  for confidence interval; and let estimated population proportion  $p = 0.5$  to get more a conservative estimate of the sample size, then  $n = 385$ . Based on past experiences, the average response rate is around 50% and valid rate is about 85%. Therefore, the total number of questionnaires distributed should be at least 906. In order to get an adequate amount of valid responses, 1000 questionnaires were delivered.

Employee demographic information shows that most of the respondents were from food & beverage (21.9%), housekeeping (20.5%), front office (19.9%), facility, engineering & security (17.5%), and sales/marketing (14.3%). The average age of the respondents is 29 years old. Women accounted for 60.7%, and men accounted for 39.3%. Most of the employees had professional or high school educations (47.0%), while only 17.9% of the employees had bachelor degrees and 1.1% of them had master degrees. The average monthly income of employees is around US\$226, ranking the lowest among varied industries based on the latest statistics in China (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2011).

Table 4 Sample of hotels in China

Stars of hotels	Frequency	Percent (%)	Ownership	Frequency	Percent (%)
2-star	5	12	State-owned individual	10	23
3-star	20	47	State-owned in a group	22	51
4-star	10	23	Public-owned	5	12
5-star	8	18	Joint-venture	6	14

Table 5 Employee profile

Profile	Percent (%) (Frequency)	Profile	Percent (%) (Frequency)
Gender		Education	
Male	39.3 (211)	Middle school or lower	17.3 (90)
Female	60.7 (326)	Professional school or high school	47.0 (247)
Department		Bachelor	17.9 (94)
Front office	19.9 (102)	Master	1.1 (6)
Sales/Marketing	14.3 (73)	Certificate of training	5.5 (29)
Food & Beverage	21.9 (112)	Others	11.2 (59)
Concierge	3.9 (20)		
Room service	20.5 (105)	Average Income ( US\$)	226
Facility, Engineering & Security	16.6 (85)	Average Age (years old)	29
Human resource	2.9 (15)		

### 3.3 Data collection strategy

A pilot test of the questionnaire was conducted in a hotel. Some wording problems were identified and the questionnaire was revised to avoid confusion. With the strong support of hotel managers, a total of 640 responses were collected indicating a response rate of 71%. A total of 326 responses were collected from 20 hotels in Beijing by one of the authors in person, and 314 responses were collected from 23 hotels in other provinces administered by HR managers of the hotels, and the questionnaires filled out by employees were mailed to the author. With all 640 questionnaires received, 585 valid responses were used in the data analysis. A total of 55 returned questionnaires were excluded in the study due to being incomplete, thus the valid response rate is 91.4%.

### 3.4 Analysis strategies

Statistical tools of SPSS 15.0 and Lisrel 8.80 software were used in data analysis. Analytical techniques including descriptive analysis for the distribution of the employee profiles, correlations among variables, regressions analysis, ANOVA, and EFA were

conducted with SPSS 15.0. The Lisrel 8.80 program was used to conduct validity and reliability analysis, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and structural equation modeling analysis (SEM).

## **4. RESULTS**

### **4.1 Findings in paper I**

Paper I: Testing the structure and effects of Full Rang Leadership Theory in the context of China's hotel industry

The purpose of paper I is to test if FRLT is applicable in China's hotel industry at supervisor level and to investigate related effects of different leadership styles. The three hypotheses (see Table 3) were tested along with extra findings that contribute to theory and practices.

#### *4.1.1 Results of hypothesis test*

For H<sub>1</sub> (FRLT is a nine-factor construct in China's hotel industry), the validity and reliability of the instrument MLQ (form 5X) was tested using SPSS 15.0 and Lisrel 8.80. From the perspective of reliability, the internal consistency reliability statistics (Cronbaha's Alpha) of all nine factors are between 0.5 to 0.7, which indicate moderate internal consistency of the items of each factor; furthermore, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the nine-factor construct showed poor goodness-of-fit indices such as GFI=0.77, and AGFI=0.72, which present poor validity of the nine-factor construct compared to Avolio and Bass (2004)'s results (see Table 5 in paper I in appendix), so H<sub>1</sub> was rejected.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) indicated that the nine-factor model of MLQ (form 5X) can be categorized in to two factors, and they are named Transformational leadership and Passive leadership. The former consists of 12 items from IS, IM, IC, and CR, and the latter includes 8 items from MBEP and LF from MLQ (form 5X), and the cumulative value increased to 41.34% (see Table 6 in paper I in

appendix). The components validation of factor analysis in terms of Split-Sample estimation with VARIMAX rotation showed that the factor structures, factor items, item loadings, and item Communalities are very consistent across the two samples (see Table 7 in paper I in appendix), and this result presents good validity of the two-factor construct; moreover, CFA analysis was also conducted to test the validity of the two-factor construct with Lisrel 8.80, and the goodness-of-fit indices increased dramatically compared to the goodness-of-fit indices of the nine-factor model in this study (RMSEA=0.065; GFI=0.91; AGFI=0.89; CFI=0.97, see Table 5 in paper I in appendix). It should be noted that the results of this study show that CR is closely related to transformational leadership construct, which was supported by (Tejeda et al., 2001). In addition, Schriesheim, Wu, & Scandura (2009)'s suggestion that MBEP and LF were mixed and they can be combined together to represent "non-leadership" or "passive leadership" is also supported by this study.

In conclusion, the two-factor model of FRLT was identified at supervisor level in China's hotel industry, which means FRLT can be re-categorized into *transformational* leadership and *passive* leadership. *Transactional* leadership is not salient, while contingent reward of it can be considered a behavior of *transformational* leadership.

With regard to H<sub>2</sub> (Transformational leadership is positively related to effectiveness of leadership (EFF), employee satisfaction (SAT), and employee extra effort (EE)), there are strong positive correlations between transformational leadership and EFF, SAT, and EE with coefficients of 0.84, 0.80, 0.82 respectively, while it was also confirmed that passive leadership is negatively related to EFF, SAT, and EE with mediocre coefficients of -0.50, -0.50, and -0.45 respectively (see Table 8 in paper I in appendix), so H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>3</sub> were supported in this study.

#### *4.1.2 Extra findings*

##### *Impacts of gender on leadership, EE, EFF, and SAT*

To identify differences in perceptions of leadership styles and their effects by gender, an independent sample t-test was conducted. Results show that there are significant differences in perceptions of transformational leadership and SAT between genders, while no significant differences in Passive leadership, EE, and EFF, was found between the two genders (see Table 9 in paper I in appendix). Male employees perceived higher satisfaction with supervisors, and transformational leadership than do female employees. In general, the average scores of EE, EFF, SAT, and transformational leadership were not very high (all less 4.0) with the scores range from 1 to 5, and the low score of Passive leadership (less than 2.0) means that supervisors were not extremely passive at work.

##### *Effects of leadership in different ownership of hotels*

National cultures can influence leadership behaviors and effects, while organizational culture may also influence leader's behaviors. For example, the culture of private properties is frequently called the boss' culture. Autocratic leadership is salient; state-owned hotels may show some extent of bureaucratic leadership, while foreign or joint-venture hotels may present some degree of participative leadership. These kinds of leadership behaviors may be reflected by evaluation of items in the MLQ (form 5X), so independent sample one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare differences in leadership styles and their effects (Transformational leadership, Passive leadership, EE, EFF, SAT) among different ownerships of hotels.

Results showed no significant differences in the five factors among different ownerships of hotels (state-owned, public-owned, foreign, and joint-venture hotels). The reason for this result is that the managers were almost all Chinese, and even for the public-owned



hotels, they are managed by hotel management groups that are from state-owned managers. Confucianism has been firmly established as an undeniable system governing Chinese ideology and behaviors (Xing, 1995), so it is difficult to have significant changes for managers in their ideology and behaviors in leadership even though they are in different kinds of organizations.

*Comparisons of leadership styles between supervisor self reports and employee evaluations*

Independent t-tests for mean differences show that there are significant differences between supervisors' self evaluation and subordinates' evaluation on their leadership, and supervisors evaluated themselves higher than their subordinates on all the factors of MLQ (form 5X) (see Table 6). The negative results of mean differences in MBEA, MBEP, and LF also mean that supervisors tend to evaluate themselves higher than their subordinates based on the meaning of the factors. The differences in IC and IS are very large; II (B) and CR are medium; whilst others are small. In detail, supervisors tend to believe that they are more transformational than passive in leadership styles, and feel they are more effective than their employees do in EE, EFF, SAT.

**Table 6 Independent Samples t-test in terms of self and follower evaluation**

Factors	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
II(A)	.00	.34	.06
II(B)	.00	.48	.06
IM	.00	.21	.06
IS	.00	.57	.05
IC	.00	.81	.06
CR	.00	.48	.06
MBEA	.00	-.26	.06
MBEP	.00	-.23	.06
LF	.00	-.25	.06
EE	.00	.27	.07
EFF	.00	.32	.06
SAT	.00	.38	.07

#### *4.1.3 Summary*

In summary, FRLT was identified as a two-factor construct at supervisor level in China's hotel industry, and two leadership styles were identified: Transformational leadership and Passive leadership. Items of transactional leadership in FRLT are separated, and some of them were categorized into transformational leadership, while others were categorized into Passive leadership. Effectiveness of transformational leadership is significant, positive and strong on EE, EFF, SAT; while there was significant negative and mediocre effectiveness of Passive leadership on EE, EFF, SAT.

Genders and ownership of hotels does not influence differences in leadership styles, and effectiveness of leadership, but means of FRLT factors are differ significantly between supervisors' self ratings and employees' ratings, so there are gaps in perceptions on leadership performance between the two parties.

#### *4.2 Findings in paper II*

Paper II: How is leadership related to employee self-concept? -an empirical study of the hospitality industry

Purpose of the study: Based on the findings of paper I, the effects of the two leadership styles and LMX were further discussed in the context of China's hotel industry at supervisor level; to test the role of employee self-concept in the relationship between leadership styles and employee attitudes and behaviors.

##### *4.2.1 Results of model and hypothesis test*

The model specifying paths from leadership styles to self-concept (see Figure 1 in paper II in appendix) and six hypotheses (see Table 3 in paper II in appendix) were tested with related statistical techniques and the results are as follows.

The goodness-of-fit indices for the model are:  $\chi^2$  (811, N= 585) = 1988.66,  $p < 0.001$ ; CFI = 0.95; SRMR = 0.07; RMSEA = 0.05; GFI = 0.88; AGFI= 0.87. These indices suggest that the model fits the data well (Byrne, 1998). While in reviewing the structural parameter estimates for the model, two of them are not significant such that the path from *transformational* leadership to collective level self-concept, and the path from *passive* leadership to LMX ( $\gamma$  values are 1.30 and -1.34 respectively), but other parameter estimates in the model were significant (see Table 2 in paper II in appendix).

For  $H_1$  (transformational leadership is positively related to collective self-concept), we found that although transformational leadership is moderately related to collective level self-concept from correlation analysis (see Table 2 in paper II in appendix), SEM analysis showed that the loading from transformational leadership to collective level self-concept is not significant ( $\gamma$  values is 1.30, which is less than the critical value 1.98), so these two variables are not causally related, and  $H_1$  is not supported.

Results showed that there are significant relationships between transformational leadership and LMX, and between LMX and collective level self-concept, so the relationship between transformational leadership and collective-level self-concept is mediated by LMX, then  $H_2$  (LMX mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and collective self-concept) is supported.

To test  $H_3$ , the significant correlations between transformational leadership and LMX (.67), between LMX and relational self-concept (.49), between transformational leadership and relational self-concept (.42) were identified. These correlations implied potential direct and mediated relationships among transformational leadership, LMX, and relational self-concept. To test the direct effect of transformational leadership in the original model, the revised model with the path from transformational leadership to relational self-concept added was

assessed by SEM analysis to see if the model fit was substantially changed ( $\Delta\chi^2$ ) in comparison to the original one.

Results of SEM analysis on the revised model showed a  $\Delta\chi^2 = .45$  with one degree of freedom ( $p > .05$ ), which is not a significant change; and there was no change in RMSEA (.05), so there was no significant direct effect of transformational leadership on relational self-concept (Hair et al., 2011); Furthermore, the relationship between transformational leadership and relational self-concept in the revised model was not significant ( $\gamma = -.06$ ;  $T = -.74$ ), while the paths from transformational leadership to LMX, and the path from LMX to relational self-concept were still significant. Therefore,  $H_3$  was supported and this means that the relationship between transformational leadership and relational self-concept was fully mediated by LMX, so LMX is indispensable in the relationship.

There is a significant relationship between LMX and relational level self-concept, so  $H_4$  (LMX is positively related to relational level self-concept) is supported. Results also showed that passive leadership is directly related to individual level self-concept, but not related to LMX, so  $H_5$  (passive leadership is positively related to individual self-concept) is supported, while  $H_6$  (LMX mediates the relationship between passive leadership and individual self-concept) is not supported.

#### *4.2.2 Summary*

The relationships among transformational, passive, LMX leadership and self-concept were tested based on six hypotheses in the model (see Figure 1 in paper II in appendix). Two of the hypotheses ( $H_1$  and  $H_6$ ) were not supported and four of them were supported. In summary, we found that first, there was no immediate effect of transformational leadership on collective self-concept, but it was mediated by LMX; second, there were significant relationships between LMX and the three levels of self-concept, in which the relationship between LMX and

interpersonal self-concept was the strongest (060), while the relationship between LMX and individual self-concept was the weakest (.36) among the three relationships; third, the impact of passive leadership on individual self-concept was weak (.25), and it was not mediated by LMX in the model, while it was not significantly correlated with individual self-concept, and weakly correlated with interpersonal and collective self-concept in the correlation analysis (see Table 1 in paper II in appendix). Based on the above findings of this study, we concluded the theoretical contributions and practical implications as follows.

#### 4.3 Findings in paper III

Paper III: Justice perceptions and drives of hotel employee social loafing behavior

The purpose of the study: To identify causes of employee social loafing behavior and the causal relationships among related variables.

##### *4.3.1 Results of model test and hypothesis test*

The model (see Figure 1 in paper III in appendix) and ten hypotheses (see Table 3) were tested with SEM analysis. Goodness-of-fit indices of the model are: Chi-square = 6669.01( $p < 0.01$ ),  $df = 585$ ; RMSEA = 0.13; SRMR = 0.12; CFI = 0.89. According to Byrne (1998), the goodness-of-fit indices of this model were relatively poor, for example, the RMSEA should be less than 0.08 to get reasonable goodness-of-fit; SRMR is good if it is less than 0.05; CFI, GFI, and AGFI should be greater than 0.90 to indicate a good model fit.

Based on Gamma and Beta values and related  $t$  values (see Table 2 in paper III in appendix), seven ( $H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4, H_6, H_9, H_{10}$ ) of the ten hypotheses in paper III are supported, two ( $H_5, H_8$ ) of them are partly supported (correlated with each other but not causally directly related), and one ( $H_7$ ) is not supported by the data in this study. In detail, justice perception is positively related to justice-related

satisfaction, and employee commitment, but negatively related to turnover intention, and not related to social loafing. Justice-related satisfaction is positively related to employee commitment, but not directly related to turnover intention and social loafing, while mediated by employee commitment. Employee commitment is negatively related to turnover intention and social loafing, while turnover intention is positively related to social loafing.

#### *4.3.2 Results of modified model hypothesis and test*

Detailed correlation analysis on first-order factors of the factors in the original model indicates the following strong correlations: procedural justice perception and employee management satisfaction; management satisfaction and employee organizational commitment; employee organizational commitment and employee turnover intention and employee social loafing behaviors (see Table 4 in paper III in appendix). These strong correlations suggest that the model may be improved by substituting the original factors with these new factors, so the modified model was built on the basis of the above findings.

The goodness-of-fit indices of the altered model (see Figure 2 in paper III in appendix) are improved (Chi-square=421.65 ( $p < 0.01$ ),  $df = 127$ ; RMSEA = 0.062; SRMR = 0.059; CFI = 0.97) when compared to the original model. Three main paths can be identified in the altered model: (1) from procedural justice to organizational commitment (direct and mediated by management satisfaction), to turnover intention, and to social loafing; (2) from procedural justice (mediated by management satisfaction) to social loafing; (3) from procedural justice (direct and mediated by management satisfaction), to turnover intention, and to social loafing. The effects of procedural justice on social loafing of the three paths were calculated by multiplying the related standardized coefficients ( $\gamma$ s and  $\beta$ s) of the paths in the model based on path theory, and the results are -0.03, -0.12, and -0.06 for respective paths. The sum of effects through the three paths is -0.21, which means 21% variance of social loafing is explained by selected antecedent

factors. The negative sign indicates that the more procedural justice is perceived, the less social loafing behavior is performed at work by employees.

With the same model structure, the altered model has different significant path relationships from the original one. Among the ten hypothesized relationships in the original model, seven are supported in the original, while eight are supported in the altered version (see Table 6 in paper III in appendix). This means that the relationships at a more general level (second-order factor) are different from those at a specific level (first-order factor).

#### *4.3.3 Extra findings*

Another important finding in the altered model is that the effect of the second path (from procedural justice to management satisfaction to social loafing) is greater than the other two, so the second path plays an important role in reducing employee social loafing behavior. Although organizational commitment does not influence social loafing directly, they are negatively related to each other. This indicates that these two factors have spurious correlations caused by management satisfaction, and this relationship reflects the important role of management satisfaction.

The above findings suggest that in order to reduce employee turnover intention and social loafing behavior, we need to improve employee satisfaction with hotel high-level management, and pay attention to employee organizational commitment.

#### *4.3.4 Summary*

The causal relationships from justice perceptions through justice-related satisfaction, employee commitment, and turnover intention to employee social loafing can be analyzed at different levels in terms of justice perceptions, justice related satisfactions, employee commitment. This study analyzed the relationships of variables at both a general and

an organizational level. Analyses at different levels may find different relationships among the factors, and results at each level can present insights on the relationships among related concepts. No matter at which level the analysis is conducted, employee commitment (organizational or group commitment) is always the key factor that bridges justice perceptions and employee turnover intention and social loafing behaviors.

#### 4.4 Findings in paper IV

Paper IV: Antecedents of employee helping behavior in the hospitality industry

Purpose of the study: To identify drives of employee helping behavior in hotel industry and the causal relationships among related variables.

##### *4.4.1 Results of model test*

The model (see Figure 1 in paper IV in appendix) and six hypotheses (see Table 3) were tested with SEM analysis. Goodness-of-fit indices are as follows: Chi-square = 415.13 ( $p = 0.0$ ),  $df = 98$ ; RMSEA = 0.074; NFI = 0.97; CFI = 0.98; RMR = 0.038; SRMR = 0.046; GFI = 0.92; AGFI = 0.89, and these indicate that the model fits the data very well (Byrne, 1998), so this model can be used to present the causal relationships between related variables in this study.

There are two paths reflecting the relationships from interpersonal justice to helping behavior based on correlation analysis (see Table 3 in paper IV in appendix): (1) interpersonal justice → affective group commitment → helping behavior; and (2) interpersonal justice → LMX → affective group commitment → helping behavior. The indirect influence of interpersonal justice on helping behavior through the two paths is 0.22 and 0.19 respectively. This is calculated by multiplying the standardized loadings of the paths, with the total influence being 0.41. Interpersonal justice and LMX are



important drives for employee affective group commitment, and the total influence (direct and indirect) of interpersonal justice on affective group commitment is 0.58. R-square values of the paths reflect the shared variances between the variables, and a 56% variance of helping behavior is explained by affective group commitment, which means affective group commitment is a good predictor of helping behavior.

#### 4.4.2 Results of hypothesis test

Results of path analysis (see Table 5 in paper IV in appendix) show that except for  $\gamma_{help-justice}$  and  $\beta_{help-LMX}$  (t-values fall between  $\pm 1.96$  are not significant (Byrne, 1998)), other  $\gamma_s$  and  $\beta_s$  are all significant at a level of 0.05 significance in the model. Therefore, hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 5 are supported, such that: interpersonal justice perception is positively related to employee affective group commitment; interpersonal justice is positively related to LMX; LMX is positively related to employee affective group commitment; Employee affective group commitment is positively related to helping behavior.

H<sub>4</sub> (Interpersonal justice is positively related to helping behavior), and H<sub>6</sub> (LMX is positively related to helping behavior) are partly supported since there is no direct relationship between LMX and helping behavior, and between interpersonal justice and helping behavior. Although the correlations between interpersonal justice and helping behavior, and between LMX and helping behavior are significant, they are not directly correlated, but are mediated by affective group commitment in the model.

It was concluded that Interpersonal justice and LMX are not direct drives for helping behavior, but they are important causes for affective group commitment, and affective group commitment is the key mediator between interpersonal justice (and LMX) and helping behavior.

#### *4.4.3 Extra findings on helping behavior*

The mean score of helping behavior is 4.22 with standard deviation of 0.73. It is relatively high for a five-score Likert-type scale for Chinese hotel employees. This may also be due to the effect of collective culture.

A related issue should be considered is if there are any differences in helping behavior between pre-1980 and post-1980 employees and between genders. To address this issue, independent samples t-tests were conducted, based on the data (see Table 4 in paper IV in appendix). The mean scores of helping behavior between the two groups are 4.17 (s.d. =0.62) and 4.21 (s.d. =0.65) for generations after 1980 and before 1980 respectively. Clearly, the results show that there is no significant difference between the two groups at the 0.05 significance level (*sig.* =0.29, *df* =518). This result is different from Choi (2006)'s finding that older employees and men reported more interpersonal helping behavior. It suggests that traditional Chinese culture has strong overriding influences on younger generations, even though the younger generations are more self-centered due to the one child policy. We noticed that there was minor difference between the pre-1980 generation and the post-1980 in the samples. However, whether such differences will lead to significant differences in the future needs more investigation.

With regard to the possible effect of gender on helping behavior, the mean score for men is 4.24 (s.d. = 0.60) and is 4.18 (s.d. = 0.63) for women with a difference of 0.057. There is no significant difference between the two genders based on results of independent samples t-test (*sig.* =0.294; *df* =530), so helping behavior is not associated with gender in China's hotel industry.

#### *4.4.4 Summary*

In summary, six hypotheses of the model were tested. Four of these six hypotheses are supported, with the other two being found to be partly supported because they are significantly correlated but not causally related in this study. The model on drives for employee helping behavior in the hospitality industry is confirmed.

Interpersonal justice and LMX do not influence employee helping behavior directly, which differs from Colquitt (2001)'s and Wang et al. (2008)'s findings. Instead, group commitment plays the mediating role between interpersonal justice (and LMX) and helping behavior. Instead, affective group commitment plays a mediating role between interpersonal justice or LMX and helping behavior. Therefore affective group commitment is the key linking factor in the model. Helping behavior among co-workers at hotels is driven by affective group commitment, while affective group commitment is mainly driven by interpersonal justice and LMX. Furthermore, LMX is also driven by interpersonal justice. Therefore, interpersonal justice and LMX are very important drives of employee helping behavior mediated by affective group commitment, which is an indispensable mediator. Finally, demographic variables like gender and age are not predictors of employee helping behavior.

## 5. DISCUSSIONS

### 5.1 The research questions and main findings

This thesis explored the impacts of supervisors' leadership on employees' attitudes and behaviors within the context of China's hotel industry. The assumption of this thesis was that knowledge of leadership theories was not explicitly understood nor well applied by hotel managers in China, and that western leadership theories have been introduced in training programs and MBA courses for current hotel managers. Younger generations or potential leaders in hotel

industry also studied western leadership theories at universities in China and abroad. This phenomenon elicited the following questions that direct the study of this thesis: (1) Are Western leadership theories appropriate for supervisors in China's hotel industry? (2) How is leadership style associated with employee self-concept? (3) What are the impacts of justice perceptions on employee attitudes such as satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and behaviors such as helping or social loafing behavior? In line with the above questions, four studies were conducted to discover answers and a better understanding on how western leadership theories can be applied in the context of Chinese culture.

For the first research question, the FRLT theory, which has been considered the most popular leadership theory, was empirically tested in China's hotel industry at supervisor level. Results of Paper 1 show that FRLT is a two-factor construct in this study rather than a nine-factor construct, and we named these two factors as *transformational leadership* and *passive leadership*. The results also show that transformational leadership has strong positive impacts on effectiveness of leadership, extra effort, and satisfaction with leadership; whereas passive leadership has moderate negative influences. The above findings indicated that the FRLT should not be used directly in China, but can be applied with modifications for supervisors.

With regard to the second question, employee self-concept is considered to be an important factor on employee attitudes and behaviors as it was explained in the literature review. Paper 2 examined the antecedents of employee self-concept, and the results show that LMX is directly related to three levels of self-concept, and it mediates the relationships between transformational leadership and three levels of self-concept. Transformational leadership has a strong impact on collective and relational level self-concept, but LMX leadership is the key to this process of influence, while passive leadership only has a weak relationship with individual self-concept.

In Paper 3 and 4, antecedents of employee attitudes such as organizational commitment, turnover intention, and behaviors such as helping and social loafing were investigated. Justice perceptions were identified as being drives of employee organizational commitment. In detail, procedural justice influences affective organizational commitment, while interpersonal commitment drives affective group commitment. Turnover intention was negatively related to justice perceptions and affective commitment, and it is the key drive for employee social loafing behavior. Interpersonal justice, LMX, and affective group commitment was positively related to employee helping behavior.

In conclusion, the impacts of leadership on employee attitudes and behaviors are mediated by justice perceptions, satisfaction with justice, employee self-concept, and affective commitment. These attitudes and behaviors will determine the service quality of hotels, and customer satisfaction. With the above findings, this thesis can make further important contributions to related theories and hospitality management practices.

## 5.2 Contributions to theory

This thesis made several important contributions to theories. First, related theories were tested in the context of Chinese culture, which provided comprehensive knowledge of the applicability of theories developed in western world. For instance, the nine-factor construct of FRLT was challenged by a two-factor construct at supervisor level in China's hotel industry in this thesis. This difference may be caused by cultural differences between western and eastern nations, which may influence the validity of the factors in the construct. The influence of culture on leadership theory can also be supported by the construct of transformational leadership (TLQ) developed in Chinese culture (Shi et al., 2005) , which is different from those of Bass and Avolio (2004)'s transformational leadership in MLQ (form 5X).

Furthermore, the construct of *transformational* leadership defined in this thesis was different from Bass and Avolio (2004)'s construct, because the former of this thesis consists of factors IS, IM, IC, and CR, which combined some key items from the key factors of transformational and transactional leadership. This result indicates that for lower level leadership such as supervisors, transactional leadership is not salient, but can be re-categorized into transformational (CR) or passive leadership (MBEP). This finding indicates that FRLT should be applied carefully in another cultural context or at lower leadership level, rather than simply adopted when it is used in different conditions.

Second, the relationship between leadership and self-concept was investigated, which had been empirically studied somewhat less by researchers. The hypotheses of the positive relationship between transformational leadership and collective and relational self-concept were confirmed (Bass, 1985; Lord & Brown, 2004). The unclear relationship between LMX and relational self-concept (van Knippenberg et al., 2004) was tested, with LMX having a stronger relationship with relational self-concept than with collective and individual self-concept. It is also noticeable that the effect of passive leadership such as MBEP and *laissez-faire* leadership on employee self-concept, which was ignored by researchers, was examined and it is clear that there was only a weak positive effect on individual self-concept. These findings can be instructive to the theories about leadership and self-concept.

Third, Taking justice perceptions, LMX, and organizational commitment as antecedents of social loafing and helping behavior is new, in that the impacts of leadership like LMX, and perceptions of leader behaviors such as justice on employee attitudes and behaviors were integrated. The findings confirmed that there are delayed, rather than instant, impacts of leadership on employee behaviors. Therefore, organizational commitment is a crucial mediator to the influences of leadership (Yukl, 2006). Furthermore, this thesis discussed these causal

relationships at both organizational and group level separately, so the findings can offer more detailed information. Up to now, there were very few empirical studies on helping and social loafing behavior, especially in organizational contexts from literature review, and most of the studies were based on a small sample size of students. Therefore, findings of this study can be noticeable to related theories for its large sample size and the field survey in the hospitality industry.

### 5.3 Contributions to practice

Findings of this thesis can be especially instructive to hotel practices in terms of the leadership of supervisors, employee perceptions of justice, organizational commitment, and organizational behaviors. Important implications of the findings are highlighted as follows.

The Leadership of hotel supervisors were mainly transformational rather than passive leadership, from the perspective of FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Specifically, the combination of IS, IM, IC behaviors of transformational leadership and contingent reward (CR) of transactional leadership was perceived as being the main characteristics of supervisors. As introduced in the literature review, task-oriented and person-oriented behaviors were predominant factors in the “ideal leader” scale for Chinese employees (Littrell, 2002), so the mix of transformational and transactional may be more appropriate for Chinese leaders, and this thesis also confirmed this argument. Therefore, this newly defined transformational leadership can be applied in China’s hotel industry. Meanwhile, the lack of charisma suggested that supervisors should also develop their traits (IIA) or behaviors (IIB) to make their influences on employees more effective. At the same time, passive leadership should be avoided, especially for supervisors, to achieve the expected performances of employees.

LMX is also treated as leadership, especially for supervisors. It was found that LMX is important to employee self-concept and affective commitment, which are determinants of employee behaviors like helping or social loafing, and even turnover. The quality of LMX determines the supervisor-subordinate relationships, and good supervisor-subordinate exchange can build trust and understanding between the two parties, and even reduce employee turnover intention. In the situation of the high turnover rate of the hotel industry in China, it is an especially important issue for managers to retain good employees. Meanwhile, it is noticeable that, to some extent, the concept of “Guanxi” in Chinese culture is different from LMX (Wang & Kabanoff, 2005), in which the former is non-work related, and the latter is work related. It is indispensable in the process of transformational leadership for supervisors to achieve high quality of LMX, so supervisors should be both work and people oriented to enhance their leadership effects. Therefore, knowing how to deal with these two concepts well is also a challenge to supervisors.

Justice is becoming more important to younger generations of employees (post-1980). They have been better educated than former generations, so they may have higher expectations of self-fulfillment and career development than the older generations (pre-1980). Procedural justice perception influences employee commitment to the organization, or turnover intention, as well as their behavior (social loafing). It is also important to their promotion potential and future development. Procedural justice seems to be a problem for hotels based on this thesis (average score was 3.45, which was not high), so hotels should execute sound procedural justice to make sure that employees can be promoted fairly in their career development. If not, they will leave the hotels for other opportunities. The reason for the emphasis on younger generations is that they have become the main workforce of hotel employees, and the new employment system of China (from life-long employment to contract employment) has made employees less



committed to organizations. Consequently, procedural justice is becoming more crucial.

Interpersonal justice, along with LMX, is important to build group commitment and helping behavior, and supervisors are the key persons to practice interpersonal justice. Most employees in China were born after 1980, which means they are the only child of their families, and they expect more respect from others, especially from their supervisors or managers. They are also more self-centered than older generations (Su & Xiao, 2008). To build good team work in hotel departments, supervisors should conduct fair interpersonal justice, and build both good work and non-work relationships with employees. This will, in turn, improve the effects of supervisor leadership.

Distributive justice is important to employees who more concerned about payment; and most of the front line employees in hotels in China, even worldwide, have immigrated from other poor provinces, so this kind of justice is a basic requirement for most employees. Due to the low income of the hospitality sector in China (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2011), the improvement of distributive justice is even more urgent for managers in the current situation (average score was 3.45, which was not high).

All three of the levels of justice determine employee turnover intention and their performances in terms of helping behavior or social loafing. Hotel managers at different levels should pay attention to different justice perceptions of employees. For example, top managers should focus on procedural and distributive justice; interpersonal justice should be practiced by supervisors or middle managers.

It was found that employee collective and relational self-concept are the main causes of employee group commitment and helping behavior in this thesis. Collective self-concept is the most preferred, which can enhance group or organizational commitment and good organizational citizenship behaviors. Generally speaking, Chinese

culture is collective oriented (Hofstede, Pedersen, & Hofstede, 2002). It was found that the self-concept of Chinese hotel employees is more collective and relational oriented than individual oriented in this study. In the phase of social transformation in China, the characteristics of Chinese culture are facing challenges from Western cultures, so how to keep the high level of collective self-concept has become more important. Leadership (transformational and LMX), influence of traditional Chinese culture, and social influence can be strategies in maintaining the collective self-concept. The finding that male employees are more collective self-concept oriented than female employees also suggests the necessity to improve the identity level of female employee.

Organizational commitment and group commitment are the keys to turnover intention. The former would explain the intent to leave the organization, while the latter would determine the intention to leave the department or even the organization. Under the situation of high turnover rates and the need for high quality employees in the hotel industry in China, putting emphases on employee commitment is especially crucial, and this may determine the quality of services, customer satisfaction and loyalty. As it was found in this study, leadership, justice, and LMX are important antecedents of employee organizational commitment, therefore, supervisors and high level managers should pay attentions to these areas.

Helping behavior and social loafing behavior are two important behaviors in organizations, especially in the service sector, and they may cause totally different consequences for the success of organizations. Antecedents of these two kinds of behaviors can be attributed to leadership, justice, LMX, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. This means that whatever supervisors or managers do, can influence employee attitudes (commitment and turnover intention) and behaviors (helping or social loafing). Transformational leadership, justice and LMX are the preferred behaviors of supervisors

to help encourage performances such as helping behavior, and also to alleviate or reduce unexpected behaviors such as social loafing. There are more employees in a hotel in China than in Western countries due to differences in population and cost of employees between the two parties, so this situation makes the helping behavior between co-workers important, and it may also cause social loafing behavior if there are too many employees in a department.

#### 5.4 Limitations and future research

Although the surveys of China's hotel industry used by this thesis were as modern and accurate as possible, and significant theoretical and practical contributions were made, it is still subject to several limitations, and therefore subject to necessary future researches.

Firstly, it was a cross sectional study, so the findings are subjected to the time limitations of their applications, especially from a practical point of view. Therefore, longitudinal studies will be needed in case social and economical changes occur. Social and economic changes are facing Chinese society, and they may cause changes to people's beliefs and values in both life style and working environment, which could mean that employee attitudes and behaviors could become more varied.

Secondly, the survey was constrained to the specific context of Chinese culture and the service sector. Even though the findings of the study offer valuable theoretical and practical contributions, due to the differences with former studies carried out in western cultures, care should be taken if attempting to implement changes based on these findings, particularly in western countries. Furthermore, how to deal with these differences in management needs more discussion due to the globalization of the service industry, and in particular hotel services.

Thirdly, this study was based on supervisor levels in hotels, so findings should be used carefully at higher level management practices

because there are significant differences in trait, authority and experiences between the two groups. Consequently, further studies at higher level leadership are necessary to get a more complete knowledge of related theories.

Fourthly, the instruments of this study were mainly adopted from previous studies developed in the Western world. Due to cultural differences, some of the validity and reliability problems of constructs were encountered in this study, so related measures that are more appropriate for Eastern cultures must be investigated in future studies, especially in the context of Chinese culture.

Finally, questionnaires were self-rated by employees throughout the study due to the time and cost limitations, so the findings may be subject to bias. Therefore, multiple rating procedures should be considered in future studies to get more objective findings, and to improve the validity and reliability of the findings.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the overall purpose of this thesis, to investigate the effects of hotel supervisor leadership on employee attitudes and behaviors, was achieved through the study. First, this thesis conducted a general theoretical review on related theories such as the FRLT, LMX, justice, self-concept, organizational behaviors (helping, or social loafing behaviors) to build the hypotheses of this study; An empirical survey was then well designed, and data was collected with a large sample size and sufficient valid responses; Finally, four related papers that composite the complete picture of the thesis in terms of their hypotheses and related findings were written to test the hypotheses.

The progress of this thesis was based on a thorough literature review; therefore, the foundation of this study was well organized and firmly paved. So the contributions of this thesis can be helpful not only

to theories, but also to practices in the service sector. In detail, the test of construct of FRLT for supervisors in the context of China's hotel industry (paper 1) made a clear result that differentiates it from the original one. The relationship between leadership and employee self-concept was investigated in paper 2, which filled the gap created by a limited number of empirical studies having been conducted on it, so the findings were instructive to the theory. The effects of justice, and LMX on employee attitudes such as commitment, turnover intention, and their behaviors (helping, social loafing) were also well investigated in papers 3 and paper 4. The findings associated leadership, and organizational behavior together to provide a series of causal relationships that enriched related theories, and offered practical implications for service managers.

In addition to contributions to theories and practices, the findings of this thesis can also be highlighted from the perspective of the development of China's hotel industry. As a new and quickly developing industry of the service sector, management problems are obvious in terms of theory and operations. Leadership is especially problematic for Chinese managers in real world situations, and it is essential to a service industry that relies so strongly on people. On one hand, how to improve leadership skills in order to promote positive employee attitudes and behaviors is core to gaining competition advantages in the opened market of China; On the other hand, how to motive Chinese employees in hotels or other service industries is still important to international operators if they want to keep quality and competitive advantages. Therefore, findings of this thesis can be instructive to not only Chinese managers, but also to western managers in terms of practical implications in hospitality services. A final point need to be addressed is that it should be careful when applying western leadership theories in the context of Chinese culture by both Chinese leaders and western leaders. Here we still emphasize Hofstede (2001)'s argument that there are no universal solutions to organization and

management problems, but learning from other cultures is the best way to get new ideas; while for the cultural specific theories, it is necessary to proof them first before applying them in a different context.

We have seen some differences in the construct of transformational leadership between China and the west world. For instance, the differences between Shi et al. (2005)'s TLQ and Avolio & Bass (2004)'s five-factor model of transformational leadership in MLQ (form 5X), and the differences are mainly caused by cultural differences. In addition, the two-factor model of FRLT identified in paper 1 of this thesis also indicated that levels of leadership should also be considered when applying leadership theories. In line with contingent theory, the cultural context, and leader level should be taken into consideration when applying western leadership theories in China.

Learning well developed western leadership theories can help inexperienced leaders improve their leadership effectiveness; while a simple application of the theories without validation may cause side-effects or cultural conflicts between leaders and employees in a situation of globalization, especially for hospitality services. Therefore, researches on the validations of western leadership theories in China are crucial to make them well applied and more effective. Leaders should also pay attention to the appropriateness of applying western leadership theories or make adjustments of these theories when applying them in the Chinese context.

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## **PAPERS**

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## **Paper I**

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# **Testing the Structure and Effects of Full Rang Leadership Theory in the Context of China's Hotel Industry<sup>1</sup>**

Luo Zhenpeng, Institute of Tourism Beijing Union University, Bei Si Huan Dong Lu No.99, Chaoyang District, Beijing, 100101, China

Wang Youcheng , Rosen College of Hospitality Management, University of Central Florida, 9917 Universal , Blvd, Orlando, FL, 32819, USA

Marnburg Einar, Faculty of Social Science, University of Stavanger, Stavanger, Norway, N-4036

### **Abstract**

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<sup>1</sup> Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, Volume 22, Issue 6, 2013

This study examined the structure and effect of the Full Range Leadership Theory (FRLT) in the context of the China's hotel industry. Empirical tests through data collected from hotels in China indicate that the original western-oriented nine-factor Full Range Leadership Model represented by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Form 5X) is not well supported in China's hotel industry, witnessed by the poor goodness-of-fit indices and the low reliabilities of the factors. Exploratory factor analysis shows that MLQ (Form 5X) can be reduced to a two-factor model in China's hotel industry with the support of much improved goodness-of-fit indices. Test results indicate that cultural and other contextual issues should be considered when applying a theory in a specific industry context. Implications and discussions are provided based on the results of the study.

**Keywords**

Full range Leadership Theory, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, China, Hotels

## Paper II

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### **How is leadership related to employee self-concept?**

#### **-An empirical study in the hospitality industry<sup>2</sup>**

Luo Zhenpeng, Associate Professor, Institute of Tourism of Beijing Union University

Bei Si Huan Dong Lu No.99, Chaoyang District, Beijing 100101, China

(Email: lytzhengpeng@buu.edu.cn)

Wang Youcheng , Ph.D, Rosen College of Hospitality Management, University of Central Florida, 9907 Universal Blvd, Orlando FL 32819 USA

(Email: youcheng.wang@ucf.edu)

Marnburg Einar, Ph.D, Faculty of Social Science, University of Stavanger, NO-4036 Stavanger, Norway (Email: einar.marnburg@uis.no)

Øgaard Torvald, Ph.D, Norwegian School of Hotel Management, University of Stavanger, NO-4036 Stavanger, Norway (Email: torvald.ogaard@uis.no)

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<sup>2</sup>Submitted to 2nd World Research Summit for Tourism and Hospitality: Crossing the Bridge.15 – 17 December, 2013 UCF Rosen College of Hospitality Management, Orlando, Florida, USA

## **Abstract**

In the field of leadership research, the role of follower self-concept has attracted much research attention in recent years. In particular, its mediating role in the relationship between leadership and follower attitudes and behaviors was of great interests by researchers. The purpose of this study is to investigate how leadership styles such as transformational leadership and leader-member exchange (LMX) relate to employee self-concept. A total of 585 valid responses were collected from hotel front line employees in mainland China. The results showed that (1) *transformational leadership* was not directly related to *collective self-concept*, but mediated by LMX; (2) *passive leadership* was directly related to *individual self-concept*, but not related to LMX; and, (3) LMX was significantly related to *collective*, *interpersonal*, and *individual self-concept*.

**Keywords:** transformational leadership; passive leadership; self-concept; hotel industry; China

## **Paper III**

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### **Justice perceptions and drives of hotel employee social loafing behavior<sup>3</sup>**

Luo Zhenpeng, Institute of Tourism Beijing Union University, Bei Si Huan  
Dong Lu No.99, Chaoyang District, Beijing, 100101, China

Qu Hailin, School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration, Oklahoma State  
University, 210 HS West, Stillwater, OK 74078, USA &

Business School, Sun Yat-Sen University, China

Marnburg Einar , Faculty of Social Science, University of Stavanger,  
Stavanger, Norway, N-4036

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<sup>3</sup> International Journal of Hospitality Management 33 (2013) 456–464

**Abstract**

Justice perceptions, justice-related satisfaction, employee commitment, and turnover intention are several positive or negative factors influencing employee social loafing behavior. This study analyzed the relationships between these variables in the context of China's hotel industry. A total of 585 valid responses were collected from employees within different departments at 43 hotels in mainland China. Lisrel 8.80 software was used to test structural equation models and hypotheses in this study. Results show that employee commitment is an important mediator, while turnover intention is the main drive of employee social loafing behavior, and justice-related satisfaction significantly influences employee commitment. Findings of this study can be instructive to hotel managers to improve service quality and guests' satisfaction with hotels.

**Keywords**

Justice perceptions, social loafing, commitment, turnover intention, China's hotel industry

## **Paper IV**

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### **Antecedents of Employee Helping Behavior in the Hospitality Industry<sup>4</sup>**

Luo Zhenpeng is Associate Professor of Institute of Tourism at Beijing Union University, Beijing, China (E-mail: lytzhpenpeng@buu.edu.cn)

Marnburg, Einar is Dean of Faculty of Social Science at University of Stavanger, Stavanger, Norway (E-mail: einar.marnburg@uis.no)

Øgaard, Torvald is Professor of Norwegian School of Hotel Management at University of Stavanger, Stavanger, Norway (E-mail: torvald.ogaard@uis.no)

Larsen, Svein is Professor of University of Bergen, Bergen, Norway  
(E-mail:svein.larsen@psysp.uib.no)

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<sup>4</sup> JOURNAL OF CHINA TOURISM RESEARCH, Oct 2013, Vol.9 Issue4, p395-412



## **Abstract**

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationships between Interpersonal justice, employee affective commitment, leader-member exchange (LMX) and employee Helping behavior. Hypotheses and a model were tested with 585 valid responses collected from hotels in mainland China. Results showed that employee Group commitment has a direct influence on employee Helping behavior, while Interpersonal justice perception and leader-member exchange (LMX) do not. Detailed analysis shows that Group commitment plays a crucial role in influencing employee Helping behavior. The results of this study can be instructive to managers in the hospitality industry working to improve service quality by motivating employee Helping behavior.

## **Keywords**

Justice, Commitment, LMX, Helping behavior, hotel industry