Leadership Competencies of Hotel Frontline Managers and Their Effects on Subordinates: A Comparative Study of New Zealand and Vietnam

LE VINH NGUYEN

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ABSTRACT

In the hospitality industry, high turnover has been a persistent issue. Some research has indicated that incompetent leadership is one of the major reasons and that general leadership theories may be inadequate in studying this industry. Since organisations are diverse, research has also suggested that enacting and developing leadership can be unique in each type of organisation. Hence, a specific leadership approach may be required. Having been developed and updated as an industry-specific model, the hospitality leadership competency model (HLCM) provides a theoretically driven, although seldomly empirically tested, model of leadership. Specifically, little is known about the leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers, as perceived from the crucial, yet underexplored viewpoint of their subordinates, and the influence of these competencies on the attitudes and behaviours of subordinates.

In addition to the dearth of empirical testing of this leadership model, there are also calls in the literature for the need for cross-cultural examination. New Zealand and Vietnam offer very contrasting contexts and cultures, and thus different hospitality leadership practices and influences may apply in these countries. Consequently, a study investigating the impacts of leadership competencies on job outcomes, especially the determinants of turnover in hotels across the two countries, will address these gaps and provide useful implications for leadership practice and development in the industry. This thesis aims at understanding leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers and their effects on several outcomes, including leader effectiveness, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intentions. Using two samples of hotel frontline employees (n= 109 from New Zealand and n= 236 from Vietnam) who have reported their perceptions of leadership competencies

and job outcomes, this present study explores the relationships among those competencies and outcome variables. Furthermore, the study tests several mediation and moderated mediation mechanisms to enhance understanding of potentially complex relationships. First, the findings showed strong relationships between leadership competencies and those outcome variables across the two countries. Second, the study found several mediation effects and moderated mediation effects that elucidated the potential causal mechanisms underlying their relationships. Third, the study compared the two samples and found some similar patterns, as well as some distinct differences, presented in the effects of several dominant leadership competencies on turnover intentions and organisational commitment, enhancing the cross-cultural value of the HLCM. Finally, to explore potential new developments to the HLCM, the study used a sample of 149 hotel employees in New Zealand and found support for the proposition that family supportive supervisor behaviours could be a necessary leadership competency to be added to the pool of competencies. Overall, this study found evidence that validates the HLCM and supports the model being utilised with more confidence. Ultimately, the thesis contributes to the advancement of the HLCM and supports its common utilisation, as an alternative model to general leadership theories, for leadership practice and development in hospitality schools and organisations. The thesis also clarifies that the complexity and broad meaning of leadership, which is unlikely to be captured adequately by a one-size-fits-all or general theory, may need to be described by multiple, specific theories, with the HLCM being one of them. The thesis offers specific implications for hospitality organisations, managers, and students.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Appendices

List of Abbreviations

AVE	Average variance extracted
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
CI	Confidence interval
CMV	Common method variance
DF	Degree of freedom
DV(s)	Dependent variable(s)
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
FSSB	Family supportive supervisor behaviours
GDP	Gross domestic product
HLCM	Hospitality leadership competency model
HR	Human resources
HRD	Human reource developemnt
HRM	Human resource management
IV(s)	Independent variable(s)
LLCI	Lower limits confidence interval
LMX	Leader-member exchange
PROCESS	A macro written by Hayes (2018)
RMSEA	Root-mean-square error of approximation
RQ	Research question
SD	Standard deviation
SEM	Structural equation modelling
SRMR	Standardised root mean residual
ULCI	Upper limits confidence interval
χ^2	Chi-square
α	Cronbach apha

Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defned in the co-authored works), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Name: Le Vinh Nguyen

Date: SEPTEMBER 2020

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The three-year time of my PhD is just like yesterday. It has been the most challenging and professionally rewarding aspect of my life. My PhD journey was filled with more fun and less stresses than I imagined and various people who gave me hope and helping hands.

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Dedication

To my beloved daughters Miu and May.

Contributions to co-authored manuscripts

This thesis involves four manuscripts which are co-authored by my supervisors and me. In manuscripts 1, 2, and 3, I was responsible for research design, data collection and analysis, presenting the results as working papers at the conferences, and writing the draft copies. My primary supervisor supervised me and gave advice on designing the research, using software, analysing the data, and revising the drafts. My secondary supervisor supervised me and gave advice on data collection, writing and editing processes, and responses to the editors. In manuscript 4, I analysed the data (provided by my first supervisor) and wrote the draft copy whereas my supervisors revised and edited the manuscript.

Manuscript 1 (Chapter 4): *Exploring a hospitality leadership competency model: Cross-cultural validation in New Zealand and Vietnam*. This manuscript has been accepted for publication in the *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism.*	Nguyen L.V. (80%) Haar J. (10%) Smollan R. (10%)
Manuscript 2 (Chapter 5) was published as: Nguyen, L. V., Haar, J., & Smollan, R. (2020). Hospitality leadership competencies influencing organisational commitment: The moderating effects of gender. *New Zealand Journal of Human Resources Management, 20*(1), 4-21.	Nguyen L.V. (80%) Haar J. (10%) Smollan R. (10%)
Manuscript 3 (Chapter 6): *Hospitality leadership competencies and employee commitment in Vietnam*. This manuscript is under review (as at September 7, 2020) in the *International Journal of Hospitality Management*.	Nguyen L.V. (80%) Haar J. (10%) Smollan R. (10%)
Manuscript 4 (Chapter 7) was published as: Nguyen L.V., Haar J., & Smollan R. (2020). Family supportive supervisor behaviours and turnover intentions: Testing a multiple mediation model in the New Zealand hospitality industry. *Labour & Industry: A Journal of the Social and Economic Relations of Work, 30*(2), 156-173.	Nguyen L.V. (80%) Haar J. (10%) Smollan R. (10%)

Professor Jarrod Haar
Primary supervisor

Dr Roy Smollan
Secondary supervisor

Le Vinh Nguyen

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to provide an overview of the thesis. The research began in 2017; therefore, the research was contextualised to, and this thesis reports on, the period between 2017 and early 2019, i.e., before Covid-19. This thesis has been written up to finish during the outbreak of the Covid-19 pandemic in early 2020. While this pandemic is clearly a shock to many professions – especially those within the hospitality sector, the 'new normal' after Covid-19 offers hospitality managers and educators a unique opportunity to reshape future hospitality leaders for a more responsible and sustainable industry (Ioannides & Gyimóthy, 2020). Thus, this thesis still provides those managers and educators with theoretical contributions and practical implications to guide them in better preparing those future leaders.

1.1. The context of the study, research gaps, and problem statement

The hotel sectors in New Zealand and Vietnam are both important income and job creators (Le, Pearce, & Smith, 2018; Luo & Milne, 2014). In 2018, the New Zealand hospitality industry contributed NZ$15.9 billion (about 6.1%) directly and NZ$11.1 billion (about 4.3%) indirectly to the total gross domestic product (GDP); and hospitality organisations directly employed 216,012 people (up to 8.0% of total employment) (Ministry of Business Innovation and Employment, 2019). In the same year, the Vietnamese tourism sector earned about US$27 billion (about 8.3% GDP) and employed nearly 1.3 million people (about 2.5% of total employment) (Vietnam Administration of Tourism, 2019).

However, in this labour-intensive industry, which is characterised by heavy workloads, shift work, and minimum wages, retaining qualified staff has been a major concern (Brien, Thomas, & Hussein, 2015; Poulston, 2008; Tracey, 2014). Until the impact of Covid-19, a very high employee turnover rate was one of the most serious problems facing the hospitality industry (Babakus, Yavas, & Karatepe, 2017). This issue has been widely researched in New Zealand (Poulston, 2008; Williamson, Harris, Matthews, & Parker, 2012) and many other countries (Chen & Wu, 2017; Davidson, Timo, & Wang, 2010), including Vietnam (Yap & Ineson, 2016). Because of its persistence, turnover remains a mainstream research in hospitality human resource management (HRM) (Chang & Katrichis, 2016).

Many causes of turnover have been identified but most of them are commonly unresolvable (e.g., shift work or seasonality) or uncontrollable (e.g., the attractions of other workplaces). Importantly, poor leadership has been identified as one of the primary causes of turnover (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Madanoglu, Moreo, & Leong, 2004) and, fortunately, this is an issue, while currently unresolved, that can be understood and shaped. Research has shown that both leadership development and the retention of high-quality staff have been the top challenges within HRM in this sector (Brien, 2004; Davidson et al., 2010; Luo & Milne, 2014). Since these two challenges coexist, they should be addressed together. Moreover, since it is better to predict and reduce turnover, its warning signs are worthy of being investigated. Therefore, turnover intention, as the best predictor of turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Joo & Park, 2010), is often used as a proxy for actual turnover (Wells & Welty, 2011).

In addition, organisational commitment (specifically, affective commitment) has been also argued to be, and has been used as, a vital predictor of turnover (Cohen, 1993; Cohen & Hudecek, 1993; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002).

It has been suggested that there is a lack of research that comprehensively investigates turnover intentions, including leadership, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment, as well as their causal relationships (Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière, & Raymond, 2016). Particularly in the literature around these relationships, there are four research gaps and related practical issues which are presented briefly here and detailed in the next chapter.

First, while the hospitality leadership competency model (HLCM) has long been developed (e.g., Morris, 1973; Tas, 1988, Tesone, 2012) and applied in the industry (Assante, Huffman, & Harp, 2009; Chapman & Lovell, 2006), the associations of the model, particularly the updated version by Shum, Gatling, and Shoemaker (2018), with key outcomes, such as turnover intentions and organisational commitment, do not appear to have been empirically tested. Such an under-exploration separates this model from the collection of tested leadership theories and models in the industry (e.g., servant leadership, transformational leadership). Consequently, the potential for the HLCM to reduce turnover intentions and increase organisational commitment is unknown. Thus, if the HLCM is to be used with confidence, supporting evidence is needed.

Second, the performance of leadership competencies as perceived from the viewpoint of hotel employees, a central stakeholder group, has been overlooked. Therefore, if the HLCM - as until now, solely constructed by hospitality managers and educators - is not effective in mobilising subordinates to do their jobs, it should be reconceptualised.

Third, country culture and other elements of context do influence the expectations and effectiveness of leadership (Yukl, 2013). Therefore, distinct leadership practices and influence may exist in different culture settings. The present

thesis looks to explore the updated HLCM of Shum et al. (2018) in New Zealand and Vietnam, as they represent two different cultures and contexts, and, importantly, potentially cultural differences around hospitality leadership that have also been unexplored. As a result, hospitality managers and educators in both countries may not be fully informed about which leadership competencies strongly influence key outcomes in each context and, thus, a comparative study is needed to address these shortcomings.

Finally, because the industry keeps changing and some management practices, such as the management of a diverse workforce, have become prevalent, the importance of a certain leadership competency may be changed, thus its effects on turnover intentions and other outcomes may be changed as well. New competencies may be added to the pool of leadership competencies. Such changes, of course, demand that research be updated.

Consequently, this thesis investigates the potential, yet unknown, impacts of the updated HLCM of Shum et al. (2018), in particular the 10 leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers, on their subordinates' organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Such a study is needed to fill in those gaps in the literature and is likely to give hints on how to solve the associated issues.

1.2. Research objectives, questions, and scope

This present study aims at understanding the leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers (as perceived by their subordinates) and the influence of these leadership perceptions on several outcomes including leader effectiveness, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intentions. This study focuses on organisational commitment and turnover intentions as key outcomes because these

employee attitudes and behaviours are highly important to hospitality organisations and managers (Guzeller & Celiker, 2019). Based on this aim, several objectives have been set to shape the study. First, this study measures the potential relationships between leadership competencies and these outcomes in both New Zealand and Vietnam. Second, the study explores the potential causal mechanisms which underlie these relationships. This exploration is done via testing several mediation and moderated mediation models, although it is only tested on cross-sectional data. Third, the study compares the two countries to see what similar and different patterns might be present in the influence of leadership competencies (and their importance) on turnover intentions and organisational commitment. Finally, and overall, this study seeks evidence that validates the updated HLCM so that the model can be utilised with confidence and as an alternative to other leadership theories and models.

To address the research problem and reach the objectives stated above, this study seeks to answer this overarching research question (RQ): **How do the leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers influence their subordinates' turnover intentions and organisational commitment?**

From this question of *how* or *in what patterns,* three specific questions are formulated:

1. What influence do the 10 leadership competencies, as identified in the updated model of Shum et al. (2018), have on hotel employees' job outcomes (e.g., turnover intentions)?
2. How do these leadership competencies influence hotel employees' job outcomes (specifically, is there a mediation process)?

3. Will there be differences in the relationships between typical leadership competencies and the investigated outcomes in Vietnamese versus New Zealand hotels?

These questions drive three major but connected themes of findings of the study and are used to formulate hypotheses as presented in the manuscript Chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7.

Regarding its scope, this study focuses on upscale hotels (i.e., three star and above (Chatzipanagiotou & Coritos, 2010; Ting, Kuo, & Li, 2012) in major cities in New Zealand (e.g., Auckland) and in Vietnam (e.g., Hochiminh city). Such hotels are targeted for two reasons: (1) Some leadership competencies are more commonly expected in some arenas of hospitality than in others (Tavitiyaman, Weerakit, & Ryan, 2014), and (2) the impacts of other factors such as hotel size and structure, quality, location, etc., on the results could be minimised. From a quantitative perspective, this allows me to partially control for differences between high end hotels (4-5 stars) and low end hotels (1-2 stars). This focus fitted the time and resources of a PhD study and was also necessary to identify the demographic information of the corresponding populations and samples, which are detailed in Chapter 3. Finally, this study investigates the leadership competencies of frontline managers only because they are likely to be the subject of leadership development in hotels and their leadership behaviours directly affect the large number of frontline employees who are likely to quit their jobs.

1.3. Research approach and method

This thesis adopts quantitative research to explore the magnitude of the relationships among the above-mentioned phenomena (i.e., performed leadership competencies and

their outcomes) and the potentially causal mechanisms that underlie those relationships. From the updated HLCM of Shum et al. (2018) and the literature regarding the investigated outcomes, a questionnaire was created. A survey was conducted to collect numeric data on leadership competencies and the outcomes from both New Zealand (n= 109) and Vietnam (n= 236). Results were then inferred from correlational and regression analyses of data and from modelling the relationships existing in the datasets. In addition, another sample of 149 hotel employees in New Zealand, which had been collected by my first supervisor in his research project on hospitality leadership and the wellbeing of hospitality employees, was used to test the influence of family supportive supervisor behaviours on several outcomes, as a potential future leadership competency to be added to the HLCM.

1.4. The structure of the thesis

The thesis involves nine chapters. Following this first introduction chapter, Chapter 2 delineates the contextual background wherein related theories and studies are reviewed to identify gaps in the literature. Definitions of key terms are presented and discussed. The research problem and the research questions associated with these gaps in the literature are also presented.

Chapter 3 describes the whole research process undertaken for this thesis. The chapter summarises some philosophical and theoretical considerations made by the researcher before and during the research period. The major sections of the chapter report the nonexperimental, quantitative design, the survey method, the instruments used to collect data from the targeted populations, the statistical procedures and, finally, some ethical concerns and potential issues emerging from the research.

This thesis by publications includes a portfolio of four manuscripts reporting four studies. Each manuscript typically includes an abstract, introduction, literature review, research method, findings, discussion, limitation, and conclusion. Therefore, some overlap among these manuscripts and other chapters is unavoidable.

Manuscript 1 (Chapter 4): *Exploring a hospitality leadership competency model: Cross-cultural validation in New Zealand and Vietnam*. This manuscript focuses on testing the relationship between hospitality leadership competencies and turnover intentions within two distinct cultures: New Zealand and Vietnam. The manuscript reports various analyses conducted to explore the effects of 10 leadership competencies on turnover intentions and job satisfaction. The results indicate several competencies which were more strongly related to these two outcomes and present a relatively similar mediation mechanism underlying these relationships across the two samples. The supported hypotheses are helpful in answering all the RQs: RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3.

Manuscript 2 (Chapter 5): *Hospitality leadership competencies influencing organisational commitment: The moderating effects of gender*. This manuscript reports an exploration of the New Zealand dataset to understand how 10 leadership competencies are effective in predicting perceived leader effectiveness and organisational commitment. The manuscript presents a mediation model which shows how ethical leadership competency, as the strongest common predictor, influenced these two outcomes. The manuscript also shows that the direct effect of ethical leadership on organisational commitment was dependent on gender as a contextual factor and moderator. The supported hypotheses are helpful in answering both RQ1 and RQ2 in the New Zealand context.

Manuscript 3 (Chapter 6): *Hospitality leadership competencies and employee commitment in Vietnam*. This manuscript reports an exploration of the Vietnamese dataset to understand how 10 leadership competencies are effective in predicting perceived leader effectiveness and organisational commitment. The manuscript then presents a moderated mediation model which shows how team leadership competency, being the strongest common predictor, influenced these two outcomes; and these effects were dependent on team size as a contextual factor and moderator. The supported hypotheses are helpful in answering both RQ1 and RQ2 in the Vietnamese context.

Manuscript 4 (Chapter 7): *Family supportive supervisor behaviours and turnover intentions: Testing a multiple mediation model in the New Zealand hospitality industry*. This manuscript reports on how family supportive supervision behaviours (FSSB) impact employees' turnover intentions via organisational trust and job satisfaction as mediators. The study used an available dataset provided by my first supervisor. This study follows a suggestion that, to help clarify research questions, master the analysing techniques, and formulate the hypotheses in a PhD research project, a preliminary investigation may be needed (Evans, Gruba, & Zobel, 2014). Thus, it is basically a probing study to see if such typical behaviours and, thus, a potential leadership competency, can have a significant effect on those outcomes in a subsequent manner. The results from such a preliminary study essentially informed a large scale study including all 10 competencies in the model of Shum et al. (2018). In particular, the result could imply a potentially causal mechanism that is worth exploring with the updated HLCM. RQ2 is partly answered with FSSB being a potential competency to be added into the HLCM model in future research.

Chapter 8 (Discussion) synthesises the findings presented in the manuscript chapters, links these findings to RQs, and interprets their contributions to knowledge, especially in addressing the gaps in knowledge around the HLCM. Some practical implications are suggested, and some limitations are discussed for doing better future research. Chapter 9 (Conclusion) makes some final comments about the overall research in terms of objectives, and the significance of the research to the author as a PhD researcher as well.

1.5. The contributions, significance, and limitations of the thesis

This thesis makes several original contributions to the literature regarding the HLCM. According to Wacker (1998), a theory (or model, as interchangeably used by Dubin (1978)) can be determined by four components: (1) definitions of terms or variables, (2) a domain where the theory is applied, (3) a set of relationships of variables, and (4) specific predictions. Thus, original contributions to a theory can be any novel addition made to those components. In addition, theoretical contributions can be original (incremental or revelatory) or practical (scientific or professional) (Corley & Gioia, 2011).

To these frameworks, this thesis contributes to the HLCM, especially the updated model of Shum et al. (2018), by adding some new and meaningful relationships within leadership competencies and, importantly, between them and various investigated outcomes. The thesis also provides much needed empirical evidence of the predictive validity of the model towards organisational commitment and turnover intentions. The establishment of the mediation mechanisms and the moderated-mediation mechanisms among leadership competencies and the investigated outcomes potentially reveals how uncommitted hospitality employees

leave their organisations as a result of the leadership practices of their immediate managers. These additions are useful to position the updated HLCM as a competitive approach, if not an alternative one, to other leadership theories and models, which have been reported to have several flaws (e.g., Gottfredson, Wright, & Heaphy, 2020; Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). With the evidence and findings offered by this thesis, the HLCM could be applied with more confidence and deserves better recognition in the overall leadership literature. These contributions target the industry as well as managers, educators, and employees with different implications which are detailed in chapter 8.

Also, in Chapter 8, several limitations of this study are integrated from the individual limitation sections in the manuscripts. Major limitations are the usage of single sourced surveys and relatively small samples. Within the framework of a PhD study and the nature of the research, the limitations have been unavoidable but addressed to some extent, as are explained in subsequent chapters. Also, ethical concerns such as anonymity also hold the study back from getting precise, but aggregate data (e.g., groups of ages rather than actual ages).

Finally, I acknowledge that I have worked in hotels and taught courses in tourism and hospitality management, and therefore, my beliefs and experience might have had some impact on the design and implementation of this study, as well as on the interpretation of the results. However, as shown in chapter 3, I did not adopt any specific belief or experience of my own in the research. Therefore, the impact on the thesis of my beliefs and experience in hotels and academia is very minor and I have endeavoured to take an objective stance throughout. Gender often has a strong impact on how leadership is understood, practised, and responded to. However, I did not take any specific gender lens during the design and implementation of this research as well

as in the interpretation and communication of its results. The findings of gender effects on the subordinates' perception and effects of leadership were discussed and compared with results from other studies rather than interpreted from my personal view.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has shown the panorama of the whole research study reported in this thesis. This chapter focuses on reviewing the relevant literature to identify (1) gaps in the literature, and (2) problems to be investigated by this study. These aims are fulfilled by first presenting the turnover issue in the hospitality industry (at least pre-covid-19). Next, relevant theoretical approaches and empirical studies on turnover intentions and organisational commitment, as critical antecedents and proxies of actual turnover, as well as being the focal constructs of the thesis, are summarised. Next, leadership development is briefly reviewed, and critical discussions on its supporting leadership theories are presented. Hospitality leadership and a recently updated model are then reviewed and critically analysed to identify existing gaps plus associated theoretical problems.

The chapter then specifies some key research problems being addressed by this research and suggests potential solutions. Finally, the overall research question, "**How do the leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers influence their subordinates' turnover intentions and organisational commitment?"**, is put forward to be linked with the research methodology, which is the content of the next chapter. The review finishes with the literature on job satisfaction and leader effectiveness (mediators) and on gender and team size (moderators). Since subsequent chapters involve minor literature review sections on those key terms, some unavoidable though minimal repetition occurs in those chapters.

2.2 Turnover issue in the hospitality industry

Hospitality employees typically suffer from challenging working conditions such as shift work and poor pay (Poulston, 2008; Tracey, 2014; Watson, 2008). Unsurprisingly, a very high turnover rate was, until the onset of the Covid-19 pandemic, one of the most serious problems the hospitality industry was facing (Babakus et al., 2017). High turnover was a downside characteristic of the sector (Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan, & Buyruk, 2010) and it may recur after the effects of this pandemic have passed.

Unexceptionally, both New Zealand and Vietnamese hotels had been suffering from high turnover rates (Poulston, 2008; Williamson et al., 2012; Yap & Ineson, 2016). For example, the annual turnover rates during the years 2000 – 2010 of a New Zealand hotel chain fluctuated between 40% and 80%, whereas these rates of the whole New Zealand labour market were less than 18% (Williamson et al., 2012). Just before the pandemic, New Zealand was experiencing a severe shortage of hospitality staff (Shaw, 2019). Similarly, the hotel sector in Vietnam is emerging and expanding rapidly but lacks the qualified staff to meet its expansion (Yap & Ineson, 2016). Even under crises such as the outbreaks of SARS in 2003, which led to employees being laid off, critics argued that hotels should still prepare to cope with a labour shortage afterwards (Henderson, 2005; Henderson & Ng, 2004). This is because redundant employees might have abandoned the industry to find jobs elsewhere during a crisis (Henderson, 2005). This may be repeated after the Covid-19 pandemic of 2020 is finished.

High turnover rates reduce not only employee morale but also service quality, efficiency, productivity and, ultimately, profitability (Davidson & Wang, 2011; Hinkin & Tracey, 2000). Fundamentally, an employee strongly considering quitting

their job is less likely to act enthusiastically to customer queries. Consequently, the retention of qualified staff has been one of the most critical and puzzling HRM issues confronting hotel managers worldwide (Enz, 2009) and a major concern for human resource planners (Davidson et al., 2010; Mohsin, Lengler, & Aguzzoli, 2015). Therefore, this issue has been researched in New Zealand (Poulston, 2008; Williamson et al., 2012) and many other countries (Chen & Wu, 2017; Davidson et al., 2010) although little research has been conducted in Vietnam (e.g., Yap & Ineson, 2016). It is because of this attention that it is the focus of this thesis and here I look at the links to poor leadership, as one of the major underlying problems causing turnover (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Xu et al., 2018; Yang, Wan, & Fu, 2012).

According to Price (2001), turnover involves either (1) *involuntary turnover* (the employer terminates the employee) or (2) *voluntary turnover* - the major theme of research - which is when the employees quit their jobs (rather than being made redundant or being fired). It has been suggested that employees engage with several leaving decisions and behaviours during the quitting process (Griffeth et al., 2000). One of these is turnover intentions which could be referred to one's behavioural attitude to leaving the job (Aydogdu & Asikgil, 2011) or "a set to which thinking of quitting and intent to search for alternative employment also belong" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). Hence, employees do not quit on the spot with no forethought. Typically, employees have issues that form turnover intentions and then these are typically acted upon and an employee leaves their job. Research consistently shows that turnover intention holds the best predictor of actual employee turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Joo & Park, 2010; Tett & Meyer, 1993). In turn, employees' turnover intentions should be predicted and mitigated at early stages in hotels (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017) since the final decision in the quitting process could be irreversible.

Both actual turnover and turnover intentions have attracted many studies, including in the hospitality sector. Critical predictors include leadership, pay satisfaction, promotional chances, job security, job stimulation, work hours, work stressors, work-family conflict, organisational loyalty, and external environmental factors such as job alternatives (Chen & Wu, 2017; Griffeth et al., 2000; Mohsin et al., 2015; Riegel, 2011). Further, job satisfaction and organisational justice issues (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010) are among important reasons for hotel employees to leave. From a qualitative study, Yang et al. (2012) coded a large number of causes of turnover, and thus turnover intentions, into five broad factors: (1) company (including management style), (2) compensation and promotion channels, (3) personal emotions, (4) sectoral nature, and (5) work content. They also recommended that future research should focus on determining the critical factors that influence employee turnover intentions.

Davidson and Wang (2011) listed the causes of push factors (e.g., a lack of training) and pull factors (e.g., attractions from other workplaces such as better conditions of service or career prospects). Some internal working conditions (e.g., shift work) will not be easily changed due to the nature of the hospitality industry, whereas pull factors are likely uncontrollable by a single organisation. Thus, other strategies should be adopted to decrease high turnover and the associated turnover intentions. Otherwise, casualisation remains the only, but costly strategy to cope with turnover in the industry (Davidson & Wang, 2011).

It has been said that “Manager quality was the single best predictor of whether employees would stay or leave, supporting the adage that people don’t quit companies, they quit bad managers” (Bock, 2015, p. 193). Within the broader turnover literature, a meta-analysis has shown that leadership is a significant predictor of turnover

(Griffeth et al., 2000). In the hotel sector, maltreatment by supervisors is also the top cause for turnover intentions (Xu et al., 2018) and, finally, high turnover rates (Riegel, 2011). More importantly, incompetent supervision has been proposed as an essential reason for turnover (Davidson & Wang, 2011; Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Madanoglu et al., 2004). Based on focus group interviews, Qiu, Haobin, Hung, and York (2015) reported that leadership factors are antecedents of turnover intentions, and this finding is consistent with prior research (e.g., Haque, Fernando, & Caputi, 2019; Wells & Welty, 2011). Thus, research has strongly confirmed that poor leadership is a critical determinant of turnover intentions and actual turnover.

Consequently, both leadership development and the retention of high-quality staff have been the top challenges within HRM in this sector (Brien, 2004; Luo & Milne, 2014). Since these two challenges coexist in a likely causal relationship, they might be best addressed together. Improving leadership development will enhance leadership performance, decrease turnover intentions and turnover, while other positive results regarding operations and profitability may concurrently be achieved. The next section explores organisational commitment which I concurrently use as a key predictor of turnover.

2.3 Organisational commitment

Similar to turnover intentions, the commitment of employees towards their organisations has been found to be strongly linked to turnover (Cohen, 1993; Cohen & Hudecek, 1993; Meyer et al., 2002). Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) defined the organisational commitment of employees as “the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (p. 604). The construct has been developed into a three-component model of commitment

involving *affective* commitment, i.e., emotional attachment to the organisation, *normative* commitment, i.e., a perceived obligation to stay with the organisation, and *continuance* commitment, i.e., perceived costs of leaving the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). The model also includes the antecedents of each component and common consequences such as job-related behaviours, especially turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). Research findings confirmed that hospitality employees with higher commitment tend to serve guests better, are more likely to stay, and push sales growth (Bufquin, DiPietro, Park, & Partlow, 2017; DiPietro, Moreo, & Cain, 2020). Thus, by definition, and as supported by research findings, increasing the commitment of employees may help to reduce their turnover intentions and, thereby, their actual turnover.

The relationship between leadership and organisational commitment has been well supported, both theoretically and empirically. Usually, talents become employees in organisations by signing contracts depicting the employment relationship. However, typical employment contracts are often incomplete because of, for example, ambiguously worded articles or omitted details (Hart, 2017). Thus, beyond the contract and even legal requirements, this likely win-win relationship encourages the mutual parties to treat each other reasonably and fairly (Halonen-Akatwijuka & Hart, 2020). This is compatible with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) which points out that the employment relationship is characterised not only by economic exchange, i.e., via a formal contract, but also by social exchange, i.e., via mutual expectations of behaviours (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002). Thus, Meyer et al. (1993) noted that employees who have workplace experiences that are consistent with their expectations tend to develop a stronger affective commitment to the workplace than those who do not have such experiences. It follows that, beyond the contractual obligations,

employees perceiving positive behaviours of their organisations and managers will return with positive attitudes and behaviours such as a strong commitment to their organisation (Haar & Spell, 2004).

Research has confirmed that employees working with more competent managers express higher organisational commitment (Gatling, Kang, & Kim, 2016; Haque et al., 2019; Patiar & Wang, 2016). To engage employees, hotels need to reconsider how they conceptualise humanistic managers and grow competent managers (Brien, 2010). Thus, it may be clear that the best way to enhance employees' commitment is enacting competent leadership. Finally, it has been observed that most organisations do not pay much attention to their employee engagement but complain about leadership shortages and employee performance (Leavy, 2016). Hence, research that links organisational commitment and leadership is worthwhile since both are causal to employee performance; and therefore, such research provides an apparent connection between them to organisations.

Among the three components of commitment, affective commitment has been found to be most prominent, having the strongest relationships with most antecedents, including leadership, and work-related outcomes, especially turnover, and these relationships have been further confirmed by subsequent studies (Hassi, 2019; Meyer et al., 2002). This thesis, therefore, focuses on affective commitment and examines whether demonstrating leadership competencies is likely to increase the commitment of employees, which would potentially help address the turnover issue.

2.4 Leadership development and supporting leadership theories

It has been suggested that in this changing and increasingly globalised world, organisations that put effort into leadership development will surpass their competitors

(Kets de Vries & Korotov, 2010). Thus, understanding leadership and implementing leadership development programmes remain critical (Broome & Hughes, 2004; Day & Dragoni, 2015). What are often called leadership development programmes are likely leader development ones (Iles & Preece, 2006). Leader development is about developing *individual* leaders (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014; Lunsford & Brown, 2016). Leadership development is concerned with understanding and actualising growth and change in the leadership capabilities of individuals and collectives (Day & Dragoni, 2015). Thus, leader development focuses on individual level, including self-development (i.e., individual effort) and personal outcomes (e.g., a promotion, even at another workplace). Leadership development aims at improving overall leadership within a dyad, unit, or organisation (Day & Dragoni, 2015). Therefore, leadership development demands organisational effort. In other words, and from the viewpoint of HRM, leadership development is not solely about developing any particular leader but a systematic, collective approach to *preparing* all managers to perform their jobs in a way that is consistent with the organisation's competitive strategy and other HRM activities (Yukl, 2013). Thus, though there is some overlap, these two concepts are distinguishable.

It has been argued that leadership theories must offer necessary insights for effective leadership development (Holt, Hall, & Gilley, 2018; Kaiser & Curphy, 2013; Megheirkouni & Mejheirkouni, 2020). Thus, at the outset, sound supporting leadership theories must be identified to provide a viable approach to measure leadership performance and design effective leadership development programmes (Day et al., 2014; Mumford & Fried, 2014). Such supporting theories can only be insightful if they show "usefulness for explanation or prediction; (2) clear implications for practice, and (3) the extent to which [they have] generated significant research";

and usually such theories “that are more focussed on a limited domain [fare] best” (Klimoski, 1991, p. 258). The calls for more attention to the context in which leadership is constructed, enacted, and developed have been persistently repeated (e.g., Ardichvili, Dag, & Manderscheid, 2016; Dalakoura, 2010; Day & Dragoni, 2015).

The hospitality industry is a people industry: It is labour-intensive and serves people directly; thus, leadership is likely to be crucial (Pittaway, Carmouche, & Chell, 1998). It has been suggested that leadership is constructed and embedded in a unique organisation – thus it is contextual leadership (Osborn, Hunt, & Jauch, 2002). Therefore, better models and understanding of leadership are likely to arise from “reconsidering the causal relations, assumptions, units of analysis, and dependent variables which are consistent with the organisation context” (Osborn et al., 2002, p. 832). In fact, the HLCM has been developed over decades (e.g., Baum, 1990; Morris, 1973; Shum et al., 2018; Tas, 1988; Testa & Sipe, 2012) and, thus, it may offer an excellent alternative to enact and develop leadership in the hospitality organisations. However, understanding whether it would be more relevant for the industry than other leadership theories, or not, may need a review of both approaches, the specific approach of the HLCM and the general approach of other major leadership theories. The rest of this section very briefly reviews major general leadership theories and then highlights some of their weaknesses. The HLCM is presented in the next section.

Major leadership theories

Leadership has been one of the most studied but least understood phenomena (Bennis & Nanus, 1997; Burns, 1978; Trinidad & Normore, 2005), yet good leadership in some organisations and contexts is still left wanting. According to Dinh et al. (2014), more

than 66 leadership theories have made significant contributions, but some shortcomings are persistent, and the answer to the question of how leadership can improve organisational performance remains elusive (Andersen, 2016; Gordon & Yukl, 2004). Not only are there many leadership theories, there are also many classifications of them. In a review of leadership theories presented in human resource development (HRD), Turner and Baker (2018) found 74 theories, with only a few being unique to HRD, such as affiliated leadership (Gagnon, Vough, & Nickerson, 2012), whereas the majority of theories were concurrently found in the leadership literature. They also provided four classes of leadership theories, specifically (1) traditional, (2) new, (3) collective, and (4) global leadership theories. These classes are briefly presented next.

The traditional classification includes trait, behaviour, contingency, and relational theories. The trait-based, or 'great man', theories of leadership have examined national rulers and other eminent social, political, and military leaders for universal inborn qualities and characteristics (Northouse, 2016). Though this trait approach has been termed ill-conceived, elitist, and seriously, sexist, it was proposed to develop leaders from the gifted children in schools (Chin, 2010; Rost, 1993). This approach has been criticised because it is simplistic and unhelpful in explaining sources of trait development (Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009). Thus, the trait approach on its own is unhelpful for training and development (Cohen, 2019; Day et al., 2014; Northouse, 2016). Hundreds of trait studies failed to show strong and consistent correlations between individual traits and leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2013). Traits do matter as preconditions but are not enough for effective leaders who need to take necessary *actions* (Boyatzis, 1993; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Mintzberg, 2004). Others have previously noted that leadership is not solely the virtue

of owning one among some sets of traits, but is dependent on situations (e.g., Rees & Porter, 2008; Stogdill, 1948).

To better describe leadership in different situations, the behavioural approach to leadership was subsequently developed (Fiedler, 1998; Fleishman, 1953). Behaviour theories focused on specific behaviours, not inherited traits, as found in successful leaders (Turner & Baker, 2018). Banks, Gooty, Ross, Williams, and Harrington (2018) recently reviewed the literature and offered an updated framework of behavioural leadership constructs. The framework involves task and relationship behaviours, transformational, transactional, charismatic, new charismatic, laissez-faire, authentic, ethical, and servant leadership. To avoid the significant overlaps presented in these constructs, Yukl (2012) integrated many diverse leadership behaviours into a single taxonomy, categorising task-oriented, relations-oriented, change oriented, and external behaviours.

Since the situation can alter the influence and effectiveness of a leader (Yukl, 2013), contingency theories moved away from traits and behaviours to look at the situation (Turner & Baker, 2018). Many organisational factors (e.g., available resources, procedures, policies) and team factors (e.g., team size and homogeneity) have been identified to be the determinants of the behaviour of a leader and its outcomes (Yukl, 2013). Thus, under this theory, a leader must use a specific style depending on the situation, and if the situation changes, the leader must adopt another, yet better style that presumably fits with the new situation (Hambleton & Gumpert, 1982; Yukl, 2013). As such, leadership styles, the compositions or sets of attitudes and behaviours of leaders (Bormann & Rowold, 2018), have been further proposed to capture either known or missing aspects of leadership (Anderson & Sun, 2017; Bormann & Rowold, 2018). However, it becomes more and more worrisome to

continue the study of leadership styles without tackling the problems arising from construct proliferation and overlap (Bormann & Rowold, 2018). Because leaders might demonstrate several different styles of behaviour, general measures (and thus, theories) of leadership become imprecise and unable to capture the transient nature of their behaviours (Kelemen, Matthews, & Breevaart, 2019).

Relational theories focus on the exchange relationship between leaders and their subordinates; thus, the level of analysis has been shifted from the individual leader to that relationship (Turner & Baker, 2018). When the relationship is favourable, the satisfaction, commitment, and performance of the subordinate are often higher (Yukl, 2013). Therefore, this relationship provides some extra explanation of these outcomes *beyond* the behaviour of the leader. However, when it is not necessary to treat all subordinates similarly, too much differentiation is discriminatory and detrimental since, rather than arbitrary favouritism, each subordinate should perceive an equal opportunity, at least based on competence (Yukl, 2013).

New, collective, and global leadership theories have been recently added to the body of leadership literature (Turner & Baker, 2018). These theories consider some aspects underexplored by traditional theories, such as the well-being of subordinates, the team, the organisation, the society, cultures, geographic regions, or leadership in complexity and in crisis. These leadership theories have been developed to respond to the call for understanding the follower (i.e., subordinate) perspective as well as including them in the leadership processes (Turner & Baker, 2018).

Some weaknesses of leadership theories

Despite making substantial contributions, leadership theories in the four classes outlined above raise many concerns. For example, since different terms are used to refer to the same type of behaviour or the same term is defined differently by diverse theorists (Yukl, 2013), these behavioural approaches overlap (e.g., Anderson & Sun, 2017; Banks et al., 2018; Bormann & Rowold, 2018; Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2018). It has been noted that most of the situational theories have conceptual weaknesses and a vague explanation of causal relationships and mediating processes; consequently, none of the contingency theories have been adequately tested (Yukl, 2013, p. 175). Many leadership theories use intangible terms such as charisma or authenticity (Spoelstra, Butler, & Delaney, 2016). According to Dinh et al. (2014), there are considerable overlaps between leadership constructs and their associated leadership theories. Thus, integrated approaches to leadership have been called for (e.g., Avolio, 2007; Larsson & Eid, 2012; Meuser et al., 2016). However, the bewildering variety of leadership constructs makes it impossible to compare and integrate the findings (Yukl, 2012). Clearly articulating these constructs becomes a daunting challenge for academics (Banks et al., 2018; Day & Dragoni, 2015). As such, and for leadership learners, the challenge of understanding and putting these theories into use could become more daunting. However, since the HLCM has been developed for use in the hospitality industry, these challenges may be both unnecessary and avoidable for hospitality leadership trainers, trainees, and educators.

Another major problem in leadership research is a narrow focus on the leader-follower relationship to the neglect of other functions and variables (Andersen, 2016; Fleet & Yukl, 1992; House & Aditya, 1997; Yukl, 1999). Managers, as formal leaders in organisations (Andersen, 2013; Mintzberg, 2013; Yukl, 2013), are assigned formal

or legal authority (Edwards, Schedlitzki, Turnbull, & Gill, 2015). Hence, the leadership of a manager is institutionalised by authority (Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Leaders have formal authority, that is the right to lead, because they also control crucial nonhuman assets or resources such as information or budgets (Aghion & Tirole, 1997; Hart, 1996). Clearly, leaders mobilise resources of various kinds and not just the human resource, though that is likely to be the most important one. This view has been pointed out by Burns (1978) who broadly defined leadership as "the reciprocal process of *mobilizing,* by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political, and *other* resources … in order to realize goals" (p. 6, emphasis added).

Likewise, Heifetz and Sinder (1988) defined leadership as "the mobilization of a group's resources to do work" (p. 194). To date, this *implicit* authority over nonhuman assets, as argued by some top economists (e.g., Aghion & Tirole, 1997; Hart, 1996; Hart & Moore, 1990; Wernerfelf, 1984) and typically defined by Burn, has not been considered in most leadership theories. As leaders mobilise various resources beyond just human ones, the focus of leadership research on *explicit* authority - authority over people (i.e., followers or subordinates) - does not reveal the full meaning and nature of leadership. Since the "authority over assets translates into authority over people", therefore, "in the absence of any nonhuman assets, it is unclear what authority or control means. Authority over what? Control over what?" (Hart & Moore, 1990, p. 1150). Mumford and Fried (2014) further argued that, because leaders interact and exchange resources with multiple stakeholder groups, focusing on the subordinate-stakeholder group only oversimplifies leadership. Recently, Hassan, Prussia, Mahsud, and Yukl (2018) found that it is now irrelevant for managers to focus only on internal operations; that effective leadership involves the use of external

behaviours such as situational monitoring, and political and negotiating skills; and these skills should be taken into account in the selection, appointment, and training of leaders. Thus, focusing on the leader and the leader-follower relationship may fail to capture the full, complex meaning of leadership. Moreover, as suggested by the economists referred to above, the outlook that the primary function of leaders is to control nonhuman assets, whereas controlling people is only secondary, may be more humanistic. For making compensation, leaders control the job performance of their subordinates, not the subordinates who, by law and nature, have the right to control their own lives.

Another point of concern is that, self-leadership, defined as "a comprehensive self-influence perspective that concerns leading oneself toward performance of naturally motivating tasks as well as managing oneself to do work that must be done but is not naturally motivating" (Manz, 1986, p. 589), has also been unexamined within major, but narrowly focused leadership theories (e.g., transformational-transactional leadership, servant leadership). Similarly, there are concerns about the vague presence or even absence of an ethical dimension (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005) or the conflation of ethics and leadership (Mumford & Fried, 2014) in many major leadership theories. Indeed, Giles (2016) found that leading ethically is considered the most important leadership competency worldwide, and organisations consider this competency as they recruit and promote managers (Marquardt, Brown, & Casper, 2018). Nevertheless, ethical leadership only appears at the periphery of the network of leadership theories (Meuser et al., 2016). Hence, as suggested by Michel, Lyons, and Cho (2010) and Hoch et al. (2018), it must be added as a core component into widely-used scales such as the Managerial Practice Survey - MPS (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002) and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire - MLQ (Avolio, Bass,

& Jung, 1999). Thus, without self-leadership and ethical dimensions, the conceptualisation of leadership both only captures partially its meaning and potentially, but seriously, misleads leaders (e.g., by assuming that the end justifies the means).

In contrast to operationalising such narrow definitions, many leadership theories attempt to embrace so broad a context that some assume definitions and theories are universal across cultures and settings (Bass, 1997; Hamlin, 2005). Consequently, "many of the new theories of leadership appear context free" (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000, p. 528). Based on this assumption, leadership research has been usually focused on "general theories" and pays too little attention to contextual conditions, and to the direct and moderating effects of contextual variables (Meyer, 2006; Oc, 2018; Osborn et al., 2002). It has been suggested such general theories have constructs that become too abstract; therefore, empirical testability is obstructed, and predictive power decreases (Hunt, 1983). Because organisational phenomena lack universality (Suddaby, 2010), the assumption that theoretical convergence and universal findings are achievable may be naïve and irresponsible (Davison & Martinson, 2016). This is supported by a recent meta-analysis which showed that transformational leadership fails to be generalisable across countries and cultures (Crede, Jong, & Harms, 2019). In hospitality, a meta-analysis of transformational leadership research showed strong positive impacts on subordinates' attitudes and behaviours; however, the impacts were moderated by cultural differences, particularly between individualism and collectivism (Gui, Luo, Zhang, & Deng, 2020). Hence, Osborn et al. (2002) concluded, with little attention to the context, "current leadership research and theory is not invalid, but incomplete" (p. 831). Antonakis (2001),

however, went even further when he concluded that universal approaches to leadership may be invalid.

Gender is an important issue in general leadership theories and the debate on whether male and female leadership are similar or different has been controversial. There is a preponderance of male leaders in organizations and gender issues often are related to the exercise of power (Mooney, 2020). Masculinity is implied in many theories of leadership (Billing & Anderson, 2014). Some researchers have found that female leaders have been more effective in some ways. For example, "transformational leadership appears to be more associated with the feminine gender stereotype … and less associated with the masculine gender stereotype" (Powell, 2014, p.19). It has been found that female leadership might be distinct from male leadership, being stronger at communication, coaching, and people skills (Billing & Alvesson, 2014). Similarly, a review on gender and leadership showed that female leaders may have an advantage over male leaders regarding social and emotional skills whereas male leaders may be better than female leaders on some cognitive skills such as global thinking or complexity management (Millmore, Biggs, & Morse, 2007).

Indeed, issues around gender and leadership have reached global proportions as media challenge the performance of countries to Covid-19 by gender (e.g., Howells, 2020). Fundamentally, the evidence is mixed. Male leaders are likely to be more effective than female leadership in male-dominated settings only, otherwise female and male leaders are similarly effective (Millmore, et al. 2007). Using competencies, including those above, in leadership performance appraisal, female leaders have been found to be more effective than male leaders, especially during a crisis (Zenger & Folkman, 2020). Beyond this conundrum of males superior, then females superior, another recent review concluded that, regarding leadership behaviours and leadership

effectiveness, female leaders appear to have an advantage over their male counterparts but these differences appear to be small on average (Shen & Joseph, 2020). Further, some argue that females are less likely to achieve leadership positions as males in their organisations (Shen & Joseph, 2020). In hospitality, too, there is a glass ceiling effect that prevents females from advancing in organisations (Mooney, 2020; Mooney & Ryan, 2009). This suggests that determining the influence of leaders (by gender) on followers is challenged by the very nature of those who 'achieve' the position of leader. The contrasting findings may imply that it is not very fruitful to seek universal patterns in terms of leadership and gender (Billing & Alvesson, 2014).

Thus, leadership styles or skills alone may not fully explain why someone emerges as a leader. As the topic gender and leadership is highly complex (Shen & Joseph, 2020), it has received much research attentions, but the results seem to generate various views and conflicting findings (Billing & Alvesson, 2014). This suggests that gender effects in leadership research could be highly contextual and need to be cautiously considered in the research context. While gender is not a major focus of the current thesis, it is highlighted here to indicate a critique of the broader leadership literature, but also of note within the hospitality sector. It also highlights that leadership and gender are fruitful areas for research, and indeed, future research may leverage the competencies approach used here with a gendered leadership lens.

In hospitality, research has shown the impact of dominant leadership constructs and theories such as leader-member exchange (LMX), transformational-transactional, authentic, or servant leadership on employees' attitudes and behaviours (e.g., Chang, Liu, Wang, & Yi, 2020; Ghosh & Khatri, 2018; Gui et al., 2020; Ribeiro, Duarte, & Fidalgo, 2020). Nevertheless, and especially recently, there are growing concerns about such dominant leadership constructs. For instance, hypothesising that

the fundamental assumption of transformational leadership is to transform the followers, Siangchokyoo, Klinger, and Campion (2020) found too little supporting evidence in their review of 320 articles in top-tier journals. Hence, they concluded "even if possible, reviving transformational leadership theory will involve a Herculean effort" (p. 14). Their conclusion is more optimistic than Andersen (2016) who believed that "the collapse of the transformational theory was only a matter of time" (p. 76). Similarly, to conclude their review, Gottfredson et al. (2020) stated that the LMX construct is incapable of meeting the needs of the theories it has developed and is unlikely to advance leadership theory and practice meaningfully. This is echoed in another fresh review which suggested that the LMX theory is "rife with contradictory predictions and inconsistent results" (Buengeler, Piccolo, & Locklear, 2020, p. 2). In their research, Spoelstra, Butler, and Delaney (2020) found that both the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and Authentic Leadership Questionnaire are regarded as flawed measures because they are conceptually embedded in faith, instead of proof. Another point of concern is that a serious overlap of meaning among authentic, charismatic, ethical, servant, and transformational leadership constructs has been repeatedly noted in multiple reviews of research (e.g., Alvesson & Einola, 2019; Antonakis, Bastardoz, Jacquart, & Shamir, 2016; Banks et al., 2018; Bormann & Rowold, 2018; Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, Dierendonck, & Liden, 2019; Hoch et al., 2018; Lemoine, Hartnell, & Leroy, 2019).

Moreover, and unfortunately, these general constructs and associated theories problematically put forward a one-size-fits-all leadership development programme. This type of programmes has been criticised for not addressing the specific needs of the organisation whereas custom-made programmes may be more precise and sensitive in depicting organisational context as well as individual jobs (Lacerenza,

Reyes, Marlow, Joseph, & Salas, 2017). In addition, because leadership is a multilevel construct, leadership theories should be built as multilevel theories (Turner & Baker, 2018).

With the above shortcomings, these theories might, therefore, be outdated (Raelin, 2004) and problematic (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2015; Andersen, 2016). After all, many authors have argued that, because of their conceptual and methodological shortcomings, a pause in the use of or abandonment of servant leadership, charismatic-transformational leadership, and LMX may benefit the field (e.g., Andersen, 2018; Gottfredson et al., 2020; Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Siangchokyoo et al., 2020). Several newer but similar approaches have been proposed and their practical value is summed up below:

> "values-based, or ideological models focusing on leader behaviour have been proposed. These models include authentic, servant, character-based, ethical, spiritual, and aesthetic leadership. … The available evidence indicates that these models have only modest predictive power with respect to organisational performance criteria. … These models simply do not work in the real world" (Mumford & Fried, 2014, p. 622).

It has been argued that "a lack of strong leadership seems to have been driven by a misunderstanding of what actually constitutes leadership" (Müller & Esch, 2020, p. 5). Thus, the key problem that underlies all those above issues and undermines leadership development is the definition problem. Leaders might not always lead effectively and ethically if they do not know what leadership actually and objectively means, especially from their subordinates' viewpoints.

In addition to the above shortcomings, Avolio (2007) further argued that a theory of leadership development has only been peripherally addressed in the leadership literature. This is a theoretical state foreseen by Rost (1993), that leadership literature is fraught with major conceptual and practical issues and so fails to boost

practical leadership development programmes. It also becomes practically clear that "the reason why so many leadership programmes fail to produce the desired outcomes is that they are built on a conventional school of thought that is facing in the wrong direction" (Cohen, 2019, p. 8). Thus, while many organisations invest substantially in it, leadership development is still immature and in the early stages of research (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Lunsford & Brown, 2016). Its immaturity is in sharp contrast to leadership being one of the oldest and most studied phenomena in management and behavioural sciences (Ammeter, Douglas, Gardner, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2002; Bennis & Nanus, 1997).

Another point for consideration is that studies adopting the above theories also present inconsistent results regarding turnover intentions, organisational commitment, and other outcomes. Because employees can be influenced by their manager's leadership behaviour (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007), most research on subordinate turnover intentions is targeted at their immediate managers. Supervisor leadership is a good predictor of hospitality employee intentions to stay (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010). This is consistent with the findings that abusive supervision is positively related to turnover intentions (Xu et al., 2018). In the Netherlands, however, transformational and transactional leadership styles were found to show no direct relationship with organisational effectiveness in small and medium-sized hotels (Nazarian, Atkinson, Foroudi, & Dennis, 2019). Similarly, authentic leadership, ethical leadership, and transformational leadership have been found to indirectly influence turnover intentions (Chen & Wu, 2017; Gatling et al., 2016; Kim & Brymer, 2011). Nevertheless, in a recent review of 57 meta-analyses of leadership and its outcomes, Banks et al. (2018) found that turnover intentions had extremely weak to medium, negative correlations with many major leadership constructs.

Similarly, a review of studies investigating the associations between those leadership constructs and organisational commitment reveals inconsistent results (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). For example, transformational-transactional leadership only showed insignificant relationships with affective commitment (Hassi, 2019). However, most research findings confirm those relationships, including in hospitality, and similarly so with ethical leadership (e.g., Kim & Brymer, 2011). A recent meta-analysis adds more by providing evidence that transactional leadership enacts both positive and negative effects on employee performance and that developing transformational leadership and transactional leadership should be carried out with great caution (Young, Glerum, Joseph, & McCord, 2020).

In conclusion, the major theories outlined above might not always be useful for (1) explaining the leadership phenomenon in essential terms, (2) practising leadership, (3) generating significant research, and (4) developing leaders. Therefore, it might not be relevant to put all research effort into exploring the associations between those general but rival leadership theories (which perhaps have not been applied in the hospitality industry) and turnover intentions and organisational commitment in hotels, whereas their relatively weak relationships have been documented in much of the literature. Those competing but overlapping leadership theories are likely to confuse hotel management - including HR practitioners - with regard to selecting a specific, practicable approach to leadership which can also be trained and developed. For example, while it is not possible to train and put into use authentic, servant, ethical, charismatic, and transformational leadership styles simultaneously (provided that these styles are imitable or usable for training), a choice between them is also problematic.

On the one hand, these theories, developed from narrowly defined leadership as analysed before, fail to capture the *full range* of activities and functions performed by hotel managers. On the other hand, these styles are too general to be applied to hotels while the industry has already had its own leadership models that can be more fully developed. In line with those authors referred to above who are calling for the abandonment of these leadership theories, Banks et al. (2018) recently recommended that "future work on such earlier approaches be paused until better primary study data becomes available via experiments and/or further omnibus tests of leader behaviours" (p. 246). Since the operations of hospitality organisations cannot be paused, and their leaders cannot wait for such validation, the hospitality leadership competency model (HLCM) should be considered. The model is presented next.

2.5 The HLCM and its prospects in leadership development

In contrast to the general leadership theories, the HCLM (e.g., Buergermeister, 1983; Chung-Herrera, Enz, & Lankau, 2003; Kay & Russette, 2000; Morris, 1973; Tas, 1988), which presents a contextual focus but embraces a broader framework of leader behaviours, is a good prospect for an alternative to the general theories. Hence, studying hospitality leadership competencies and testing their effects on the outcomes will also produce clearer evidence and guidelines for leadership development.

As it is a labour-intensive industry, leadership is vital in hospitality (e.g., Kay & Russette, 2000; Suh, West, & Shi, 2012). Hence, a line of leadership research and theory for hospitality has been developed for nearly fifty years since the first research possibly done by Morris (1973). This research approach revolves around the term *competency*, not behaviours or styles, though overlaps between all these terms are unavoidable. The skill approach to leadership, which was built on developable

conceptual, human, and technical skills (Katz, 1955), has been closely linked to the competency approach.

The origin of this model in the broader literature can be traced back to a general definition of competencies as "underlying characteristics of an individual which may be related to future effective performance" (Boyatzis, 1982, p. 21). Competencies are behaviour patterns or potentials that a person brings to the job (Tavitiyaman et al., 2014; Woodruffe, 1993). With the competency approach, we ask not what good leaders of various kinds do (as in general theories) but what specific leaders should do to achieve effective performance (Holton & Naquin, 2000). According to Conger and Ready (2004) the leadership competency approach has become popular because of its clarity, consistency, and connectivity, stating:

> Competencies help organizations set clear expectations about the types of behaviours, capabilities, mind-sets, and values that are important to those in leadership roles. In a simple format, they send a tangible message about the company's most highly valued leadership behaviours. … The second benefit that competency frameworks provide is consistency. By establishing a single model for an organization's management ranks, competencies provide a common framework and language for communicating and implementing the firm's leadership development plan. … Most competency models are built around feedback processes that quantify the extent to which a manager or executive demonstrates a specific competency. Quantifiable data allow for uniform measurement across managers in an organization. … The third advantage is connectivity to other HR processes. Competency frameworks provide foundational metrics for many of the company's other human resources processes. (p. 43)

Therefore, and based on a competency training programme for over 70,000 public employees in America, Naquin and Holton (2006) concluded that the competency approach represents the current best practice in leadership development, and competency-based training may be the only viable solution to training problems within current and future workplaces.

In terms of organisational strategy and from the resource-based view in which human resources are key, inimitable, and non-substitutable (Barney, Ketchen, & Wright, 2011; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994), leadership skills are the intangible assets or competencies acquired by the organisation (Barney, 2001) and the foundation of competitive advantage. Thus, the major function of HRD is to develop competencies (Clardy, 2008). Therefore, the concept of competency is central in HRM, providing "a basis for horizontal integration of key HR activities, such as selection, performance assessment, training, career development, and reward management, as well as vertical integration with organizational strategy, values, business processes and performance outcomes among others" (Soderquist, Papalexandris, Ioannou, & Prastacos, 2010, p. 326). Thus, the competency approach logically links HRD with organisational strategy by preparing human capital or resources for the planned future.

In hospitality, Morris (1973) was amongst the first who described and measured competencies as essential activities, skills, or performance to assume the duty of a specific job. Citing Morris's work, Tas (1988) likewise defined competencies as activities and skills required to perform the duties of the job. As Nath and Raheja (2001) clearly described, competency is a combination of observable and applied knowledge, skills, and behaviours; therefore, competencies manifest the attitude, skill, and knowledge of an employee through observable and measurable behaviours and outcomes. Having the required competencies enables an employee to perform the job much better than others who lack those competencies (Nath & Raheja, 2001).

From the above conceptualisation of competency, the competency approach has been a very good prospect to be a trainable and measurable model, looking at the specific behaviours of the leader. A set of competencies, *as required and trained*

behaviours, differs from the potential behaviours of leaders, which may involve discretional, casual, or unrequested behaviours. Required behaviours are contextually specific, and hence, different from a general style of leadership such as servant or transactional behaviours, especially for each level of management and in a typical type of organisation. Recently, Gibbs and Slevitch (2019) found evidence in their research that the technical and emotional competencies of hospitality management trainees improved significantly after training, and their findings are consistent with many previous studies. In hotels, Asree, Zain, and Razalli (2010) found that leadership competency was positively associated with responsiveness to guest needs, which then had a positive relationship with hotel revenue. Gursoy and Swanger (2007) showed empirical evidence that professional competencies such as marketing or customer services significantly lead to the financial success of hospitality companies. These results support that the development of leadership competency is doable and more likely leads to organisational effectiveness than other approaches (Holton & Naquin, 2000). Therefore, in the future context, leadership competencies will still likely matter (Broome & Hughes, 2004).

In his pioneering research in the USA, Tas (1988) identified 36 competencies needed for hotel-manager trainees. Six competencies were classified as human-relation skills, 18 competencies were classified as management process skills, and the remaining 12 were about hotels' specific practices such as safety and sanitation. While Tas clearly stated that these tripartite competencies provide a foundation for curriculum development in hotelier schools, he also stressed that follow-up studies should be conducted to assess whether hotel managers *demonstrate* those expected competencies.

With the aim of building competency training programmes, many subsequent studies have been conducted to compare hospitality leadership competencies across cultures or industry-education sectors, to add competencies or to re-classify them. For example, in a comparative study, Baum (1990) replicated Tas's research into the UK to look at cultural variation within hotel management. He found that there were differences in rank order across the two countries; thus, the homogenisation of international hotel operation and management should be considered. Millar, Mao, and Moreo (2010) investigated the discrepancies among the competencies being taught to hotelier students, those required by hotelier professionals, and sets of competencies proposed by earlier studies. They found many gaps and implied that the required skills may need to be updated due to the change and growth of the industry. A review shows that hospitality leadership competencies have evolved continuously; thus, new relevant information from the industry should be collected and analysed to inform trainers as well as schools (Johanson, Ghiselli, Shea, & Roberts, 2011). Those findings strongly imply that comparative and updating studies are essential.

Chung-Herrera et al. (2003) investigated and developed a refined competency model. According to them, a competency model ought to identify the knowledge, skills, abilities, and behaviours needed to perform a job effectively; competency models focus on behaviour rather than traits for the reason that personal traits are hard to measure accurately (Chung-Herrera et al., 2003). From their survey and the literature, they arrived at 99 leadership competencies classified into eight overarching factors and 28 dimensions. Nevertheless, industry knowledge, core leadership, and interpersonal skills were ranked lower than the other factors. This contradicts the result found by Kay and Russette (2000) that the leadership factor is paramount.

In an editorial, Tesone (2012) summarised the transition of school titles among American tourism and hospitality colleges from Hospitality Management to Hospitality Leadership in the era of competency-based education. The author depicted this trend in Figure 1.

Tesone (2012) reported that this five-domain competency model had been being tested and updated through practitioner and educator focus groups. The model, however, hierarchises competencies using several overlapping terms (i.e., leadership, management, administrative, and supervisory). Thus, it could be challenging to justify, for example, why strategic planning and decision making are not leadership competencies.

Figure 1. Evolution of Hospitality Programme Competencies

	Hospitality Education		
Competencies domains	Administration	Management	Leadership
Leadership Governance, conceptualisation transformation/development, growth, innovation, creativity			
Management Strategic planning, decision making, systems structures, problem solving, productivity			
Administrative Accounting/finance, human resources, marketing, technology, legal			
Supervisory Communication, resource allocation/control, productivity, motivation, performance			
Technical Service, production, repairs, maintenance, delivery			
	1922-1970	1970-2000	2000-present

Source: Tesone (2012).

At the same time, and after reviewing major research and interviewing industry managers on leadership competencies, Testa and Sipe (2012) developed a service–leadership competency model that includes 20 competency areas. These competencies are clustered into three higher order factors:

1. Business savvy: Leading the organisation or department as a whole (e.g., planning, decision making),
2. People savvy: Leading people (e.g., communication, coaching, training), and
3. Self savvy: Leading self (e.g., self-development, time management).

This classification further develops the competency model in which leadership has a much wider meaning, including its core and most focused meaning, which is leading people. Leadership competencies are now classified according to the *objects* of leadership behaviours (the leader, the team, the department or the organisation). Thus, depending on their positions and the targeted objects, leaders need to perform associated competencies. Still, this model fails to classify competencies into levels of management. With such a shortcoming, this classification is quite similar to the leadership capability model developed by The Center for Creative Leadership (McCauley, Van Velsor, & Ruderman, 2010), which includes:

- Leading-oneself capabilities: Self-awareness, the ability to balance conflicting demands, the ability to learn, and leadership values,
- Leading-others capabilities: The ability to build and maintain relationships, the ability to build effective teams, communication skills, and the ability to develop others, and

- Leading-the-organisation capabilities: Management skills, the ability to think and act strategically, the ability to think creatively, and the ability to start and implement change.

Both the shortcoming in Testa and Sipe's model and the overlap in Tesone's model have been resolved within the updated model of Shum et al. (2018). As lately reviewed and investigated by Shum et al. (2018), the hospitality competency approach has been well developed into two lines of research:

1. Job-specific models which aim at developing specific competencies in need, for example, product knowledge, employee development, administrative and technical skills, etc.

   The authors also pointed out that up to 86% of all competencies are generic or common core competencies. Hence, generic models are proposed.

2. Generic models which put more emphasis on leadership and business competencies, and less do so on technical skills.

From the literature, and as a refinement of the works of Sisson and Adams (2013) and notably Testa and Sipe (2012), Shum et al. (2018) proposed an updated model with three generic competency factors. The authors also confirmed that these three factors have been shown to be empirically distinguishable. The model, which specifically provides direction to the present thesis, includes:

(a) Personal leadership: Self-focused competencies needed for personal development and interpersonal relationship (five competencies),

(b) People leadership: Competencies needed for leading and developing subordinates (five competencies), and

(c) Business leadership: Defined as competencies needed for managing business functions (five competencies).

Shum et al. (2018) also confirmed that competency models are not only context-specific but also time-specific and level-specific. The authors suggested that new competencies can always be added, such as social media competency; and frontline and director managers hold different competency priorities. The authors also stressed that future research should include comparative studies across cultures to discover cultural specificities for training expatriates. Again, their suggestions echo those of prior research and the review of Johanson et al. (2011), and give direction to this thesis.

Perhaps the most important contribution the HLCM makes to leadership literature and also the first implication for this thesis is that it provides a much broader framework of activities and functions carried out by managers. Leadership is not only about leading teams (human resources) but also about self-leading (personal resources) and leading business (other organisational resources that are available to the manager to fulfil their duty). From the perspective of subordinates, if a leader is consistently incompetent in mobilising the three sets of resources involving himself or herself, the team, and other available organisational resources to get things done, this could indicate ineffective leadership. Therefore, with the self-leading factor and the associated set of personal leadership competencies, the updated HLCM can capture and integrate some aspects of both self-leadership (Manz, 1986) and ethical leadership (Brown et al., 2005), which have been ignored by major leadership theories as presented in Section 2.4. Hence, the HLCM moves beyond a single leadership style, such as authentic or ethical, becomes broader of meaning to embrace different contexts and levels, and is trainable.

In addition, and based on the above definitions of Burns (1978) and of Heifetz and Sinder (1988), this thesis proposes leadership in organisations as the use of

organisational resources. Thus, to be particularly effective in hospitality organisations, Cribbin (1972) stressed that "the manager HUSBANDS his [sic] resources" (p. 72), in which, "the ability to make the best use of people is a distinctive feature" (Mullins & Davies, 1991, p. 24). Since leadership is the central construct of this thesis, an appropriate definition is needed so the research can be conducted consistently from understanding the concept/phenomenon to operationalising and measuring the derived constructs (i.e., competencies), analysing the data, and interpreting the results. In line with the proposed definition, leadership can be operationalised into the use of those three distinct sets of resources, and each is associated with a required set (i.e., a factor) of competencies. To use resources effectively, efficiently, and morally, which means, to fulfil their duty, organisational leaders need to master these three required sets (i.e., factors) of competencies. This operationalisation may demonstrate a relative match between the above proposed definition of leadership and the updated HLCM of Shum et al., (2018).

While the immediate applications of the HLCM are for educating, training, and selecting leaders (Baum, 1990; Chung-Herrera et al., 2003; Tas, 1988), the model should also be used for performance appraisal (Chung-Herrera et al., 2003; Kay & Moncarz, 2007; Tas, 1988). This is the second implication for this thesis, and further exploration of this usage is encouraged (Shum et al., 2018; Testa & Sipe, 2012). To develop leaders, training is only one side of the coin and will not be fully effective if the other side, which is appraising managers for prescribing proper HRM interventions, is neglected. In addition, upward feedback is important for leaders themselves.

For performance appraisal, both results-oriented (or goals-oriented) and competency-based approaches (Fletcher, 2008) have been widely applied though

managerial job outputs are difficult to measure (Redman & Snape, 1992). A results-oriented approach is subjective, and there have been many reports on its errors, bias, inaccuracy, and unfairness (DeNisi, 1996). Possibly because of these issues, the hospitality industry has otherwise adopted the competency-based approach (Bharwani & Talib, 2017). This is, therefore, another good reason for assessing leadership from the established competency approach, not from the results-oriented approach.

The third implication of importance to this thesis is that people leadership ranks first for frontline managers while business leadership, which demands a more strategic approach to, and behaviours in respect of, overall business resources, is a priority for director-level managers (Shum et al., 2018). Whitelaw (2013) previously pointed out that frontline managers have different leadership behaviours to those of senior managers. The present study investigates frontline managers and, thus, from a competency perspective (Shum et al., 2018), the focus is on personal leadership competencies (e.g., acting in an ethical manner, having emotional intelligence) plus people leadership competencies (e.g., having strong conflict management skills, leading effective teams, providing coaching). This is especially prevalent because it might be very difficult for frontline employees to assess their managers strategic vision for example.

Finally, the HLCM is also open to the addition of new competencies. Hence, this thesis explores whether a new competency such as family supportive supervisor behaviours (FSSB) could be added. Accordingly, to better mobilise their subordinates to do their jobs, a hospitality manager needs to support their subordinates' family commitments appropriately.

Apart from those advancements and implications, it is worth noting that the competency model, in general, is not without some criticism and, thus, there is room

for improvements and the developers of the HLCM have pointed out areas for future research. First, its initial framework may fail to capture the organisational context, the perceptions of various organisational members about leadership, and future skills (Edwards & Turnbull, 2013; Probert & Turnbull, 2011). There are suggestions that, competency ratings at the selection of leaders poorly predict their later actual leadership performance (Sutton & Watson, 2013). Thus, it can be risky to take it as a solution for all human resource practices (Bolden & Gosling, 2006), especially around leadership development within specific organisations.

Second, Boyatzis (1993) and Mintzberg (2004) raised a concern as well as a challenge to leadership development by noting that many managers had but did not adequately perform the competencies to be effective leaders. Similarly, Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003, p. 265) mentioned laissez-faire leadership as the absence of leadership in which the competent manager may avoid taking action. Boyatzis (1993) further explained this concern in his research on competence, which investigated and modelled employee career growth into three modes:

1. Learning Mode: Employees tend to put effort into learning new skills, coping with new challenges, and trying novelties.
2. Performance Mode: Employees will seek job mastery.
3. Development Mode: Employees may look for values and desire to be congruent with the organisation.

Boyatzis found that, unlike in the Performance Mode, managers in the Learning and Development Modes may choose *not* to use some or many of their competencies; effective job performance may be a secondary concern, becoming less important than learning or integrating into organisations, i.e., being consistent with the organisational culture. Consequently, there is an apparent disparity between *possessed*

competencies and *performed* competencies. Thus, the concern of Boyatzis and Mintzberg directs this thesis to explore the factor (i.e., construct) *leader effectiveness* in the mediation models presented in manuscripts 2 (Chapter 5) and 3 (Chapter 6).

Third, and specific to the hospitality sector, required competencies have been similarly found to be more useful for initially selecting and training managers, but less so for rewarding and promoting them, a problem with which the sector is struggling with (King, Funk, & Wilkins, 2011). The latter decisions are informed by actually performed competencies. This is why hotels need policies that stimulate continual learning and promote those who *actually utilise* their competencies (Garavan, O'Brien, & O'Hanlon, 2006). Indeed, it has been noted that hotels have focused more on motivation and commitment but less on the academic achievements of applicants (Ineson & Kempa, 1997). The present study seeks to address this problem and the concerns set out above by exploring leadership competencies from the perspective of subordinates, that is, how much leaders are perceived by subordinates as engaging in and utilising the competencies their leaders possess.

In summary, these problem and concerns regarding the HLCM are specifically about *over-emphasising* the model for professional training and education while leaving a gap in utilising it to assess the actually performed competencies, as Tas (1988) suggested. Clearly, the imbalance between those two applications needs to be fixed so the model will be fully tested to be an effective one. Furthermore, the HLCM has been constructed and developed from the viewpoints of hospitality managers and educators. The important viewpoint of constituent subordinates on how leadership competencies are actually performed and perceived - and their subsequent influence on turnover intentions and organisational commitment - is not a typical research approach.

The present thesis focuses on subordinates and is seen as being a critical approach. This is because “leadership not only shapes the context in terms of how it is interpreted, it also is shaped by the context in terms of how it is perceived” (Avolio & Locke, 2002, p. 185). It has been argued that the perception of subordinates provides a valuable and unique view of a manager's effectiveness beyond what is obtained from other sources (Manjunatha, 2012). Hence, the subordinates’ attitudes to and perceptions of their leader are supposed to be common indicators of leader effectiveness (Yukl, 2013). Managers are likely to improve their performance and change their behaviour in response to upward feedback from their subordinates (Walker & Smither, 1999). Thus, it seems that the viewpoint of subordinates is critical to understanding leadership performance and leader effectiveness and can be an invaluable source of information for managers as well as hospitality organisations and schools.

2.6 Research gaps, problem statement, and research questions

2.6.1 Research gaps

Though the HLCM has been widely applied in the industry (Assante et al., 2009; Chapman & Lovell, 2006), its association with employee attitudes and behaviours has been less researched, and thus its potential usefulness for leadership development is poorly understood. Consequently, research gaps are present and potential contributions can be made.

First, as presented above, the associations between turnover intentions or organisational commitment and many leadership constructs and theories have been well investigated. Nevertheless, how these two outcomes associate with the HLCM (e.g., Tas, 1988; Testa & Sipe, 2012), particularly with the updated HLCM of Shum

et al. (2018), does not appear to have been tested. Possibly because of the lack of validating research in the literature, some reviews of hospitality leadership (e.g., Boyne, 2010; Cheung, King, & Wong, 2018) have been unable to identify the HLCM though it has been developed over nearly fifty years (e.g., Morris, 1973; Tas, 1988).

Consequently, this neglect separates the HLCM from the collection of tested leadership theories and models; and, thus, the potential implications of the HLCM to mitigate turnover intentions, increase organisational commitment and, finally, reduce turnover are not known and therefore have yet to be realised. Moreover, since many leadership theories are competitively available and have been repeatedly suggested for use in the industry (e.g., Gatling et al., 2016; Ghosh & Khatri, 2018), hospitality managers may be confused about choosing and applying the most effective one. If they want to continue favouring the HLCM with confidence, supporting evidence is needed, and guiding information should be augmented.

Second, the performance of leadership competencies as perceived from the viewpoint of hotel frontline employees, an important stakeholder group, has been overlooked. The leader-follower (i.e., subordinate) relationship has been crucial in the leadership process, and many leadership theories have focused on the co-construction of leadership by both leaders and followers (Kark & van Dijk, 2019). Thus, how to conceptualise and practise competent leadership should be, ideally or at least to some extent, consensual among leaders and their subordinates. Nevertheless, the relationships between leadership competencies, as perceived by subordinates, and the job-related attitudes and behaviours of subordinates have not been previously studied. Therefore, if the HLCM is, as until now, solely constructed by hospitality managers and educators, are not effective in mobilising subordinates to do their job, it should be reviewed for a reconstruction.

Third, culture and context do influence the expectations and effectiveness of leadership (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012; Yukl, 2013). To some extent, the globalisation of hospitality businesses and the adoption of hotel franchised training programmes have spread Western management principles and practices into Vietnam (Madera, Dawson, Guchait, & Belarmino, 2017; Yap & Ineson, 2016). Still, there may be some stark differences between the two countries examined in this study. New Zealand is a developed country, with an established economy and set within a western culture, while Vietnam, a developing economy, which the World Bank notes has shifted "from a centrally planned to a market economy", making Vietnam "one of the most dynamic emerging countries in East Asia region" (see World Bank, 2021) Further, Vietnam differs from the western setting of New Zealand due to it being an eastern culture (Cohen, Wu, & Miller, 2016; Luu, 2018; Mejia at al., 2015; World Bank, 2019). As a result, distinct leadership practices (and/or employee interpretations) and influences may exist in New Zealand and Vietnam as two different contexts and cultures. In addition, hotels in Vietnam employ local employees mostly, whereas hotels in New Zealand also employ migrant employees (Williamson, 2017). More reasons have been found for turnover intentions of migrant employees, visa issues for example (Williamson et al., 2012). Therefore, in hotels employing migrants, the effect of leadership competencies on turnover intentions may be distinct. Such cultural discrepancies, stressed by Shum et al. (2018) and other authors, need to be explored via comparative studies. Additionally, Chen and Wu (2017) suggested that future studies on turnover intentions should collect data from hotels in different countries to increase confidence in the study. Theoretically, such comparative research may begin to assess the generalisability and context-free application of a theory developed in one context (Meyer, 2006).

To date, these differences around leadership practices between the two countries of New Zealand and Vietnam have also been unexplored and little is known about the common or discrepant impacts of leadership practices on the outcomes, particularly on turnover intentions and organisational commitment. As a result, hospitality managers and educators in both countries may not be adequately informed about which leadership competencies more strongly influence key outcomes in each context. Therefore, a comparative study is needed to fill in these shortcomings.

Fourth and finally, because the industry is changing, the need for and importance of a specific leadership competency may be changing, and thus the magnitude of its effects on the outcomes may be changed as well. New competencies may be added to the pool of leadership competencies. Such changes, of course, demand continually updating research, which has been persistently concluded by the developers of the HLCM (e.g., Baum, 1990; Shum et al., 2018; Tas, 1988).

2.6.2 The problem statement and research questions

This thesis investigates the potential impacts of the updated HLCM of Shum et al. (2018), in particular the 10 leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers, on their subordinates' organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Such a study is needed to fill in those gaps in the literature and is likely to give hints to solve turnover and other work-related issues. This thesis raises and is led by the following overarching research question, "**How do the leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers influence their subordinates' turnover intentions and organisational commitment?".** Three sub-questions are used to formulate hypotheses in subsequent manuscripts 1, 2, 3, and 4 which are found in Chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7 respectively. These questions are:

1. What influence do these 10 leadership competencies, as identified in the updated model of Shum et al. (2018), have on hotel employees' job outcomes (e.g., turnover intentions)?
2. How do these leadership competencies influence hotel employees' job outcomes (specifically, is there a mediation process)?
3. Will there be differences in the relationships between typical leadership competencies and the investigated outcomes in Vietnamese versus New Zealand hotels?

2.7 Mediators and moderators

Behavioural theorists have a shared belief that the effects of stimuli on behaviours are often indirect through various responsive processes internal to the receiver. Thus, the importance of such processes (i.e., mediators) that intervene between stimuli (i.e., input) and behaviours (i.e., output) must be considered (Baron & Kenny, 1986). These mediator variables may account for differences in human behaviours (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Therefore, it is necessary to consider some of those important variables to clearly understand the relationship between leadership competencies, i.e., the stimuli, and turnover intentions and organisational commitment, i.e., the behaviours.

Indeed, the literature on turnover intentions indicates that it is likely that job leavers engage in a chain of leaving attitudes and behaviours during the turnover process (Griffeth et al., 2000; Riegel, 2011). Hence, employees do not straightforwardly think their leader is incompetent and thus they should quit. Instead, they might feel their incompetent leader makes them less happy about their job (job satisfaction) or less connected to their workplace (affective commitment), and this triggers their turnover intentions and ultimately their decision to quit. These attitudes

and behaviours will act as mediators, and many of them have been hypothesised and tested in the literature. Among various mediating variables that influence turnover intentions, the research reported in this thesis measures and investigates variables relating to HRM which have been mentioned frequently in prior research. For example, the meta-analysis by Griffeth et al. (2000) and the study of Price (2001) noted the effects of job satisfaction on turnover intentions.

Job satisfaction is defined as "the motivation underlying goal pursuit such that approach goals are likely to lead to satisfaction, and avoidance goals are more likely to lead to dissatisfaction" (Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005, p. 257). Job satisfaction has been found to strongly and negatively influence turnover intentions in the hospitality industry (Jang & George, 2012; Mohsin, Lengler, & Kumar, 2013). Job satisfaction has also been found to mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and turnover intentions as well as to indirectly influence turnover intentions as mediated by organisational commitment (Kim & Brymer, 2011). Therefore, job satisfaction may play a mediating role in the relationship between leadership competencies, including ethical leadership, and turnover intentions. In the service sector, if organisations focus on maintaining high levels of job satisfaction among their employees, workers are less likely to quit (McPhail, Patiar, Herington, Creed, & Davidson, 2015; Mooney, Harris, & Ryan, 2016). This highlights the effect of job satisfaction on turnover intentions within a mediation mechanism preceded by leadership competencies.

To address the concerns of Boyatzis (1993) and Mintzberg (2004) about managers who have competencies but do not always perform those competencies, this thesis also investigates the construct 'leader effectiveness'. It has been noted that effective managers are those who retain subordinates and get results (Horstman,

2016). Boyatzis (1993) argued that leaders could be more effective if they consistently use their competencies. Thus, by consistently performing competencies, that is behaving in a reliable and timely manner (or *being* effective), a manager not only retains the subordinates but also boosts their commitment, and therefore can get results. Being an effective manager, i.e., achieving leader effectiveness, therefore, demands both consistent behaviours and result commitment. Ultimately, leader effectiveness, as perceived by the subordinates, is the outcome or accumulation (i.e., being good, or quality aspect) of performed competencies (i.e., doing good, or quantity aspect). Conversely, leaders can become more effective by developing their competencies (Bamel, Rangnekar, Stokes, & Rastogi, 2015).

Because the concept of leader effectiveness is both complex and contested, as viewed in the literature (Bamel et al., 2015; Hamlin, 2005), this thesis adopts the construct and associated scale that best match with the above conception of effective managers or leader effectiveness, including those two key factors: consistent behaviours and result commitment. Therefore, the construct 'managerial competence and consistency', which is defined as "the degree to which managers were consistent in their treatment of employees and the articulation of organizational goals and policies" (Rogg, Schmidt, Shull, & Schmitt, 2001, p. 436), is used. Managerial competence and consistency is important because it has been found to have both direct effect and indirect effects - as mediating by trust and employee engagement, on affective commitment (Hughes, Avey, & Norman, 2008). Specific behaviours or competencies can increase a leader effectiveness (Yukl, 2012), which in turn increases subordinate commitment. Hence, this thesis explores whether or not leader effectiveness mediates the relationship between leadership competencies and affective commitment. The addition of leader effectiveness into the model may reveal more

about how leaders are perceived beyond just having a certain style or set of competencies.

Beyond the direct and mediation effects, this thesis also considers two moderating effects. First, gender may influence performance rating and its outcomes (Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris, & Zivnuska, 2011; Millmore, Biggs, & Morse, 2007), especially in the hospitality sector (Gatling, Molintas, Self, & Shum, 2020). Second, in front desk or food-and-beverage departments, employee-focused leadership competencies are more important to managers who typically manage a larger number of employees (Kay & Russette, 2000). Hence, the effects of a leadership competency on leader effectiveness and the outcomes may be dependent on gender or team size. These are discussed in detail in the associated manuscripts.

2.8 Summary

Because poor leadership by frontline managers is one primary cause of hotel employee turnover intentions and low commitment, an optimum retention strategy is one that develops well-trained managers and supervisors in all hotel departments (Lim, 2008; Wasmuth & Davis, 1983). The review shows that the HLCM provides useful insights for understanding and practising leadership training and development. The established features of the updated HLCM of Shum et al. (2018) as being industry-focused, multileveled, performable, and usable for training have been pointed out. Its developers also argued that the competency model is not static but contextually adaptable, thus making it a more fruitful and progressive approach to understanding and practising leadership.

For contemporary and future research, prior studies have pointed out some important implications, such as for leadership performance appraisal. Nevertheless,

the review indicates that the relationships between performed leadership competencies, as perceived by subordinates, and their turnover intentions and organisational commitment, have not previously been studied. Specifically, the question of which competencies are more important in retaining and engaging employees remains unanswered. Different leadership practices and influences may exist in New Zealand and Vietnam, but no prior comparative study has been conducted. Therefore, empirical research to investigate the effects of perceived leadership competencies towards employee turnover intentions and commitment in hotels across the two countries is worthy of study to fill in these gaps.

The focus on hotel frontline managers is needed to solve two HRM challenges (subordinate retention and leadership development). Exploring leadership in two different cultures will help to understand more fully its practice and influence over turnover intentions and organisational commitment. Thus, if these relationships are to be found and tested under different patterns, the HLCM can be added with new features such as being useful in predicting key outcomes and culturally flexible. With the established features plus potentially new ones, the updated HLCM can be adopted in both hospitality organisations and schools. More importantly, this common adoption can ensure the compatibility between industry requirements and leadership education. The common language of leadership competency, thus, opens up many opportunities for practitioners and educators to communicate, cooperate and, finally, share and enjoy the results expected from both sides.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

This chapter describes the research process undertaken for this thesis. The first section reports on some philosophical and theoretical considerations for the researcher to bear in mind before and during the research period. The second section presents the nonexperimental, quantitative design of this study. A rationale for the design as well as some issues associated with it are also outlined. The third section presents the survey method and describes the instruments used to collect data from the targeted populations. The fourth section reports how the populations were estimated and sampling was undertaken. The statistical procedures used to analyse the survey data are discussed in section five. The two last sections summarise the design of the four manuscript chapters and some ethical concerns emerging from this research.

3.1. Ontological, epistemological, and methodological considerations

The process of understanding phenomena through research is complex. What is to be studied, how it has been studied, and will be studied, are major concerns for researchers at the starting point of the process. Ontology is about what is to be studied. It is concerned primarily with the nature of existence, or simply with "what is", i.e., how things really are and operate (Crotty, 1998), or particularly with the nature of organisational phenomena (Gioia & Pitre, 1990). In physical sciences, the object being investigated could be both perceived and defined precisely. In contrast, since there are no concrete "objects" normally studied in social sciences, it is therefore the definition(s) of the investigated phenomenon that can stand for or plays the role of an object (Locke, 2003). However, it is not easy to clearly define the investigated

phenomenon in social science research. Moreover, researchers tend to define a construct such as leadership loosely by their personal perspectives (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2013). Indeed, within the leadership literature, Harris (2005) estimated there are more than 350 definitions of leadership alone. As a result, inconsistencies and conflicts about definition are commonly seen in this literature (Blom & Alvesson, 2015).

As Crotty (1998) pointed out, ontology is not only about the definition(s) of the object but the accumulated knowledge around it as well. It is basically a circular process in which the accumulation of knowledge is used to refine the definition of the object. In turn, the new definition is helpful in exploring and accumulating newer knowledge (Locke, 2003). Hence, and especially in social science, there has always been a linkage between "what the object is" and the ways people generate knowledge of the object.

Therefore, to start my investigation at the ontological level, I have first defined leadership. As presented in the literature review chapter, leadership is defined in the thesis as, broadly, the use of organisational resources. In organisations, the leadership of a leader involves self-leading (personal resources), leading teams (human resources), and leading the organisation (any other organisational resources that are available to the leader to perform the duty). This definition stands for "what is" or the phenomenon to be studied in this thesis. The literature review chapter also briefly argues that this definition can be linked to the operationalisation of hospitality leadership into three competency factors, namely personal, people, and business (Shum et al., 2018).

Epistemology is about how we know the object and the knowledge about it (Crotty, 1998; Gioia & Pitre, 1990). While the object we want to know may be unique and distinguishable from other objects, often there are many ways to know and study

it. There are many epistemologies, notably objectivism, constructivism, and subjectivism (Crotty, 1998). Basically, the meaning of the object (1) resides in the object and is discoverable (objectivism) or (2) is socially constructed about the object (constructivism) or (3) resides in the mind of the individual investigator and is imposed on the thing (subjectivism) (Crotty, 1998). Because of those contrasting assumptions, a researcher needs to state a knowledge claim, including the chosen ontology and epistemology at the outset (Creswell, 2003, 2014). The sequential choices of methodology and method will logically follow from that knowledge claim.

This research has followed an objectivist approach for several reasons. First, constructivist and subjectivist approaches to leadership, as the dominant ones, have been criticised as being unsuccessful in defining leadership properly (Blom & Alvesson, 2015; Yukl, 2013). Such arguments around this opinion are not uncommon. For instance, leadership is typified as a field in which "it is permissible for leadership scholars not to know what leadership is" (Rost, 1991, p. 13). Leadership researchers study "everything about nothing" (Kets de Vries, 1994, p. 73) and leadership has recently been referred to as nothing and anything (Alvesson, 2019). If this is true and accepted widely, leadership could be a field of study without a clear ontological foundation. Therefore, redefinition and redirection is the way forward (Glynn & Raffaelli, 2010). Second, objectivism, typically as argued by Rand (1990), provides a framework which is useful for defining leadership more objectively. Third, since hospitality leadership has been constructed by researchers and managers, the approach from the viewpoint of subordinates, as adopted by this thesis, aims to enhance its objectivity, at least from that missing viewpoint. Furthermore, both the quantitative design and the survey method, which are adopted in this research, align well with

objectivism. Hence, the objectivist framework was used to connect the ontology, epistemology, methodology, and method adopted in this research.

Methodology is the process, or the strategy/plan of actions for studying the phenomenon (Creswell, 2003, 2014; Crotty, 1998; Raadschelders, 2011). For this study, methodology includes both the design of the research process and the rationale behind each step in that process. There are three major designs: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-designs (Creswell, 2014). At the centre of the process is the research method, which is a set of techniques and procedures to collect and analyse data (Creswell, 2014; Crotty, 1998; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The next section presents the design and method of this thesis.

3.2. The research nonexperimental, quantitative design with a survey method

3.2.1. The rationale for the quantitative design

In the human and social sciences, three considerations need to be made for selecting a qualitative, quantitative, or a mixed-method design: the research problem, the researcher's experience, and the target audience (Creswell, 2014). However, and from the objectivist standpoint (Rand, 1990), choosing an appropriate approach may be less the matter of the preference, belief, and experience of the researcher but more of the investigated phenomenon and the research question(s). Thus, "researchers must also bear in mind that "What to research?" may have a major impact on methodological choice" (Holden & Lynch, 2004, p. 407).

When the concept or phenomenon is new and receives very little research, the researcher does not know the necessary variables to examine, then it merits a qualitative approach (Creswell, 2014). Alternatively, if the phenomenon has been relatively well understood but uncertainties and problems around its relationships with

other phenomena (i.e., constructs) remain, then a quantitative approach is more suitable (Creswell, 2014). Because the HLCM has been built up to the construct-definition level as reviewed in the previous chapter (e.g., Shum et al., 2018), a quantitative design is relevant to further developing the model by operationalising, measuring, and testing the predictive relationships between those well-defined constructs and job-related outcomes. This design, again, follows the objectivist approach since the design is driven by the phenomenon being investigated (i.e., the object) and not by the belief and experience of the researcher (i.e., the subject).

Another point of concern about doing research is the extent to which a researcher wants to be more certain about the expected findings as well as the possible method(s) being used to reach them. In this regard, the researcher can choose one among several perspectives from which the research will be conducted and the findings will be interpreted. Crotty (1998) classified those perspectives on the absoluteness and accuracy of knowledge into positivism (including post-positivism), interpretivism, postmodernism, and so on.

Post-positivism is the suitable perspective to this research and its objectivist epistemology. According to Creswell (2014), post-positivists claim that:

> Causes (probably) determine effects or outcomes. Thus, the problems studied by postpositivists reflect the need to identify and assess the causes that influences the outcomes. … Knowledge that develops through a postpositivist lens is based on careful observations and measurement of objective reality that exists "out there" in the world. Thus, developing numeric measures of observations and studying behaviours of individuals becomes paramount for a postpositivist. Finally, there are laws or theories that govern the world, and there needs to be tested or verified and refined so that we can understand the world. (p. 7)

From this perspective, research may start with identifying or defining the phenomena that are "out there" and then measuring and testing their potential causal

relationships. This thesis aims to understand how or in what pattern leadership competencies of frontline managers exert a potentially causal influence on the attitudes and behaviours of their subordinates. Thus, and beyond the predictive objective, this thesis assesses if such influence towards these two outcomes may likely imply underlying causal mechanisms. The attainment of this causal insight will help understand how the outcomes would occur and, ultimately, how it might be possible in order to make significant improvements in them. The aim and objectives of this thesis conform strictly to the above claim.

3.2.2. Predictive and explanatory objectives in a quantitative design

According to Pedhazur (1997), while prediction and explanation are central scientific concepts, their meanings are not sharply distinguishable. Predictive research aims at making practical applications and maximising the prediction of criteria; thus, the choice of variables (i.e., predictors) is determined by their perceived contribution to the prediction of the criteria, possibly without a prior theoretical frame of reference. The predictive roles of variables are interchangeable between them. On the other hand, explanatory research aims at understanding the phenomenon, and the choice of variables (i.e., independents, the causes of; and dependents, the consequences of) is determined by not only the role of variables but also their operating processes. In this case, a prior theoretical frame of reference is a prerequisite. Explanatory research may serve as a strong mean for prediction; however, the causes and the effects are not interchangeable (Pedhazur, 1997). In contrast, Flora (2018) used these sets of terms interchangeably since they are treated similarly in statistical models that are fitted to data. It is therefore both the goal of research and the interpretation of results that are helpful in clearly differentiating those two kinds of research.

This research aims at measuring and testing the predictive strength of leadership competencies as potentially strong, if not the strongest, predictors of turnover intentions and organisational commitment. Moreover, leader effectiveness and job satisfaction, being the potential consequences of leadership competencies but the cause of these two outcomes, are investigated within a mediation framework. Therefore, both predictive and explanatory investigations have been integrated into the research design. Consequently, two levels of analyses have been correspondingly conducted to realise the predictive and explanatory objectives:

- Predictive level with correlational diagnoses and multiple regression analysis
- Explanatory level with mediation and moderation analyses.

The processes and results of these analyses are presented in the following manuscript Chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7.

Also, to verify the association of hospitality leadership competencies and the outcomes, this research adopted a comparative study in its design. This design was adopted to increase the confidence of the study as suggested by Chen and Wu (2017). Furthermore, the influence of each leadership competency may not be the same across cultures and economic systems. From such a comparison, more insights could be obtained to make more specific implications. Finally, while two samples, one in New Zealand and one in Vietnam, are not considered multiple, they are useful to deal with common method variance (CMV) and to test the measurement model by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA); both will be discussed below.

In addition to the above considerations, it should be noted that the term ‘paradigm’, which relates to a particular system of past scientific achievements (e.g., theories, models and methods) plus practices (e.g., applications and instrumentations) as examined by Kuhn (1996), is not discussed more thoroughly in this chapter for two

reasons. First, paradigms, as systems of knowledge plus associated methodologies and practices, may not be sharply recognisable in the leadership field (Avery, 2004). Moreover, if a paradigm is strictly what is shared among the members of a scientific community (Kuhn, 1996), then this united state can hardly be reached, much less shared, in the leadership field, which is a fragmented one (Alvesson & Kärreman, 2015). Second, the term paradigm has been interpreted in a way that overlaps with the above conceptualisations of epistemology, methodology, and method. For example, and in contrast with Kuhn's definition, a paradigm "is a general perspective or way of thinking that reflects fundamental beliefs and assumptions about the nature of organizations" (Gioia & Pitre, 1990, p. 585).

3.2.3. Issues with the quantitative research methodology

Despite the above discussions and arguments about the rationale for adopting the quantitative design, there are some critiques of research using quantitative methodology that need to be highlighted.

3.2.3.1. Multicollinearity in behavioural studies

Multicollinearity happens when correlations among predictors are high, e.g., 0.75 or above (Flora, 2018), or without an agreed threshold (Pedhazur, 1997). In nonexperimental research, this is an unavoidable issue (Pedhazur, 1997). Multicollinearity reveals a redundancy among investigated predictors; therefore, the unique strength of contribution of each predictor to the criterion may be small (Flora, 2018). This might be especially prevalent in the HLCM approach whereby ten distinct, but potentially overlapping, leadership competencies are tested.

In a regression analysis, multicollinearity is problematic because this analysis aims to calculate the parameters of dependency, not interdependency, relationships (Farrar & Glauber, 1967). Thus, multicollinearity may cause regression analyses to be less useful or misleading (Pedhazur, 1997). In particular, it may result in (1) unstable or sign-changed regression coefficients, (2) inflated variance of the outcome, and (3) unidentifiable importance of predictors (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2002; Field, 2018; Pedhazur, 1997). In addition, standard errors will be inflated (Brown, 2014). In fact, if the predictors are uncorrelated, multiple regression can be replaced by a series of simple regression analyses; hence, some overlap among predictors is expected in multiple regression (Brown, 2014). Multicollinearity can be diagnosed by several ways. From its definition, the bivariate correlation matrix provides the first signal of multicollinearity. Many authors suggested using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) score and the tolerance statistic to diagnose multicollinearity between predictors (e.g., Field, 2018; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Pedhazur, 1997). Multicollinearity is addressed further in the result chapters.

Since multicollinearity reduces the predictive power of independent variables (IVs), to maximise their prediction, a researcher should gather IVs that have low multicollinearity but have high correlations with the dependent variable (DV) (Hair et al., 2010). This careful selection of predictors in behavioural sciences can ease the problem of multicollinearity (Flora, 2018). According to Stevens (2009), generally, there are three possible solutions to reducing multicollinearity presented in the data set: (1) combining highly correlated predictors to form a single predictor, (2) replacing those correlated predictors with a smaller set of low correlated predictors by factor analysis, and (3) using ridge regression. Cohen et al. (2002) and Pedhazur (1997)

added that the collection of additional data might reduce some, but not all, problems associated with multicollinearity.

This research dealt with multicollinearity by using several tactics. First, leadership competencies (constructs), by definition, share the root (i.e., leadership) and so do overlap in meaning, but this overlap potentially tends to be limited. Second, and in the design phase, scales were chosen carefully to eliminate potential duplicated items between as well as within scales. In the finalised set of scales, some overlapping items had been removed. Third, and in the analysis phase, some diagnoses and treatments were conducted and are reported in the manuscript chapters. Finally, stepwise regression analysis was adopted to identify a smaller number of competencies that had the most substantial influence on the outcomes (Pedhazur, 1997). In effect, stepwise regression analysis confirms those constructs that have the strongest effect and allows them to dominate the analysis without considering all the other related but less important constructs. Thus, while a large number of leadership competencies might be related to an outcome (Shum et al., 2018 identified 15 such competencies), the stepwise regression weights the power and influence of IVs on the DV (i.e., the outcome). If two or three variables dominate, these can subsequently be used to produce the most accurate levels of influence on the outcome.

3.2.3.2. Controlling non-focal variables

According to Becker (2005), control variables are non-focal factors (i.e., variables) used in research to rule out alternative interpretations of the findings, to gain statistical power, and to reduce error terms. Including adequate control variables can also facilitate causal inferences (Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart, & Lalive, 2010). Controlling a variable can be done by experimental design. For example, to control

gender effects, only men or women are investigated, or tested against the other control group (e.g., men versus women). The other choice is statistical control, which is coding (i.e., grouping) participants and analysing them via regressions (Becker, 2005). Thus, control variables are usually common demographic factors such as gender, age, education, etc. Because control variables could be as important as focal variables (Becker, 2005), choosing control variables in research should be done with care. The choice sometimes can hardly be made without guiding theories (Becker, 2005; Pedhazur, 1997) or prior related studies (Atinc, Simmering, & Kroll, 2011).

Previous studies have found that turnover intentions are dissimilar among employees' groups of ages and tenure, and female employees tend to have higher organizational commitment that male employees (Griffeth et al., 2000; Lu, Lu, Gursoy, & Neale, 2016). Therefore, this study controlled for employees' age (in age bands of years), gender (male, female, neutral), and tenure (in age bands of years). Furthermore, there are findings that managers' gender, age, and team size (in bands of team size – see Appendix D) influence their leadership effectiveness (Bernerth, Cole, Taylor, & Walker, 2018). Thus, this research also controlled for these variables. However, controlling for all of these variables would depend on their bivariate correlations with the dependent variables (turnover intentions and other job attitudes). The actual results and justification of those control variables are presented in the manuscript chapters.

3.3. Data collection

3.3.1. The rationale of the survey method

The purpose of a survey is to make statistical estimates of the characteristics of a target population (Fowler, 2009). Based on a representative sample, survey research

provides a numerical description of trends, opinions, or attitudes of the target population (Creswell, 2014). Surveys are quick, usually cheap, and efficient but are nevertheless still relatively accurate means of collecting and judging information about the population (Zikmund, 2003). Therefore, and within the scope of this PhD study, a survey is the relevant method to get standardised, numerical data from samples of hotel employees to generally understand how leadership competencies are perceived by them as well as influence their turnover intentions and other attitudes.

In addition, a nonexperimental, cross-sectional survey is appropriate for this study for several reasons. First, a nonexperimental survey is often the only type of research available to behavioural researchers because of ethical concerns or the impossibility of manipulating variables; however, such research can still lead to meaningful findings with proper design, careful execution, and cautious interpretation (Pedhazur, 1982, 1997). Second, cross-sectional research, in which data are collected at one point in time (Creswell, 2014), is feasible for this study. From discussions with hotel managers and staff undertaken before data collection commenced – both in Vietnam and New Zealand – I learned that hotels were very reluctant about taking part in this kind of study, and very few would have agreed to have the survey conducted longitudinally during their busy operations. Even a delayed approach, whereby IVs were collected one week and DVs the following week, were not seen as palatable. This is, as explained by some HR managers in hotels that were contacted, because the survey of commitment and job satisfaction overlaps with their internal audits.

Among many survey tools, this study used an anonymous, self-administered (i.e., self-report) questionnaire. Nardi (2018) pointed out that it is best designed for (a) measuring variables with many values or response categories, so an interview or a telephone survey is not possible, (b) investigating unobservable attitudes and opinions,

(c) describing demographic characteristics, and (d) studying innermost behaviours or attitudes. The anonymity often permits respondents to be more candid and honest (Nardi, 2018). Self-reports have been used for collecting data on psychological states of respondents such as job attitudes, and on perceptions of respondents of external environmental variables such as supervisors' behaviours (Podsakoff & Ogan, 1986). To some extent, since both the attitude of turnover intentions and the opinions about the behaviours of superiors are unobservable (i.e., implicit), an anonymous, self-report questionnaire is an appropriate tool for collecting this information.

3.3.2. Potential pitfalls of survey data

Data collected from a survey may expose potential pitfalls that need to be dealt with in both the design and the data analysis phases. For this type of research, a potential pitfall is common method variance (CMV), defined as the portion of variance that is created by the measurement method (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) and not by the genuine correlations presented in the investigated model (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). According to Podsakoff and Ogan (1986), when measures of variables come from the same respondents and correlational analyses are attempted, then CMV may happen. Thus, CMV may inflate or deflate correlations, which mislead the interpretation of the results (Fuller, Simmering, Atinc, Atinc, & Babin, 2016; Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Therefore, cross-sectional designs are often vulnerable to CMV and thus researchers need to control for it (Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003).

However, Spector (2006) argued that if CMV automatically exists and acts as the inflator of correlations, a baseline level of correlation among all variables should be found. Such a baseline level has not been detected and raised; thus, some methods

to control CMV may control something else (Spector, 2006). This author suggested, a more sophisticated study about it is needed, and more effort should be put into investigating the specific biases of each measured variable. More recently though, Spector (2019) suggested that cross-sectional designs, while often criticised, are definitely worthwhile and stated "often overlooked is that the cross sectional design can tell us much that is of value and that the longitudinal design is not necessarily superior in providing evidence for causation." (p. 125)

Since debates on CMV continue without a consistent conclusion, this thesis used all possible remedies to deal with the potential issues of CMV as suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003). Due to size limitations, I was largely unable to add an additional construct to control for CMV (see Grover, Teo, Pick, & Roche, 2017) such as social desirability (Nederhof, 1985). However, this thesis did include a marker variable (happiness construct) to enable CMV tests in study 4. Those remedies are described in the sections on both the survey design phase and the analysis phase as follows.

3.3.3. Questionnaire design

3.3.3.1. Scales

According to Hinkin, Tracey, and Enz (1997), there are two approaches to developing scales. When exploring a new and under-theorised phenomenon, the inductive approach is usually used. First, the phenomenon is described by experts. Keywords or themes in their descriptions are then categorised by content analysis. From those categories, scale items are finally derived. The deductive scale approach is appropriate if the phenomenon has been theorised or defined, and this applies to the HLCM. The available theoretical definition of the phenomenon (i.e., the construct) and the relevant

literature are then used as a guide for the construction of items (Hinkin et al., 1997). Furthermore, and in many cases, researchers may be able to find a match between the investigated construct and an existing scale or scales (Robinson, 2018). When evaluating an existing scale, researchers need to consider: (1) the conceptual fit which concerns the extent to which the scale matches the construct, and (2) the reliability and validity of the scale. The adopted scale may need some minor modifications so as to best match the construct (Robinson, 2018). The deductive approach and these guidelines were adopted to build the questionnaire for this present study.

Leadership competency scales

Though the HLCM has long been studied and its constructs (i.e., competencies) have been clearly defined (e.g., Shum et al., 2018; Testa & Sipe, 2012), a complete measure attached to it is still not available. Therefore, this thesis employed existing, validated scales that are closely linked to leadership competencies in the model of Shum et al. (2018). This relaxed deductive approach was possible because these competencies are familiar and well defined. Moreover, and because constructs and scales are redundant in the leadership literature (Banks et al., 2018; Bormann & Rowold, 2018), adopting existing scales could be a good strategy, as suggested by Robinson (2018), and such validated scales are required to be used with the PROCESS tool as presented in Section 3.5.2.2. As discussed by Shum et al. (2018) and argued in the previous chapter, personal leadership competencies (including five competencies) and people leadership competencies (also five competencies) are more important to frontline managers. Hence, the context of the research is important when considering which leadership competencies would be appropriate. As a result, this thesis used 10 established scales

which best match with those 10 competencies. As guided by Robinson (2018), the process to choose these scales was as follows:

- First, both electronic and print resources were searched for all available scales that potentially match with those 10 competencies.
- From the pool of all available scales, the best scale for each competency was then chosen based on the similarity of terms (i.e., the conceptual fit) used in the scale and in the competency defined and operationalised by Shum et al. (2018). In addition, the chosen scale must have been validated with high reliability (Cronbach's alpha, α). For example, ethical leadership defined by Shum et al. (2018) as: "Is honest and displays integrity with self and others; does not cross ethical boundaries; earns others' trust and respect through consistent honest and values-based interactions; builds and maintains credibility for self and the organisation". I found the scale ethical leadership (Haar, Roche, and Brougham, 2019) matches relatively well with the above definition and has high reliability (α = .89). Items in the scale are (following the stem "my immediate supervisor/manager":

- conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner
- has the best interests of employees in mind
- makes fair and balanced decisions
- can be trusted
- discuss business ethics or values with employees

The key similar terms are ethical, integrity, honest, trust, credibility, values-based, values, self, personal, others, employees.

Turnover intentions and other scales

Turnover intentions, leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment are all established constructs; and many associated scales are available. This thesis prioritised their short forms to shorten the questionnaire; since keeping measures short is necessary to minimise response biases caused by fatigue or the boredom of the respondents (Hinkin et al., 1997). All the constructs and corresponding scales are presented briefly in Table 1 below. The questionnaires (in English and Vietnamese) are further presented in Appendices D and E, respectively.

Table 1. Overview of Constructs and Measures

Constructs	Definitions (by Shum et al., 2018)	Scales and sources	Example of items
Acts in an Ethical Manner	Is honest and displays integrity with self and others; does not cross ethical boundaries; earns others' trust and respect through consistent honest and values-based interactions; builds and maintains credibility for self and the organisation	Ethical leadership (Haar, Roche, & Brougham, 2019)	My immediate supervisor/manager conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner (Questions 9 to 13 in the questionnaire)
Displays Emotional Intelligence	Has the capacity to recognize the moods, needs, and emotions of self and others; works to build and maintain a positive work environment; effectively manages relationships	Wong and Law EI scale (WLEIS) (Law, Chi-Sum, & Song, 2004)	My immediate supervisor/manager is a good observer of others' emotions (Questions 14 to 18 in the questionnaire)
Values and Promotes Diversity	Appreciates and leverages the capabilities, insights, and ideas of all individuals; working effectively with individuals of diverse style, ability, and thought; ensures that the workplace is free from discriminatory behaviour and practices; embraces the inclusion of all people	Values and Promotes Diversity (Shum et al., 2018)	My immediate supervisor/manager appreciates and leverages the abilities, insights, and ideas of all individual (Questions 19 to 22 in the questionnaire)
Maintains a Proactive Learning Orientation	Proactively seeks new learning opportunities; applies newly gained knowledge and skill on the job; takes risks to advance learning	Learning Orientation Scale (Kaya & Patton, 2011)	My immediate supervisor/manager proactively seeks new learning opportunities (Questions 23 to 26 in the questionnaire)
Communicates Effectively	Shares information with clarity, candour, and purpose; speaks and writes in a coherent and effective manner; clearly articulates a point of view; listens carefully to ensure accuracy of	Communicates Effectively (Shum et al., 2018)	My immediate supervisor/manager shares information with clarity, candour, and purpose

	understanding when communicating with others; actively engages in debating ideas and the right course of action		(Questions 27 to 31 in the questionnaire)
Manages Conflict	Approaches conflict with intent to resolve, manage, and/or minimize non-productive escalation; uses an appropriate interpersonal style and method to reduce tension; summarizes and follows up on agreements and required actions	Conflict Efficacy Scale (Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 2000)	Our leader effectively manages conflicts among team/dept. members concerning any personality differences (Questions 32 to 37 in the questionnaire)
Delegates Effectively	Allocates decision-making authority and/or task responsibility to others to maximize organisational and individual effectiveness; provides support and encouragement; follows up on delegated tasks to ensure that desired outcomes are achieved	Perceived Delegation (Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998)	My immediate supervisor/manager does not require that I get his/her input or approval before making decisions. (Questions 38 to 42 in the questionnaire)
Leads Effective Teams	Builds effective teams by focusing on selection and on balancing the skill of team members; provides role clarity for team members; communicates contribution expectations for individual team members and the overall team	Collaborative Team Leader Instrument (Northouse, 2016)	My immediate supervisor/manager creates a safe climate for team members to openly and supportively discuss any issue related to the team's success (Questions 43 to 47 in the questionnaire)
Coaches and Develops Others	Demonstrates a commitment to the development of others; provides timely communication of expectations and performance; looks for opportunities to reinforce, recognize, and reward behaviours and outcomes	Supervisory Coaching Behaviour (Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2005)	My immediate supervisor/manager sets expectations with me and communicates the importance of those expectations to the broader goals of the hotel (Questions 48 to 53 in the questionnaire)

Defines and Achieves High Performance	Models and maintains high standards of excellence in performance; ensures all systems, processes and procedures are followed without exception; continuously looks for ways to improve performance; provides feedback and recognition for good work and applies appropriate negative consequences for non-performance	Supervisory Knowledge of Performance (Ramaswami, 1996)	My immediate supervisor/manager knows how to accomplish the work I normally encounter (Questions 54 to 58 in the questionnaire)
Constructs	**Definitions and sources**	**Scales and sources**	**Example of items**
Leader Effectiveness	"The degree to which managers were consistent in their treatment of employees and the articulation of organizational goals and policies" (Rogg et al., 2001, p. 436)	Managerial Competence (Rogg et al., 2001)	My immediate supervisor/manager follows through on commitments (Questions 59 to 64 in the questionnaire)
Job Satisfaction	"The pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (Locke, 1969, p. 316)	Job Satisfaction (Judge et al., 2005)	Most days I am enthusiastic about my work (Questions 65 to 67 in the questionnaire)
Affective Organisational Commitment	"The employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67)	Affective Organisational Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this hotel (Questions 68 to 72 in the questionnaire)
Turnover Intentions	"A set to which thinking of quitting and intent to search for alternative employment also belong" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262)	Turnover Intentions (Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999)	I am thinking about leaving this hotel (Questions 73 to 76 in the questionnaire)

Constructs	Definitions and sources	Scales, sources, and items
Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviours	"Behaviors exhibited by supervisors that are supportive of employees' family roles" (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009, p. 839)	4-item short-form of FSSB (Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, & Crain, 2013) 1. My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him/her about my conflicts between work and non-work 2. My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues 3. My supervisor works effectively with employees to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work 4. My supervisor organizes the work in my department or unit to jointly benefit employees and the company
Organisational Trust	"One's expectations, assumptions, or beliefs about the likelihood that another's future actions will be beneficial, favorable, or at least not detrimental to one's interests" (Robinson, 1996, p. 576)	4-item short-form (Robinson, 1996) 1. I believe my employer has high integrity 2. My employer is not always honest and truthful [reversed] 3. In general, I believe my employer's motives and intentions are good 4. My employer is open and upfront with me

3.3.3.2. Modifications of scales

After all scales had been selected, overlapping items were checked to see if some of them needed to be dropped. This removal was to reduce potential multicollinearity issues as well as the fatigue and potential withdrawal from the study of the participants. In addition, the draft of the questionnaire for employees had been sent to human resource managers in hotels and they also suggested some removals of items. For example, the component "Other-Emotion Appraisal" from the original Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (Law et al., 2004) has four items as follows:

1. I always know my friends' emotions from their behaviour.
2. I am a good observer of others' emotions.
3. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
4. I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.

I adopted and adapted items 3 and 4 as follows:

1. My immediate supervisor (or manager) is sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others (Item 14 in the questionnaire/Appendix D),
2. My immediate supervisor (or manager) has good understanding of the emotions of people around them (Item 15 in the questionnaire/Appendix D).

Item 1 was removed because a subordinate cannot answer such a question about their manager's thinking or feeling whereas item 2 was removed as it may overlap with both items 3 and 4.

Because all scales had been used and validated, there were only some minor rewordings. This aims at removing unfamiliar or vague terms that may cause CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003). For example, the term *my organisation* was specified as *my hotel* in all items. Since the WLEIS scale is for self-report, the term *'I'* is originally used in all items, and this was replaced by '*my supervisor/manager'*. In the scale

Defining High Performance adapted from the Supervisory Knowledge of Performance scale (Ramaswami, 1996), the term *variables* in the item "my manager can specify the most important variables to monitor in my work" was simplified to *standards* since "variables" is jargon and therefore unintelligible to frontline employees.

3.3.3.3. Questionnaire presentation, translation, and formats

Questionnaire presentation

As the presentation of a questionnaire may have effects on how participants respond (Robinson, 2018), some guidelines have been followed in coding and checking the questionnaire as follows.

Coding

Since many adopted scales have been measured with Likert scales, they were used in this study. As suggested by Chang, Witteloostuijn, and Eden (2010) and Podsakoff et al. (2003), some remedies were carried out to reduce potential issues around CMV. First, different scale endpoints were applied (from 1 to 5 for IVs and from 1 to 6 for DVs); second, different formats were used (blue and red colour for the coding of IVs and DVs, respectively) and these were separated into different sections.

Robinson (2018) suggested that researchers should consider three methodological issues concerning questionnaire presentation. First, if the rating scale anchors are only available at the start of the questionnaire, respondents may lose sight of them as they look down the page or scroll down the screen, potentially causing confusion or incorrect responses. Second, putting important topics earlier and sensitive topics later may be unlikely to demotivate respondents at the outset. Third, given the lack of consensus on whether or not the items should be grouped by topic or scale, or ordered randomly, grouping the items by scale could be the best procedure (Robinson,

2018). Podsakoff et al. (2003) similarly noted that grouping items by scale might inflate intra-scale correlations, whereas mixing them may inflate inter-scale correlations, both leading to some unavoidable bias. Since inter-mixing items would produce incorrect covariation among the constructs, more research is needed about this practice; hence, grouping the items by scale appears to be the best method (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Robinson, 2018). Therefore, the questionnaire items (both online and paper-based) were grouped by scales, whereas the two first issues were addressed in designing both the online and paper-based formats.

Because it was not possible to collect IVs and DVs both separately and anonymously, a short transitional sentence was used between these sections. Podsakoff et al. (2003) argued that a psychological separation of measurement can be a remedy to ease CMV and thus was used to separate the predictors section from the criteria section. Hence, respondents are mentally 're-set' between the two sections, which might allay potential issues around CMV. Next, the scales for IVs were placed before the scales for DVs. This placement is to reduce the effects of consistency artifacts on CMV by ordering the scales in which the DVs follow the IVs (Podsakoff & Ogan, 1986).

Questionnaire check

Before conducting the large-scale survey in hotels, some business PhD cohort members were asked to give comments on the questionnaire. As a result, some minor changes were made, such as enlarging the font size and reformatting the questionnaire. Some housekeepers, receptionists, and concierges in two hotels in Auckland (New Zealand only because this was where I was currently located) had been invited to test the questionnaire. These respondents were then asked to give some feedback and ideas

about the questionnaire, the completion time, and any potential issues. As a result, some minor revisions were again made. The average completion time was about 10 minutes. This completion time was then provided to potential participants and hotels so they could better plan their time for answering the survey (e.g., during their break time).

Questionnaire translation

In cross-cultural research, questions should be translated accurately to ensure their identical meaning to all cultural groups under consideration (Ares, 2018; Helms, 1992). To this comparative study, therefore, the back translation technique (Brislin, 1970; Maneesriwongul & Dixon, 2004) was applied to produce the target Vietnamese questionnaire. First, the original English questionnaire was translated into Vietnamese by the researcher. The Vietnamese questionnaire was then edited by two Vietnamese PhD scholars, one in tourism and the other in business. Following their suggestions, the researcher revised the Vietnamese questionnaire. Next, two Vietnamese PhD scholars in linguistics (both at the University of Auckland) were asked to check the translation quality as well as to edit the revised Vietnamese questionnaire. This second revision was then translated back into English separately by two professional translators who did not know the original English questionnaire. When those English versions (i.e., the original version and the two back-translated versions) were available, the researcher made a comparison and cleared up the remaining errors in the revised Vietnamese questionnaire with the help of a Vietnamese lecturer who teaches English. The edited Vietnamese questionnaire was again translated back into English by another professional translator. This second back-translated version finally produced the English questionnaire, which is almost identical to the original English

version. Therefore, the final Vietnamese questionnaire is mostly equivalent to the English questionnaire. Moreover, the original English questionnaire and the final Vietnamese questionnaire are quite equal in length and numbers of words (see the two final questionnaires at the Appendices 4 and 5).

Survey formats

Generally, there are two survey formats: paper-based and electronic (online or web-based) (Robinson, 2018). Online surveys tend to have low response rates, moderate quality of data, but very high anonymity (Albaum & Smith, 2012). However, despite the low cost and time factor, an online survey may be disadvantageous when many potential participants may not have internet access or when they are surveyed in a single place, e.g., a conference room (Robinson, 2018). When respondents are well educated and technically literate, an online survey yields a higher response rate than a paper-based survey (Greenlaw & Brown-Welty, 2009).

Given the survey was to be distributed by hotels, and since some hotel employees (e.g., housekeepers) may rarely use smartphones or computers at their workplaces, a solely online survey may prevent them from participating in the survey. Hence, this study adopted both online and paper-based formats. This may reduce bias since all potential participants could take the survey of their choice. The availability of both forms also offered more options for participating hotels in both countries. Moreover, the combination of both online and paper-based surveys has been done well before. For example, in their cross-cultural study of organisational commitment and other related variables, Jiang, Gollan, and Brooks (2017) conducted both online and paper-based surveys, resulting in 4.2% and 46.6% response rates, respectively.

3.4. Populations and sampling

3.4.1. Populations and sample size estimation

This study investigates the perceptions of hotel frontline employees of their frontline managers and their jobs. Frontline managers are those who manage the work of nonmanagerial employees (Robbins & Coulter, 2018; Shum et al., 2018). They are, for instance, restaurant managers, front-desk managers, club managers, and sales managers. Their major responsibilities are managing systems and leading frontline employees, including assigning tasks, scheduling, managing costs and operations, monitoring work processes, training and developing staff, and creating accountability for performance (Shum et al., 2018). Because organisational structure varies with different hotels (Raghubalan & Raghubalan, 2007), management titles also vary. For this study, frontline managers in hotels are those who have employees reporting directly to them and have job titles of "Supervisors," "Assistant Managers," "Team leaders," or simply "Managers" (Chen & Wallace, 2011; Cohen, 2013). I used the approach of asking respondents to report on their immediate supervisor/manager to capture their immediate leader.

The study sample and populations are frontline employees in upscale, city hotels in New Zealand, and in Vietnam. This population likely represents a wide variety of positions in hospitality. This is because upscale hotels, especially 5-star hotels, involve business outlets such as gaming and casino, restaurants, meeting and convention services, and entertainment. These outlets are likely miniature versions of hospitality segments which were surveyed by Shum et al. (2018) including gaming/casino, hotel, restaurant, meeting and event, and clubs. In the New Zealand context, many employees in hotels are likely to be part-time and thus involved in other activities and work – especially study. In the Vietnamese context, these workers are

more likely to be full-time and see the hotel work as a career. Thus, this research required respondents being fulltime, permanent employees who report directly to the frontline managers. Since it is misleading to choose a sample size based on a fraction of the population, e.g., 1% of the population (Fowler, 2009), the sample size can be statistically determined by three variables: level of confidence, accuracy or error, and standard variation (Austin, 1983). Therefore, sample sizes are generally determined by the kind of statistical tests practically applied within a field of research (Cohen, 1983). Power analysis, which needs to be informed by previous research, is the best method to calculate the number of participants (Rudestam & Newton, 2015). More generally, and for social sciences, about 15 cases per predictor are required for a reliable (multiple) regression (Stevens, 2009). In multiple regression, if the researcher chooses 10 IVs and expects a minimum R^2 of 0.15 (level of significance $\alpha = .05$, power = .80), then a sample size of 100 would be useful (Hair et al., 2010). Similarly and as a rule of thumb, if a medium effect ($R^2 \approx 0.13$) is expected in a linear model with multiple predictors, then a sample size of 119 will suffice with up to 10 predictors (Field, 2018).

To my knowledge, no prior research has been done to explore the relationships between hospitality leadership competencies (Shum et al., 2018) and the job attitudes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment) and employee behaviours (turnover intentions) used in the present thesis. Hence, this study adopted these general guidelines for a linear model and regression analysis. Based on the above suggestions, I intended to collect two datasets with at least 120 observations each. These two datasets, which are needed for the comparative study, can also be combined to produce another CFA test since testing a measurement model by CFA requires multiple samples (Hair et al., 2010). Another dataset of similar size was also collected to

measure FSSB competency plus the outcomes and test their relationships. All samples are presented in Table 2 (section 3.6).

3.4.2. Sampling

Since hotel frontline employees such as housekeepers are not publicly accessible, and I could only get access to them via their hotels. Consequently, the primary contact persons were hotel managers and human resources managers. I looked for the representation of those departments which are typical in upscale hotels: housekeeping; front office; food, beverages, and recreation; security or engineering. All remaining and also non-typical departments (e.g., sales or marketing) are put together under the "others" option. All potential upscale (mostly four-and-five star) hotels, in two major cities in Vietnam (Hochiminh and Vungtau) and in New Zealand (Auckland and Wellington) were contacted via email, mail, and telephone. The hotels were provided with all relevant information about the research and an invitation to take part in the survey with two options: paper-based and online. Depending on the choice of the participating hotels, a survey set (including a sealable envelope and the Participant Information Sheet – see Appendices 2 and 3) or an invitation email (with the Participant Information Sheet and a link to the survey), or both forms were distributed to frontline employees with the support of the human resource managers of the hotels.

In both online and paper-based surveys, anonymity and confidentiality were ensured. This guarantee is not only to conform with the AUT ethics principles but also to follow one ex-ante research design remedy to avoid CMV, which is that respondents should be assured of anonymity and confidentiality to encourage them to answer honestly (Chang et al., 2010).

In regard to the smaller population of frontline employees in upscale hotels in New Zealand as well as the typical low response rate to the mail survey which has been reported in hospitality (Zopiatis & Constanti, 2010), some labour unions of hotel employees in New Zealand, such as Unite and E Tū, were contacted for assistance in surveying their memberships in deluxe hotels. As a result, a small number of participants were recruited. These recruitment methods may reduce the bias of data since union memberships were from various four-and-five-star hotels in New Zealand.

Finally, the survey was also put on the Qualtrics Survey platform, a user-friendly web service to distribute online survey and collect ready-for-use data (see https://www.qualtrics.com/support/). From the user account, the links to the survey were generated to be sent to potential participants. Qualtrics Survey has been used in previous research in hospitality HRM (e.g., Huang, Lalopa, & Adler, 2016; Weber, Crawford, Lee, & Dennison, 2013). For better sampling, a Qualtrics Survey allows researchers to remove responses that were too quick or too slow. Also, replicated responses are not possible. Leadership competency data were collected in Vietnam between January 2019 and June 2019 and in New Zealand between October 2018 and December 2018 and between July 2019 and September 2019. In 2017, and using the Qualtrics Survey platform only, FSSB and the outcomes data were collected from participants who are hospitality employees in New Zealand.

3.5. Data Entry and Analysis

This study used SPSS (version 25), including the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2018b), to enter and analyse the data. In addition, AMOS (version 25) was utilised to conduct CFA. The results of CFA are reported in the manuscript chapters as well as in

Appendices 6 (New Zealand sample), 7 (Vietnamese sample), 8 (Merged sample), and 9 (FSSB sample).

3.5.1. Dealing with missing data

McKnight, McKnight, Sidani, and Figueredo (2007) suggested that reducing missing data by design is superior than by later remedies; thus, some steps had been followed during the design and data collection phases. These are, for example: choosing short scales, separating items, ensuring good quality print, and collecting data at the low seasons in the hospitality cycles. Before analysing the data, two methods to deal with missing values were applied as follows.

3.5.1.1 Demographic data

Due to the sensitivity of a research topic, some participants may refuse to reveal information such as gender or income (Hair et al., 2010); thus, this refusal leads to missing data. Since demographic data such as gender should be precise, they should not be estimated. Hence, no replacement was made with demographic data and the cases with missing data were not analysed by selecting the listwise option when the variables having missing data were analysed. Regarding income, this was not asked about because, while it is highly sensitive, it is not an important factor per se in the relationships being tested here.

3.5.1.2 Perception data

There are two methods for replacing missing data with a Likert scale: person mean and sample-item mean, and both methods work best and equally well if the level of missing data is low (Downey & King, 1998). It is best if the imputed values are as

close as possible to the true values (Laaksonen, 2018). The item mean substitution, however, may be incorrect to the perception of the respondent. For example, in the turnover intention scale, if three over four statements/items were selected as “strongly agree” (coded= 6) by a participant, the assignment of the item mean value (e.g., around 2.7 in Vietnamese sample - or “disagree”) to the missing item could potentially produce a result that is in contradiction to these three (out of four) selected values. Furthermore, replacing a missing but true value with the average score (calculated from the sample) may suppress the standard deviation and the standard error (Field, 2018). Thus, mean imputation is not recommended for CFA (Byrne, 2016). With the relatively small sample sizes in this study, hence, mean substitution is not an adequate choice. With the support from hotel management in administrating the survey, only 51 (of 16,048) data points were detected as missing in the Vietnamese sample and 22 (of 7,412) data points were detected as missing in the New Zealand sample. With the level of missing data being very low, the present study followed the person mean method. A missing value was replaced by the round value of the mean calculated from answered values in the scale, and this round value could have been chosen by the participant. To avoid bias in a scale reliability, several responses with more than one missing items in any scale had been deleted from the datasets before the imputation.

3.5.2. Data analysis

As suggested by Pedhazur (1997), the relationships between employees’ job attitudes and their perceived leadership competencies were explored at two levels: the prediction level and the explanatory level.

3.5.2.1. The prediction level: Correlational diagnoses and multiple regression

Correlational diagnoses

At the basic level, the associations between variables can be inferred from the Pearson correlation matrix which resulted from correlational analysis with SPSS. This step is necessary because there is no prior information on the relationships between 10 variables representing hospitality leadership competencies and other variables representing job attitudes and behaviours. Furthermore, the strengths and statistical significances shown in the matrix are useful to decide which competencies/variables are better at potentially predicting the outcomes, and thus will be used later in regression models. While this step is simple, it was essential to answer RQ1 and gave some hints for the next steps. Moreover, only significant correlations between leadership competencies and job attitudes would be used in regressions analyses.

Multiple regression

Multiple regression is used to examine the association between one or many predictors and a criterion (Brown, 2014). Multiple regression can be used for prediction or explanation (Pedhazur, 1997). If the purpose of research is solely prediction, choosing a set of predictors that optimise R^2 (the squared multiple correlation coefficient) is enough (Pedhazur, 1997; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011). At this level, predictors are selected based on theoretical guidance and previous research evidence (Pedhazur, 1997). Hospitality leadership (as operationalised into 10 competencies/10 predictors), as a phenomenon, may not be highly related to other phenomena which are concurrently predictors of turnover intentions in hotels, such as pull factors from other workplaces, work content, and subordinate personal emotions (Davidson & Wang, 2011). Therefore, and in this thesis, hospitality leadership competencies can be

measured and analysed as a single group of predictors without serious flaws being caused by omitting other predictors (such as pull factors from other workplaces) in the regression model. However, measurement errors should be examined cautiously. Furthermore, it has been argued in Chapter 2 that the influence of leadership behaviours on job attitudes could be very strong; thus, it is appropriate to investigate this influence in a single study without considering other predictors.

If the purpose is explanatory, as the primary goal of science, the interpretation of the contribution of each predictor to the prediction of the criterion should be focused (Pedhazur, 1997; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011). However, one of the most important concerns about multiple regression analysis is high correlations between predictors. When many correlated predictors are put in a regression, stronger predictors may suppress the contribution of weaker predictors; therefore, predictors may acquire negative regression coefficients though they are correlated to the criterion positively, or vice versa (Stadler, Cooper-Thomas, & Greiff, 2017). In such a case of conflicting and unexplainable results, stepwise regression will be more useful to identify a smaller number, but still useful set of predictors.

3.5.2.2. The explanatory level: Mediation and moderation analyses

Mediation analysis

Beyond regression, this study used mediation analysis to get further insights into the potential causal relationships between leadership competencies and variables representing job attitudes and behaviours. A causal or pathway effect between X (a possible cause) and Y (an effect) exists if (1) X precedes Y; (2) X is correlated with Y randomly; and (3) the relation between X and Y must not be explained by other causes (Antonakis et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2010). Strictly, the causal effect is rarely found; however, in practice, solid theoretical support can make the empirical estimation of it

possible; thus, statistical methods cannot be used to make causal inferences, which is more a problem in research design and logical analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Hayes, 2018a). Therefore, claims about causal effects with correlational data should be viewed with care (Brown, 2014), and the statistical results can only support or disprove a hypothesis and never prove it (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Given the cross-sectional nature of the data presented here, the reference to a causal effect relates more to a pathway or chain effect (i.e., X → M → Y) rather than an exact evidence of *causation*.

As argued in the previous chapter, many qualitative studies have affirmed that the leadership behaviours of managers bring about subordinates' job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intentions. With such theoretical support, this thesis aims to confirm and estimate those potentially causal effects by mediation models. According to Hayes (2018a), mediation is a causal explanation in which one antecedent X is assumed to influence an outcome Y through M as a mediator. Hence, X influences Y through two pathways: (1) the direct effect of X on Y, and (2) the indirect effect of X on Y through M (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Hayes, 2018a). Mediation models can be tested by using the PROCESS tool with ordinary least squares regression-based path analysis, or by structural equation modeling (SEM) programs with typically maximum likelihood estimation (Hayes, Montoya, & Rockwood, 2017). Several debates have arisen, although inconclusively, on which approach is better (e.g., Hayes et al., 2017; Iacobucci, Saldanha, & Deng, 2007). With the same dataset and analyses, generally, it makes no difference whether maximum-likelihood-based SEM or PROCESS is used, and the choice is the researcher's (Hayes et al., 2017).

In PROCESS, observed variable proxies (e.g., sum scores or averages of indicators) are used to run a series of ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions to estimate all the path coefficients (the effects), standard errors, t- and p- values,

confidence intervals, and other parameters. The recent PROCESS version 3.0 also offers a procedure to bootstrap confidence intervals for all parameter estimates (Hayes et al., 2017). Thus, to use this tool, the scales must be validated; otherwise, the observed variable proxies may fail to capture the meaning of the constructs assumed to be measured by the scales.

By combining the measurement model with the structural model and using a large sample, SEM builds mediation models with latent variables, instead of proxy variables; therefore, the bias in the estimation of effects can be reduced and the estimation of effects may be more accurate (Hayes et al., 2017). However, PROCESS may be more powerful in detecting these effects (Hayes et al., 2017). Since this thesis aims to explore and understand such mediating effects, which had been unknown, the adoption of PROCESS is appropriate for detecting them, rather than precisely measuring them as well-established effects. In consideration of the advantages and disadvantages of both PROCESS and SEM, given the small sample sizes as estimated above, PROCESS has been used to test the mediation models. Further, Hayes et al. (2017) conducted comparison analyses and reported that PROCESS produced results almost identical to SEM, thus PROCESS is a robust tool for statistical analysis. Following the suggestion of Hinkin et al. (1997), SEM was used to run the CFA to confirm the validity of the established scales which were used in this study.

Moderation analysis

Moderation analysis is similar to factorial analysis in terms of detecting whether or not the effect of an IV on the DV changes across levels of a third variable - a moderator, usually a categorical one (Hayes, 2018a). However, moderation analysis explores this change of effect as an interaction effect on the DV and, thus, moves

beyond understanding the difference between levels or groups. The moderation model may fit the data significantly better than the one without the interaction effect (Brown, 2014). It means that the interaction effect contributes to the variance of the DV and is helpful in explaining its variability.

In leadership research, a moderator could be either an enhancer or a neutraliser. Enhancers represent a positive moderating effect; that is, when the predictor - criterion relationship is stronger if the enhancer increases while neutralisers represent a negative moderating effect; that is when the predictor - criterion relationship is weaker if the neutraliser increases (Howell, Dorfman, & Kerr, 1986). The importance of the various leadership competencies may depend on the leadership situation, which is manifested by situational moderator variables (Yukl, 2013). Therefore, recognising moderators, especially neutralisers, is vital since they can inform managers where an improvement in leader behaviour may result in little or no increase in criteria such as job satisfaction or employee performance (Howell et al., 1986). Depending on the correlations of a potential moderator with the IV and the DV, the moderator could be a pure moderator without such correlations, or a quasi-moderator with such correlations (Sharma, Durand, & Gur-Arie, 1981). This distinction is realistic since it seems that correlations between variables often exist at greater or lesser magnitude.

This thesis explores the effect of some typical moderators such as team size, the gender and age of subordinates and managers, hotel rating, and tenure. These variables were measured and treated as control variables in relevant regression analysis and, whereas appropriate, their potential moderation effect was hypothesised in the mediation model. This hypothesis is necessary so as to not overlook their moderating role and effect and, thus, to better explain the mechanism (i.e., moderation-mediation) through which a typical leadership competency exerts its influence on the

outcomes. Furthermore, the detected interaction effect is also useful to support the dataset not being likely to be vulnerable by CMV (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Ultimately, the analyses for this exploratory level were intended to answer RQ2 regarding how or in what patterns leadership competencies exert their influence on the final outcomes under the presence of intervening factors as mediators and contextual factors as moderators. Furthermore, these patterns of results between the two samples would be helpful for making the comparisons which are intended to answer RQ3.

Finally, these two approaches – called moderated mediation (Hayes, 2018) are combined. This is explained in more detail in the specific manuscripts.

3.6. Summary of information on the thesis manuscripts

The samples, constructs, and models used in the four manuscripts are presented in Table 2. The following chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7 present these four manuscripts as they have been published or submitted to the journals.

Table 2. Manuscripts, Samples, and Models

Manuscripts and their connected RQs	Samples	Predictors	Outcomes	Models
Manuscript/study 1 (RQ1, RQ2, & RQ3)	New Zealand sample 1 (n= 109) Vietnamese sample (n= 236)	- Ethical leadership competency, Team leadership competency, and Delegation - Job satisfaction (mediator)	Turnover intentions	CFA Mediation analysis
Manuscript/study 2 (RQ1 & RQ2)	New Zealand sample 1 (n= 109)	- Ethical leadership competency - Leader effectiveness (mediator) - Gender (moderator)	Organisational commitment	CFA Moderated mediation
Manuscript/study 3 (RQ1 & RQ2)	Vietnamese sample (n= 236)	- Team leadership competency - Leader effectiveness (mediator) - Team size (moderator)	Organisational commitment	CFA Moderated mediation
Manuscript/study 4 (RQ2)	New Zealand sample 2 (n= 149)	- Family supportive supervisor behaviours - Organisational trust and job satisfaction (mediators)	Turnover intentions	CFA Multiple mediation

3.7. Ethical considerations

This research study had received approval from the AUT Ethics Committee (AUTEC) before contacts were made, and data were collected (see Appendix A for Ethics Approval). Participants were fully informed about the purposes of research, the processes by which data were to be collected, analysed, stored, and destroyed, and relevant contact persons when they need. Participants were also ensured of their anonymity and confidentiality. Their rights and role in the research, including the right and ways to learn about the research findings, were stated clearly in the Participant Information Sheet (see Appendices B and C). Throughout this study, my supervisors and I have made the best effort to conform with the AUT Code of Conduct for Research so as to eliminate potential risks.

3.8. Positionality considerations

Positionality theory assumes that the position of a person (e.g., age, gender, profession, social class) can impact the way the person constructs the meaning about the world (Kezar, & Lester, 2010). Therefore, how individuals understand the leadership phenomenon as well as the ways they act as leaders are shaped by their identity, context, and power (Kezar, & Lester, 2010; Kezar, 2002). A researcher's positionality influences how research is conducted, its outcomes, and results (Holmes, 2020). The positionality of a researcher can be identified in three areas: (1) the subject under investigation, (2) the research participants, and (3) the research context and process (Holmes, 2020).

I have worked in hotels and taught courses in tourism and hospitality management; thus, my identity, beliefs, and experience might have some impact on the design and implementation of this study, as well as the interpretation of the results.

However, as shown in this chapter, I did not bring any specific viewpoint, belief, or experience of my own into the research. The chapter presents:

- a definition of leadership that is driven by existing definitions in the literature
- a choice of a leadership model (i.e., the HLCM) that is driven by reviewing the literature and by matching the definition of leadership being used by this thesis
- a research problem that is driven by the HLCM model and its researched state
- a research design that is driven by the research problem
- a body of participants that is randomly chosen and unknown to the researcher
- results that are driven by the analyses of numeric data provided by the participants
- interpretations that are driven by statistical models being used, and by the literature

Throughout this chapter, I use the pronoun I to describe precisely what I have done as so readers can infer if my positionality might have had any impact on this PhD research. In chapter 9 (Conclusion) I use the pronoun I to reflect the impact of *this* PhD research on me, not the other way round. Therefore, the impact of my identity, beliefs, and experience on the objectivist approach of this study could be very minor.

Summary

This chapter first delineated the philosophical standpoint underpinning this study. Overall steps designed and the analytical tools used to answer the research questions were then presented and justified in detail. Finally, some considerations and solutions regarding ethical issues that potentially could have emerged from this research were reported. The next four manuscript chapters present the partitioned studies that have been undertaken to answer the research questions raised in the previous chapter.

CHAPTER 4

MANUSCRIPT 1

EXPLORING A HOSPITALITY LEADERSHIP COMPETENCY MODEL: CROSS-CULTURAL VALIDATION IN NEW ZEALAND AND VIETNAM

This manuscript has been accepted for publication in the *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism.* It is currently slated by the editor for publication in Volume 20, Issue 3 which is due out in the fall 2021. The core content of the paper (blind peer-reviewed) was presented at the 8th Aotearoa New Zealand Organisational Psychology & Organisational Behaviour Conference on November 29, 2019 at Auckland University of Technology (AUT).

The manuscript uses American English and was reformatted to put tables and figures into their right places. To avoid multiple replications of references, all references in this manuscript are listed in the reference section which is shared among all chapters.

Introduction

In the hospitality industry worldwide, employee turnover has been a persistent issue which has absorbed much research (Davidson et al., 2010; Gupta, 2019; Haldorai, Kim, Pillai, Park, & Balasubramanian, 2019; Kang, Busser, & Choi, 2018; Kang, Gatling, & Kim, 2015). Hotels in a growing market such as New Zealand have been particularly confronted with high turnover rates (Poulston, 2008; Williamson et al., 2012). For Vietnamese hotels, turnover is still a problem, though possibly not a very serious one (Yap & Ineson, 2016) due to high unemployment (Pham, 2019). Even under crises such as the outbreaks of SARS in 2003 and Covid-19 in 2020, which have led to laying off employees, hotels should still prepare for a labor shortage in the post-crisis operation (Henderson, 2005; Henderson & Ng, 2004). This is because redundant employees might have permanently abandoned the industry to find jobs elsewhere (Henderson, 2005). Therefore, human resource planners must concern themselves with turnover and its causes (Price, 2001).

Turnover mostly refers to employees voluntarily leaving their job. Turnover, which is driven and best predicted by turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000), is not only associated with high costs (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010; Davidson et al., 2010) but also linked to lower firm performance (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013). Turnover severely affects organisations, employees, and even customers (Davidson & Wang, 2011; Sims, 2007). To cope with labor shortages, hotels might downgrade their requirements and thus hire under-educated or inexperienced employees, or promote unsuitable staff (Chan & Kuok, 2011). Clearly, these short-term fixes inherently trigger certain risks in the long term. In fact, casualisation persists as the main but costly policy to deal with turnover in the industry (Davidson & Wang, 2011). Therefore, a more strategic approach to reducing high

turnover by first addressing turnover intentions is more favorable. In the hospitality industry, research has pointed out that poor leadership is a major factor causing turnover intentions (Thomas, Brown, & Thomas, 2017; Xu et al., 2018) and turnover (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Yang et al., 2012). Therefore, developing leadership should reduce turnover intentions and likely enhance other critical factors such as job satisfaction and performance. This requires a practical leadership approach (underpinned by sound theory or model), which is effective for training, practice, and appraisal.

Despite the potential for leadership in the hospitality sector, many scholars have recently criticized leadership research, including its conceptual weaknesses, practical issues, and leadership development misguidance (e.g., Alvesson, 2019; Andersen, 2016; Anderson & Sun, 2017; Barker, 1997; Gottfredson et al., 2020; Hoch et al., 2018; Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Mumford & Fried, 2014; Spoelstra et al., 2020). These shortcomings may explain why leadership development, which rests on sound leadership theories, is still underdeveloped in this sector (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Lunsford & Brown, 2016). As a result, how to develop leaders remains a challenge for human resource planners (Day et al., 2014), and its development still disappoints organisations (Ardichvili et al., 2016). In their meta-analytic review, Banks et al. (2018) found that many prevalent leadership constructs related weakly to turnover intentions. Further, there is evidence that leadership theories may not work well in the hotel industry beyond Western settings, such as in China (Luo, Wang, & Marnburg, 2013) and Vietnam. Thus, the hospitality leadership competency model - HLCM (e.g., Shum et al., 2018; Tas, 1988) may be an alternative approach. However, to adopt this model for leadership development, empirical evidence and greater cross-cultural

comparisons are needed first to confirm whether leadership competencies can have a universal influence on key outcomes.

The present study responds to calls for greater leadership development because Crawford and Kelder (2019, p. 142) state there is "a lack of empirically tested theoretical models, with validated and reliable scales, for describing and measuring leadership despite substantial investment in leadership development programs." The purpose of this study is to test the hospitality leadership model on two distinct cultures: New Zealand and Vietnam, and conduct various analyses to establish confidence in which leadership competencies appear key in shaping turnover intentions. Three specific objectives are:

1. Clarifying the influence of leadership competencies towards turnover intentions and job satisfaction;
2. Exploring which competencies more strongly predict these two outcomes;
3. Investigating the potential mediating role of job satisfaction in the influence of leadership competencies on turnover intentions.

Literature review

The Hospitality Leadership Competency Model (HLCM)

Competence can be traced back to the work of McClelland (1973), and the terms competency or skills have been discussed thoroughly by other pioneering authors (e.g., Boyatzis, 1982; Katz, 1955). In hospitality, competency has been conceptualized and measured as essential activities, skills, or performance required to assume the duty of a specific job (Morris, 1973; Tas, 1988). Besides, Nath and Raheja (2001) described competencies as observable behaviours based on underlying knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Thus, competencies are usable for training, observable, and measurable; and

employees who possess the required competencies will likely perform their jobs better than those who lack them (Nath & Raheja, 2001). While competency may be a common language of leadership development (Seemiller & Murray, 2013), it has been critiqued, with Bolden and Gosling (2006, p. 158) stating such models exclude "moral and emotional concerns" and Edwards and Turnbull (2013) arguing that there is a lack of practical information. Despite these critiques, the HLCM has received strong supporting research (Chung-Herrera et al., 2003; Kay & Russette, 2000; Shum et al., 2018; Tas, 1988; Testa & Sipe, 2012) and been applied to the hospitality sector (Assante et al., 2009; Chapman & Lovell, 2006).

Until recently, hospitality leadership has not been identified as *one* leadership theory or model in recent reviews of leadership literature (e.g., Banks et al., 2018; Dinh et al., 2014; Meuser et al., 2016; Turner & Baker, 2018). While leadership theories in other specific fields (e.g., the military, education) are classified as contextual theories (Dinh et al., 2014), the competency leadership approach, which has a strong hospitality focus, is seldom recognized in its own right. Initially, Tas (1988) identified 36 competencies, and Kay and Russette (2000) identified 86 essential competencies grouped into five domains and concluded that leadership is a key domain across functional areas and management levels. Further, Chung-Herrera et al. (2003) developed a pool of 99 leadership competencies grouping into eight factors. Later, Testa and Sipe (2012) categorized 20 competencies into three parsimonious 'savvies': business savvy, people savvy, and self-savvy.

There have been calls for rigorously testing the HLCM across cultures (Baum, 1990; Shum et al., 2018) and management levels (Kay & Russette, 2000), as well as establishing the value of those competencies to individual and organisational outcomes (Testa & Sipe, 2012). Some have claimed the need to update the pool of

competencies due to the dynamics of the industry (Shum et al., 2018; Tsai, Goh, Huffman, & Wu, 2006). For example, significant and relentless innovations in the industry mean new practices, such as ethical conduct or green operations, should be added to the model to guide the training process in hospitality schools (Johanson et al., 2011; Millar et al., 2010). Based on the model of Testa and Sipe (2012), recently Shum et al. (2018) presented an updated HLCM and identified 15 competencies equally distributed into three factors: (1) *business leadership* (e.g., plans and organizes effectively), (2) *personal leadership* (e.g., acts in an ethical manner), and (3) *people leadership* (e.g., delegates effectively). These are discussed more fully below in the hypothesis section.

Job outcomes

The present study focuses on turnover intentions but also includes job satisfaction due to the strong linkages with turnover. Turnover is either involuntary (e.g., termination) or voluntary when employees quit their jobs (Price, 2001). However, before employees actually leave, they likely engage in several leaving attitudes and behaviours (Griffeth et al., 2000). The key behaviour is *turnover intention*, which is defined as "a set to which thinking of quitting and intent to search for alternative employment also belong" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). Turnover intention has been found to be the strongest predictor of quitting (Griffeth et al., 2000; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Therefore, Akgunduz and Sanli (2017) argued that understanding turnover intention and its determinants is vital to enable its substantial reduction. *Job satisfaction* is defined as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (Locke, 1969, p. 316). Job satisfaction, as such, is the outcome of an interaction between the employee and the work environment (Locke, 1970), and the supervisor can play an

important role (Haar et al., 2019). A meta-analysis shows that job satisfaction plays an important role in turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000), and this has been supported in the hospitality context (Aho, 2020; Jang & George, 2012; Lee & Madera, 2019).

Hypotheses

Shum et al. (2018) responded to the above criticisms by including both ethical and emotional competencies in their model. Due to limited resources, they suggested that not all competencies can be developed simultaneously and priorities should be put on developing personal and people leadership factors for frontline managers, especially the ethical leadership competency. In the present study, the authors focus upon these two sets of factors and the related 10 competencies because it is unlikely that frontline managers engage in some of the higher leadership functions (e.g., strategic planning). Similarly, it is unlikely that subordinates would have a worthwhile understanding or observation of such behaviours. Shum et al. (2018) characterized *personal leadership competencies* with the following competencies identified: (a) acts in an ethical manner, (b) displays emotional intelligence, (c) values and promotes diversity, (d) maintains a proactive learning orientation, and (e) communicates effectively. Within *people leadership competencies*, Shum et al. (2018) identified the following competencies: (a) conflict management, (b) effective delegation, (c) effective team leadership, (d) coaching and developing others, and (e) high performance focus.

Thus, competent leadership is characterized by a collection of personal competencies about behaving in an ethical manner, having and showing emotional intelligence (i.e., the ability to perceive, appraise, and express emotion as defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997)), communicating well with members, engaging in learning themselves, and promoting diversity. Competent leaders also manage conflicts well,

delegate and lead teams proficiently, and not only model excellent performance but also help develop others. These competencies enjoy their own supporting literature, especially ethical leadership, which Brown et al. (2005) define as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement and decision-making."

Under Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), employees reciprocate the positive actions of their leaders (Haar & Spell, 2004), which leads to enhanced employee attitudes and behaviours. Thus, a leader who engages in ethical behaviours, who communicates well and provides coaching and conflict management is perceived as performing positive and valuable actions by employees. Under Social Exchange Theory, these actions trigger felt obligations (Haar & Spell, 2004) and encourage employees to respond with enhanced performance. Indeed, these individual competencies have influence on job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Mount & Bartlett, 2002; Ng & Feldman, 2015), including in the hospitality sector (Kim & Brymer, 2011; Madanoglu et al., 2004). Due to the large number of competencies, the authors do not hypothesize any individual competency but suggest that employees who see their leaders as being stronger in these competencies will react with more positive outcomes. Thus, these following hypotheses are posited:

Hypothesis 1: Leadership competencies will be positively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: Leadership competencies will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Beyond the direct effects of leadership competencies on turnover intentions, job satisfaction was also examined as a mediator because authors have suggested that organisational factors like leadership influence turnover through job satisfaction

(Coomber & Barriball, 2007). In a study of leadership factors and style towards turnover intentions, Haar et al. (2019) found that job satisfaction mediates their influences on turnover intentions. Indeed, studies of leadership styles on turnover intentions show evidence of mediation (e.g., Kim & Brymer, 2011). As such, the influence of leadership competencies on turnover intentions could be best understood as operating through job satisfaction. Thus, employees respond positively to their leaders' competencies by reporting enhanced job satisfaction, and it is this attitude that shapes turnover intentions. Therefore, the following hypothesis is made:

Hypothesis 3: Job satisfaction will mediate the influence of leadership competencies on turnover intentions.

Methodology

Participants and sampling

In late 2018 and early 2019, the authors sent the invitation email to four-and-five-star hotels in New Zealand (15 hotels in Auckland and 5 hotels in Wellington) and three-star-and-above hotels in Vietnam (17 hotels in Hochiminh and 4 hotels in Vungtau), representing tourist hubs in each country. The email, which was directed to the hotel general manager or human resource manager, outlined the research title, objectives, targeted participants (i.e., full-time, permanent frontline positions), and a link to the online survey generated by the Qualtrics platform. The research information sheet and the paper survey were also attached. Both anonymous online and paper survey forms were offered to enable the participation of all potential hotels and participants. For hard copies, the first author personally collected them from respondents. In addition, labor unions in New Zealand, such as Unite and E Tū, were also contacted for distributing the link to their memberships in various luxury hotels.

Measures

The questionnaire consisted of an introduction and three sections:

1. Demographic information with 6 items;

2. Leadership competencies (50 items): Since scales associated with the various leadership competencies are not available in Shum et al. (2018), the authors adopted the deductive scale approach (Hinkin et al., 1997), which is using available scales to operationalize the constructs. From the literature, the authors selected 10 scales that best match with the 10 competencies as defined by Shum et al. (2018);

3. Job outcomes (7 items): Job satisfaction was measured with the short 3-item scale by Judge et al. (2005). Turnover intentions were measured with the 4-item scale by Kelloway et al. (1999).

All the scales, original constructs, measure reliabilities, and sample items are presented in Appendix 1. The Brislin (1970) back-translation method was adopted to translate the scales from English into Vietnamese.

Control variables

In hospitality, gender, age, and tenure have been found to be related to job satisfaction and turnover intentions (e.g., Becker & Tews, 2016; Kara, Uysal, & Magnini, 2012; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010; Lu et al., 2016). Therefore, these influencers were also measured and controlled in relevant analyses.

Control for Common Method Variance (CMV)

To reduce potential CMV as suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Min, Park, and Kim (2016), the authors used different scale endpoints (i.e., 5 and 6-point Likert scales) and colours for independent variables (IVs) and dependent variables (DVs). A blank-space and a transitional sentence were placed between the IV section (i.e.,

competencies) and the DV section (i.e., job outcomes) as a psychological separation of measurement.

Scale validation

As suggested by Hinkin et al. (1997), all measurement scales were validated with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Since the model is complex with 10 competencies as IVs, whereas the two samples are relatively small, the IVs scales were validated separately. The authors assessed model fit using these recommended goodness-of-fit indices: CFI $\geq$ 0.90, RMSEA $\leq$ 0.08, and SRMR $\leq$ 0.10 (Hu & Bentler, 1998; Williams, Vandenberg, & Edwards, 2009). All other rival models must fit the datasets significantly weaker (Hair et al., 2010).

Data analysis method

The authors used SPSS (version 25) and the PROCESS macro (version 3.4, by Hayes (2018)) to test the hypotheses. As 10 leadership competencies are likely to correlate highly, the authors adopted all possible subsets regression approach (Kraha, Turner, Nimon, Zientek, & Henson, 2012; Pedhazur, 1997) and stepwise regression to seek a smaller, but still meaningful, number of competencies. The authors ran this in two models predicting job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Once these competencies were confirmed, they were included as the IVs in the mediation models.

Results

Eight Vietnamese hotels agreed to take the paper survey, but eventually seven hotels did (including three five-star, two four-star, and two three-star). From 550 invited employees, 236 usable paper surveys in sealed envelopes were collected (42.9% response rate). In New Zealand, 10 four-and-five hotels agreed and distributed either paper or online surveys but not both forms. From 250 invited employees in eight

hotels, 74 usable paper surveys in sealed envelopes were collected (29.6% response rate). Another 35 usable online responses (less than 4% response rate) were collected from two hotels (11 responses) and union members (24 responses), resulting in 109 responses in total. Table 1 details the demographics of the respondents.

Table 1. Sample Demographics

Variables	Vietnamese sample		New Zealand sample	
Total samples	N= 236		N= 109	
Gender		%		%
Male	85	(42.1)	50	(45.9)
Female	116	(57.4)	59	(54.1)
Other	1	(.5)	0	(0)
Age groups				
Under 20 years	2	(9)	12	(11.1)
20 to 30 years	145	(61.7)	44	(40.7)
31 to 40 years	56	(23.8)	21	(19.4)
41 to 50 years	16	(6.8)	21	(19.4)
Over 50 years	16	(6.8)	10	(9.3)
Tenure				
3 years and below	103	(44.2)	63	(57.8)
4 to 6 years	63	(27.0)	26	(23.9)
7 to 9 years	23	(9.9)	6	(5.5)
10 to 12 years	16	(6.9)	6	(5.5)
13 years and above	28	(12.0)	8	(7.3)
Departments				
Housekeeping	62	(26.3)	30	(27.5)
Front office	33	(14.0)	48	(44.0)
Food, beverages and recreation	62	(26.3)	21	(19.3)
Security or engineering	36	(15.3)	1	(.9)
Others	43	(18.2)	9	(8.3)
Gender of managers				
Male	142	(60.2)	66	(60.6)
Female	92	(39.1)	43	(39.4)
Other	1	(.4)	0	(0)
Hotel rating				
5-star	113	(47.9)	44	(41.9)
4-star	101	(42.8)	59	(56.2)
3-star	22	(9.3)	2	(1.9)

CMV and CFA tests and results

Harman's single factor test was used to check if there is severe CMV bias in the datasets. With eigenvalues greater than 1, a single factor accounted for 39.8% in the Vietnamese dataset, and for 48.2% in the New Zealand dataset. Both results are below the threshold of 50% (Podsakoff et al., 2003); thus, CMV bias may exist but would not seriously mislead the interpretation of results.

The construct validity of the competency model was tested with a CFA using AMOS (version 25). Ultimately, a few items were removed due to low factor loadings, with the final model fitting both the Vietnamese and New Zealand samples adequately. Table 2 presents these results. The authors also combined the samples and confirmed this was a good fit to the data as well: χ^2 (549) = 919.9 (p= .000), CFI= .96, RMSEA= .04, and SRMR= .03.

Table 2. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model	Model Fit Indices					Model Differences			
	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p	Details
Vietnamese Sample									
Model 1	939.9	549	.94	.05	.04				
Model 2	1132.1	558	.90	.07	.05	192.2	9	.000	Model 1 to 2
Model 3	1236.9	566	.89	.07	.05	297.0	17	.000	Model 1 to 3
Model 4	2005.0	594	.76	.10	.07	1065.1	45	.000	Model 1 to 4
New Zealand Sample									
Model 1	877.9	549	.91	.07	.05				
Model 2	1038.5	558	.87	.09	.06	160.6	9	.000	Model 1 to 2
Model 3	1227.7	566	.82	.10	.06	349.8	17	.000	Model 1 to 3
Model 4	1841.4	594	.67	.14	.08	963.5	45	.000	Model 1 to 4

Model 1= Hypothesized 10-factor model: all 10 competencies as 10 factors
Model 2= Alternative 9-factor model: Ethical leadership and managing conflicts combined, and 8 remaining competencies
Model 3= Alternative 8-factor model: Ethical leadership, managing conflicts and emotional leadership combined, and 7 remaining competencies
Model 4= Alternative one factor model with all competencies combined.
(CFI= Comparative fit index; RMSEA= Root-mean-square error of approximation; SRMR= Standardized root mean residual

Hypothesis tests

Descriptive statistics and correlations for all the study variables are presented in Table 3.

Hypothesis 1: Leadership competencies will be positively related to job satisfaction.

In the Vietnamese sample, team leadership competency showed the strongest positive relationship (r=.48), followed by valuing and promoting diversity (r=.46), managing conflicts (r=.44), coaching (r=.44), ethical leadership (r=.42), communicating (r=.39), managing performance (r=.38), delegation (r=.36), learning (r=.35), and emotional leadership (r=.34). In the New Zealand sample, ethical leadership competency showed the strongest relationship (r=.55), followed by coaching (r=.54), delegation (r=.52), valuing and promoting diversity (r=.51), managing conflicts (r=.49), managing performance (r=.49), team leadership (r=.49), emotional leadership (r=.44), communicating (r=.43), and learning (r=.42). With all p values under .01, these correlational results indicate that all 10 leadership competencies had strong, positive, and significant relationships with job satisfaction in both samples and, therefore, well support Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2: Leadership competencies will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

In the Vietnamese sample, ethical leadership competency showed the strongest relationship (r=-.46), followed by team leadership (r=-.44), valuing and promoting diversity (r=-.42), communication (r=-.39), delegation (r=-.38), managing performance (r=-.37), coaching (r=-.36), managing conflicts (r=-.34), learning (r=-.33), and emotional leadership (r= -.29). In the New Zealand sample, ethical leadership also showed the strongest relationship (r=-.50), followed by team leadership (r=-.49), valuing and promoting diversity (r=-.47), managing conflicts (r=-.46), managing

performance (r=-.45), coaching (r=-.44), emotional leadership (r=-.37), delegation (r=-.37), and learning (r=-.33). With all p values under .01, these correlational results in both samples indicate that all 10 leadership competencies had strong, negative, and significant relationships with turnover intentions and, therefore, strongly support Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3: Job satisfaction will mediate the influence of leadership competencies on turnover intentions.

The results of the stepwise regression analysis identified three significant leadership competencies in the Vietnamese sample (ethical leadership, team leadership, and delegation), and two in the New Zealand sample (ethical leadership and team leadership). The authors subsequently conducted two analyses using these competencies tested in the mediation model. Unstandardized coefficients and bootstrap confidence intervals (5,000 samples, 95% confidence) are reported. Results of the regression and mediation analyses for both samples are presented in Table 4.

Table 3. Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables (both samples)

Variables	Vietnam		New Zealand		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
	M	SD	M	SD														
1. Age	2.6	0.9	2.8	1.2	--	.59‡	-.08	-.11	-.05	-.09	-.04	.01	-.08	-.06	-.03	-.05	.15	-.23*
2. Tenure	2.2	1.4	1.8	1.2	.76‡	--	.05	-.03	.11	.07	-.00	.10	.06	.02	.09	-.03	.24*	-.30‡
3. Ethical l/ship	4.2	0.8	4.1	0.9	.10	.01	--	.51‡	.72‡	.64‡	.55‡	.59‡	.55‡	.65‡	.62‡	.67‡	.55‡	-.50‡
4. Emot. Comp.	4.0	0.8	3.9	1.0	.11	.01	.66‡	--	.55‡	.50‡	.63‡	.51‡	.48‡	.50‡	.49‡	.47‡	.44‡	-.37‡
5. Diversity	4.2	0.8	4.1	0.9	.10	.01	.75‡	.73‡	--	.74‡	.67‡	.70‡	.61‡	.74‡	.68‡	.69‡	.51‡	-.47‡
6. Learning	4.2	0.7	4.0	0.9	.11	.01	.61‡	.65‡	.70‡	--	.66‡	.61‡	.63‡	.70‡	.63‡	.70‡	.42‡	-.33‡
7.Comms	4.1	0.8	4.0	0.9	.08	-.03	.69‡	.70‡	.75‡	.69‡	--	.70‡	.62‡	.69‡	.64‡	.66‡	.43‡	-.44‡
8. Managing conflicts	4.2	0.7	4.0	0.8	.14*	.06	.60‡	.58‡	.66‡	.58‡	.67‡	--	.54‡	.66‡	.58‡	.58‡	.49‡	-.46‡
9. Delegation	3.9	0.9	3.9	1.1	.11	.00	.39‡	.40‡	.49‡	.42‡	.47‡	.44‡	--	.72‡	.68‡	.56‡	.52‡	-.37‡
10. Team l/ship	4.1	0.8	3.9	1.0	.06	-.07	.62‡	.66‡	.67‡	.63‡	.71‡	.70‡	.50‡	--	.79‡	.72‡	.49‡	-.49‡
11. Coaching	4.0	0.8	3.8	1.0	.06	-.06	.59‡	.63‡	.64‡	.62‡	.67‡	.68‡	.47‡	.74‡	--	.72‡	.54‡	-.44‡
12. High Perf	4.1	0.8	4.0	0.9	.05	-.02	.54‡	.59‡	.58‡	.56‡	.58‡	.67‡	.39‡	.71‡	.67‡	--	.49‡	-.45‡
13. Job Sat	4.9	0.8	4.6	1.1	.18‡	.13*	.42‡	.34‡	.46‡	.35‡	.39‡	.44‡	.36‡	.48‡	.44‡	.38‡	--	-.59‡
14. Turnover	2.7	1.4	3.4	1.5	-.17*	-.05	-.46‡	-.29‡	-.42‡	-.33‡	-.39‡	-.34‡	-.38‡	-.44‡	-.36‡	-.37‡	-.49‡	--

*p<.05, ‡p<.01. Below the diagonal is the Vietnamese sample (N=236); above the diagonal is the New Zealand sample (N=109).

Table 4. Multiple Regression Analysis Results

Variables	Vietnamese sample				New Zealand sample			
	Job Satisfaction	**CI**	**Turnover Intentions**	**CI**	**Job Satisfaction**	**CI**	**Turnover Intentions**	**CI**
Step 1: Controls								
Gender	.08	-.15, .31	.19	-.20, .57	-.44*	-.85, -.03	.26	-.29, .82
Age	.19	-.02, .39	-.44*	-.78, -.11	.04	-.18, .25	-.11	-.40, .18
Tenure	-.03	-.16, .11	.18	-.04, .40	.21*	.01, .42	-.31*	-.59, -.03
R^2 change	.03		.04*		.10*		.10*	
Step 2: Predictors								
Ethical leadership	.15*	.01, .29	-.42***	-.66, -.18	.51***	.29, .74	-.53*	-.85, -.20
(with mediator)			-.34**	-.58, -.11			-.27	-.60, .07
Delegation	.13*	.01, .25	-.28**	-.50, -.07	--	--	--	--
(with mediator)			-.22*	-.42, -.01				
Team leadership	.38***	.22, .54	-.32*	-.61, -.04	.28*	.06, .50	-.47*	-.78, -.16
(with mediator)			-.13	-.41, .16			-.33*	-.63, -.02
R^2 change	.30***		.25***		.34***		.28***	
Step 3: Mediator								
Job Satisfaction			-.51***	-.75, -.28			-.51***	-.77, -.24
R^2 change			.06***				.08***	
R^2	.33		.35		.44		.46	
F-Score	15.715***		14.877***		15.745***		14.389***	

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p< .001. Unstandardized regression coefficients. CI=Confidence Intervals, with Lower Limits first and Upper Limits second.
-- means not in the model

With the Vietnamese data, ethical leadership was found to be significantly related to job satisfaction (β= .15, p= .037, [LLCI= .01, ULCI= .29]) and turnover intentions (β= -.42, p= .001, [LLCI= -.66, ULCI= -.18]). Delegation was significantly related to job satisfaction (β= .13, p= .037, [LLCI= .01, ULCI= .25]) and turnover intentions (β= -.28, p= .009, [LLCI= -.50, ULCI= -.07]), and team leadership was significantly related to job satisfaction (β= .38, p= .000, [LLCI= .22, ULCI= .54]) and turnover intentions (β= -.32, p= .026, [LLCI= -.61, ULCI= -.04]). Finally, in the mediation part of the model, job satisfaction was significantly related to turnover intentions (β= -.51, p= .000, [LLCI= -.75, ULCI= -.28]) and mediated the effects of leadership competencies. The influence of team leadership became non-significant (i.e., full mediation): (β= -.13, p= .375, [LLCI= -.41, ULCI= .16]), while the other competencies were partially mediated: ethical leadership dropped to (β= -.34, p= .004, [LLCI= -.58, ULCI= -.11]) and delegation dropped to (β= -.22, p= .039, [LLCI= -.42, ULCI= -.01]).

Similar results are found in the New Zealand sample. Ethical leadership was found to be significantly related to job satisfaction (β= .51, p= .000, [LLCI= .29, ULCI= .74]) and turnover intentions (β= -.53, p= .002, [LLCI= -.85, ULCI= -.20]). Also, team leadership was significantly related to job satisfaction (β= .28, p= .013, [LLCI= .06, ULCI= .50]) and turnover intentions (β= -.47, p= .004, [LLCI= -.78, ULCI= -.16]). Finally, in the mediation part of the model, job satisfaction was significantly related to turnover intentions (β= -.51, p= .000, [LLCI= -.77, ULCI= -.24]) and fully mediated the effects of ethical leadership, which dropped to (β= -.27, p= .118, [LLCI= -.60, ULCI= .07]), and partially mediated team leadership, which dropped to (β= -.33, p= .035, [LLCI= -.63, ULCI= -.02]).

The effects across two samples indicate the mediating role of job satisfaction in the influence of leadership competencies on turnover intentions. In the Vietnamese sample, job satisfaction mediated team leadership fully but ethical leadership and delegation only partially. In the New Zealand samples, reversely, job satisfaction mediated ethical leadership fully but team leadership partially. These mediating effects imply an underlying causal mechanism in which a leadership competency first affects job satisfaction which, in turn, influences turnover intentions. These detected effects support Hypothesis 3 in both samples though not entirely. Overall, the models explained solid amounts of variance for job satisfaction in Vietnam (33%) and New Zealand (44%) and similarly so for turnover intentions in Vietnam (35%) and New Zealand (46%). These results suggest that the influence of leadership competencies on job satisfaction and turnover intentions (which includes job satisfaction) were stronger in the New Zealand sample.

Discussion

The present study sought to test a broad range of leadership competencies identified by Shum et al. (2018) and responded to calls in the literature by examining these cross-culturally. The authors focused on turnover intentions due to the high prevalence in the hospitality sector (Poulston, 2008; Williamson et al., 2012) and the high associated costs (Allen et al., 2010). The results highlight the importance of an array of leadership competencies, including those spanning personal leadership competencies and people leadership competencies.

Due to the large number of competencies and their uniform significance across the two job outcomes of interest, the authors conducted stepwise regression analysis and found the dominance of ethical leadership and team leadership regarding job

satisfaction and turnover intentions across two samples. In addition, delegation was found to be key within the Vietnamese sample only. Importantly, in both samples, job satisfaction was found to not only be negatively related to turnover intentions – which aligns with meta-analyses (Griffeth et al., 2000; Zimmerman & Darnold, 2009) – but also mediate some of the effects from leadership competencies. These effects were varied, being full mediation of ethical leadership in the New Zealand sample and team leadership in the Vietnamese sample, but otherwise being partial mediation.

These findings show the process or pathway of influence from leadership competencies. They are best understood as shaping hotel employees' job satisfaction, which in turn influences turnover intentions. Given the strong support in the literature for not only job satisfaction predicting turnover intentions, but also mediating leadership styles (Coomber & Barriball, 2007; Haar et al., 2019; Kim & Brymer, 2011), the results suggest these effects are similar within the hospitality sector and across diverse cultural groups. Comparing the two samples shows that ethical leadership was similar in both samples, while team leadership was lower in New Zealand (M=3.9) compared to Vietnam (M=4.1). However, while the Vietnamese sample reported high job satisfaction (M=4.9) and low turnover intentions (M=2.7), these scores were significantly different in the New Zealand sample, which had lower job satisfaction (M=4.6) and higher turnover intentions (M=3.4). The higher New Zealand turnover intentions likely reflect the tighter labor market in New Zealand, which at the time of the study had very low unemployment (Statistics New Zealand, 2019).

This research adds more knowledge about the HLCM by validating it in several ways. First, the construct validity of the model at the frontline level was confirmed. Second, the predictive validity of competencies toward job satisfaction and turnover

intentions were doubly tested and affirmed, and third, an underlying mediation mechanism was tested and found. Also, by collecting leadership competency data from the subordinates of frontline managers, this research helps to resolve the critiques that the HLCM is purely the construction of managers and educators and that practical information has been ignored. Such fresh evidence corroborates that managers, educators, and employees could all agree upon what is essential to be regarded as competent leadership, specifically in the hospitality context.

The results confirm the argument of Shum et al. (2018) that, while all competencies are necessary for frontline managers, some competencies are more important than the others. The results highlight that both ethical leadership and team leadership are dominant in predicting job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Their dominance affirms that leading teams is still a core competency, especially in the frontline leadership, and that ethical leadership has a crucial role and needs to be complementarily trained in hospitality schools as proposed by Shum et al. (2018). Giles (2016) indeed found that ethical leadership is the most critical competency for leaders worldwide. The outstanding of ethical leadership also aligns well with a meta-analysis on its important role in employee outcomes (Ng & Feldman, 2015). Moreover, the results go beyond just confirming the argument of Shum et al. (2018) in a sense that, contrary to such results and these above findings, the ethical aspect appears relatively vague or implicit in some prevalent leadership models (e.g., Antonakis et al., 2003; Yukl, Mahsud, Prussia, & Hassan, 2019) or regrettably only at the periphery of the leadership literature (Meuser et al., 2016). This peripheral presence might imply an inadequate attention to the ethical aspect of leadership and so, possibly misleads leaders. Thus, this research supports the suggestions of Michel et al. (2010) and Yukl (2012) that ethical leadership might be best viewed as a core

dimension of leadership and needs to be added into both Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire - MLQ (Avolio et al., 1999) and Managerial Practice Survey - MPS (Yukl et al., 2002). As such, ethical leadership cannot be exercised separately from leadership, i.e., as a single phenomenon or a distinct leadership style. In a high contact industry such as hospitality, ethical leadership might have to be taken more seriously. Having ethical leadership at the core (Shum et al., 2018) and opening to updates and modifications, the HLCM may be further developed to be a more inclusive or "full range" theory of leadership, and thus, to merit a place in the overall leadership literature. From this research and in terms of predictive validity, it seems that leadership competencies can predict employees' job satisfaction and turnover intentions equally well comparing to other leadership constructs (e.g., Ariyabuddhiphongs & Kahn, 2017; Michel et al., 2010; Yukl et al., 2019).

Conclusion

The present study set three objectives and all were met in both New Zealand and Vietnamese samples. First, the results show that all 10 competencies were significantly related to turnover intentions (negatively) and job satisfaction (positively). Second, these two outcomes were best predicted by two subsets of competencies as dominant predictors. Third, the effects of these dominant competencies towards turnover intentions were significantly and largely mediated by job satisfaction. The findings support all hypotheses as well as some propositions made by the developers of the HLCM and provide useful validation of the model. The usage of two samples and higher-level statistical analysis around CFA (Haar, Russo, Sune, & Ollier-Malaterre, 2014) may strengthen the data analysis and provide stronger confidence in these findings. These findings offer useful insights on leadership

competencies for hospitality management as well as training and education, and thus adds knowledge into this sector.

The findings imply that a strategy to resolve high turnover may start with leadership development adopting the HLCM, given that its knowledge has been developed over many decades from the efforts of many people. For example, with limited resources, a focus of training for current and potential frontline managers on ethical behaviors, leading teams effectively, and perhaps delegation within Vietnam only, might be more helpful to improve job satisfaction and reduce turnover intentions in hotels across the two countries. In hotels with high turnover, human resource managers may need to prioritize these competencies in promoting or selecting frontline managers. To design leadership training programs for frontline managers, hotels can use these 10 leadership competencies to conduct a need analysis, design the training content, select the optimum delivery mode, and acquire relevant trainers. The 10 scales measuring 10 leadership competencies can be used as a part of the 360-degree feedback tool to audit the leadership performance of hospitality frontline managers. This diagnostic information would be useful to profile managers for intervening and developing purposes (e.g., high/low levels of leadership competencies, see Trivellas and Reklitis (2014) as an example). The information, in combination with other objective outcomes such as turnover, could also be used to establish the ideal leadership competency profiles for different frontline manager positions across hotel departments. These ideal profiles, as clear benchmarks, will guide job raters or interviewers and potentially reduce their bias during the selection process. Since expatriate hospitality managers have been experiencing assignment failure due to a lack of preparation and cultural training (Mejia, Phelan, & Aday, 2015), they may need to be informed or trained key leadership competencies in the

new workplaces and cultures (e.g., delegation in Vietnamese hotels). The model and the scales can also be used by frontline managers and management trainees as the tools to self-check and self-develop their competencies.

The findings also reinforce some practical implications recommended by Shum et al. (2018). For instance, the HLCM could be used with more confidence for shaping leadership training and development in both hotels and hospitality schools. This helps align the industry requirements of graduates with management curricula in hospitality schools and promote collaboration and joint research. Hospitality schools may need to provide short courses and extracurricular activities targeting leadership competencies, especially team leadership. Overall, this research suggests that the model can be utilized as an alternative for better recruitment, selection, training, appraisal, and development of hospitality managers and for educating those future managers.

Limitations and future research

Since leadership, as perceived by subordinates, may still be dissimilar to the perception of it from other engaged observers, such as superiors of the manager, there is the potential for bias in the results. The cross-sectional data also impede any causal inference from the relationships between leadership and the outcomes under investigation (i.e., job satisfaction and turnover intentions). Besides, there is the potential for multicollinearity amongst the 10 competencies to hinder this research, although the stepwise regression does offset this challenge. Moreover, the matching method may not be the optimum way to develop scales. Finally, as the model has been developed within the hospitality industry, its generalizability is currently limited.

Given the substantial similarity and replication across the distinct cultures of Vietnam and New Zealand, the authors encourage further exploration of these leadership competencies to provide more significant insights and confidence in the results. The study can be used as a reference to develop or refine competencies and their associated scales. Future studies could be done to validate further the model, e.g., with other cultures and business contexts, or at higher management levels. These studies can not only expand the setting of the model but also inform hospitality managers of prevalent competencies and contextually important competencies. Other directions, such as exploring its usefulness in predicting a wider range of outcomes (e.g., customer satisfaction, turnover rates, or performance), or testing it in other high contact industries such as education and health care, could also be fruitful.

Appendix 1. Constructs, Scales, Sample Items, and Reliabilities

Constructs	Scales and sources	**Sample items.** Following the stem "My immediate supervisor/manager…"	Vietnamese reliability	New Zealand reliability
Ethical Behavior	Ethical leadership (Haar, Roche, et al., 2019)	Can be trusted	α= .86	α= .92
Displays Emotional Intelligence	Wong and Law EI scale (WLEIS) (Law, Chi-Sum, & Song, 2004)	Is able to control their temper so that they can handle difficulties rationally	α= .85	α= .93
Values and Promotes Diversity	Values and Promotes Diversity (Shum et al., 2018)	Works effectively with individuals of diverse style, ability, and thought;	α= .85	α= .89
Maintains a Proactive Learning Orientation	Learning Orientation Scale (Kaya & Patton, 2011)	Proactively seeks new learning opportunities	α= .86	α= .91
Communicates Effectively	Effective Communication (Shum et al., 2018)	Speaks and writes in a coherent and effective manner	α= .88	α= .88
Manages Conflict	Conflict Efficacy Scale (Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 2000)	Effectively manages conflicts among team members concerning any work habits	α= .88	α= .91
Delegates Effectively	Perceived Delegation (Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998)	Lets me to ask them for information and then make job-related decisions for myself	α= .84	α= .92
Leads Effective Teams	Collaborative Team Leader Instrument (Northouse, 2016)	Creates a safe climate for team members to openly and supportively discuss any issue related to the team's success	α= .84	α= .90
Coaches and Develops Others	Supervisory Coaching Behavior (Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2005)	Sets expectations with me and communicates the importance of those expectations to the broader goals of the hotel	α= .84	α= .90
Defines and Achieves High Performance	Supervisory Knowledge of Performance (Ramaswami, 1996)	Has developed an excellent working knowledge of my job	α= .89	α= .92
Job satisfaction (3-items)	Job satisfaction (Judge, Bono, Erez, and Locke, 2005).	I feel fairly satisfied with my present job	α= .83	α= .87
Turnover intentions (4-items)	Turnover intentions (Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham, 1999).	I am thinking about leaving my hotel	α= .93	α= .92

CHAPTER 5

MANUSCRIPT 2

HOSPITALITY LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES INFLUENCING ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT: THE MODERATING EFFECT OF GENDER

This manuscript was published as:

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New Zealand English is used. The manuscript was reformatted to put tables and figures into their right places. To avoid multiple replications of references, all references in this manuscript are listed in the reference section which is shared among all chapters.

Introduction

Until the onset of the Coronavirus in early 2020, New Zealand was experiencing a shortage of hospitality staff (Shaw, 2019). This has added to the debate on turnover and disengagement, which has been faced by hospitality employers (Williamson et al., 2012). How to enhance the commitment of employees towards their organisation is a challenging question for both managers and researchers. Many studies investigating the causes and effects of organisational commitment have been done but some have presented contradicting results (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). This implies that more evidence is needed to better understand the phenomenon as well as its underlying operational mechanisms.

Reviews have shown that demographic variables, traits, work experiences, the nature of work, business ethics, empowerment, and leadership styles are strong predictors of organisational commitment, while work performance and turnover are the most common outcomes (Fornes, Rocco, & Wollard, 2008; Meyer et al., 2002). Among those strong predictors, some, such as gender, employee traits, or the nature of work, are fixed and unlikely to be changed easily. Therefore, organisations wishing to have committed and engaged employees must provide a supportive work environment and strong leadership (Meyer et al., 2002).

Based on this suggestion, the current study proposes that leadership, which also underlies other factors, such as business ethics, is perhaps the most feasible approach to improving organisational commitment. Thus, hospitality organisations, being labour-intensive and, especially in New Zealand with the (pre Covid-19 crisis) staff shortage issue (Williamson, Rasmussen, & Ravenswood, 2017), may prioritise their effort to improve leadership. Such an approach to leadership might be done using

(1) general leadership theories (e.g., transformational-transactional leadership, servant leadership, etc.), or (2) hospitality leadership. The present study focuses on the latter.

Recently, growing criticisms have been targeted at general leadership theories and their usefulness for leadership development (e.g., Andersen, 2018; Gottfredson et al., 2020; Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). For instance, major leadership theories have been criticised for being too general and idealistic (e.g., Blom & Alvesson, 2015; Mumford & Fried, 2014), and for being overlapping, vague, and unhelpful towards developing leaders (e.g., Alvesson, 2019; Ashford & Sitkin, 2019). Consequently, leadership development is itself an under-developed field (e.g., Day & Dragoni, 2015; Lunsford & Brown, 2016). It has been concluded that major leadership theories may not work in the real world (Mumford & Fried, 2014). Moreover, attempts to implement and evaluate them may be difficult, as Hunt (1983) once criticised, since general theories are beset by abstract constructs. Thus, empirical testability is obstructed and predictive power declines. In their review of meta-analyses, Banks et al. (2018) affirmed his critique by showing relatively weak correlations between major leadership constructs and outcomes.

In the hospitality industry, there is a clear line of research on leadership competencies (e.g., Buergermeister, 1983; Chung-Herrera et al., 2003; Morris, 1973; Tas, 1988; Testa & Sipe, 2012) that has been well developed over time and is beginning to be viewed as a fully developed comprehensive theory of leadership. However, empirical testing of hospitality leadership competency models, especially in terms of leader effectiveness and organisational commitment, is rare. This study aims to test the hospitality leadership competency model regarding outcomes of leader effectiveness and affective commitment amongst frontline workers.

Overall, the present study makes three contributions. First, it contributes to the understanding of the relationships between leadership competencies and subordinate outcomes and identifies the competency that manifests the strongest relationships. Second, it presents a mechanism underlying these strongest relationships that explains the sequence of relevant phenomena, thus, providing some empirical evidence towards future causal inference. Third, the interactive role of gender as a contextual factor is integrated into the mechanism to better capture its operation in order to understand whether gender differences can be explained. In summary, our research clarifies whether or not hospitality leadership is helpful in predicting organisational commitment and if so, provides direction towards improving leadership practice and development in the New Zealand hospitality industry, which is numerically dominated by female workers (Mooney, Ryan, & Harris, 2017).

Literature review and hypotheses

Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment has been well conceptualised by many scholars (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1991; Porter et al., 1974). Porter et al. (1974) defined organisational commitment as “the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (p. 604). The construct has been advanced into a model of three components of commitment to the organisation, namely, *affective* commitment, i.e., emotional attachment, *continuance* commitment, i.e., perceived costs of leaving, and *normative* commitment, i.e., an obligation to stay and perform well (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer et al., 1993). The model also includes the antecedents of each component, and common consequences such as job-related behaviours and turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002).

In the hospitality industry, it has been affirmed that more highly committed employees serve guests better, thus pushing sales growth, and they are less likely to leave (Bufquin et al., 2017). In particular, affective commitment is strongly related to turnover intentions (DiPietro et al., 2020; Griffeth et al., 2000; Kang et al., 2015). Thus, it seems that improving employee commitment not only increases performance but reduces turnover as well, and as presented above, the best way may be by enacting good leadership. This view has been supported by a number of studies that have found a strong relationship between leadership and organisational commitment (e.g., Haque et al., 2019; Mathieu et al., 2016; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016), especially within the hospitality industry (e.g., Chiang & Lin, 2016; Liao, Hu, & Chung, 2009). Although these studies adopt other leadership constructs, such as transformational and servant leadership, their results imply that the relationship between hospitality leadership and organisational commitment may also be found.

Hospitality Leadership

In hospitality, much effort has been put into finding the best leadership approach. Nevertheless, inconclusive or competing results still remain (Sandstrom & Reynolds, 2020). For example, directive, participative and empowering leadership styles were all found to have no direct effect or only trivial, indirect effects on employee commitment towards service quality (Clark, Hartline, & Jones, 2008). With significant relationships towards organisational commitment and other outcomes, authentic leadership, servant leadership, and transformational leadership have all been promoted as the theories that should be used in training hospitality staff (e.g., Gatling et al., 2016; Jang & Kandampully, 2018; Patiar & Wang, 2016). Critics suggest that this is problematic because the circumstances in which leadership is performed, and the

context in which leadership development occurs, have been ignored in leadership development theories and practices (Probert & Turnbull, 2011). Provided that these general, yet rival, theories of leadership styles are usable for training, making a justifiable choice between them is already a complex challenge. Therefore, besides the above criticisms, it seems that the adoption of general leadership theories for training may be challenged with puzzling evidence or a lack of strong evidence.

Unlike other general leadership theories, hospitality leadership has been built on the central concept of *competency*, a potentially common term of leadership development (Seemiller & Murray, 2013). In the hospitality industry, job competency has been conceptualised and investigated as essential activities, skills, or performance to assume the duty of a specific job (Buergermeister, 1983). Tas (1988) later defined competencies as essential skills and activities to perform the duties of a specific job. In addition, Nath and Raheja (2001) described competencies as observable behaviours based on underlying attitudes, knowledge, and skills; thus, competencies are trainable, observable, and measurable. This conceptualisation of leadership competencies, and therefore the hospitality leadership competency model specifically, is compatible with a common-sense approach to leadership training, defined as activities or programs to enhance leader knowledge, skills, and abilities (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Lacerenza et al., 2017).

Based on the literature of hospitality leadership, Shum et al. (2018) proposed a 15-competency model in which 10 competencies are of the priority to frontline managers, and which is the focus of the present study. These 10 competencies are grouped into two factors:

1. *Personal leadership* with five competencies: (1) Ethical leadership, (2) Emotional behaviours, (3) Diversity leadership, (4) Learning orientation, and (5) Communication.
2. *People leadership* with five competencies: (1) Conflict management, (2) Delegation (3) Team leadership, (4) Coaching and developing subordinates, and (5) Performance management.

Shum et al. (2018) joined Testa and Sipe (2012), calling for researchers to measure those competencies, especially important ones, and test the effectiveness of those competencies in terms of employee or financial outcomes. As a response, the present study chose to test this model on hotel employees' affective commitment. Since hospitality leadership has already been applied in the industry (Assante et al., 2009), a test of its influence on organisation commitment is needed to see if the desired outcomes are achievable.

The employment relationship is driven by both economic exchange via a contract and social exchange via mutual expectations of behaviours (Aryee et al., 2002). Therefore, beyond the obligations bound by the employment contract, subordinates receiving positive behaviours from their managers may respond with positive attitudes and behaviours under social exchange theory (Haar & Spell, 2004). Hence, managers who behave competently are likely to improve the commitment of their subordinates and vice versa (Patiar & Wang, 2016; Swanson, Kim, Lee, Yang, & Lee, 2020). Prior research has shown that hotel frontline employees perceiving competent leadership express stronger commitment to their hotels (Chiang & Lin, 2016). Here, we broadly hypothesise that the various leadership dimensions within the broad categories of personal leadership and people leadership (Shum et al., 2018) will be positively related to subordinate affective commitment. We posit the following.

Hypothesis 1: Leadership competencies will be positively related to affective commitment.

Leader effectiveness

Boyatzis (1993) and Mintzberg (2004) were both concerned about managers who possess competencies but do not always perform them. Antonakis et al. (2003) also argued that laissez-faire leadership is the lack of leadership in which the competent manager may evade his or her duty. Boyatzis (1993) argued that leaders could be effective, i.e., perceived as having high leader effectiveness, if they consistently use their competencies. Hence, competent managers may, but not always, maintain their consistency in enacting their leadership competencies., and thus leader effectiveness might act as a mediator of leadership competencies that ultimately drive the attitudes and behaviours of employees. We used the construct *managerial competence* which is defined by Rogg et al. (2001, p. 436) as "the degree to which managers were consistent in their treatment of employees and the articulation of organizational goals and policies" and suggest that leaders with strong leadership competencies will be viewed as more competent in their work. Thus, we expect the broad range of leadership competencies to be positively related to subordinate perceptions of leader effectiveness, whereby managers are assessed by consistency and clear articulation of organisational goals (Rogg et al., 2001). Further, we expect that leader effectiveness will mediate the influence of leadership competence on subordinate affective commitment. Here, it is the way the leader uses their competencies to enact consistent treatment of employees and firm goals that ultimately drives commitment. We posit the following.

Hypothesis 2: Leadership competencies will be positively related to leader effectiveness.

Hypothesis 3: Leader effectiveness will be positively related to affective commitment.

Hypothesis 4: Leader effectiveness will mediate the relationship between leadership competency and affective commitment.

The moderating effects of gender

According to social role theory, there are gender differences in expectations and responses; thus, men and women tend to respond to social information in different ways (Kacmar et al., 2011). Hypothesising that men and women hold different perceptions and expectations about leadership, Bellou (2011) found support in her study that, at higher levels of the need for achievement, women tend to have higher expectations in terms of leadership behaviours than men. However, at lower levels of the need for achievement, men were more likely to expect such behaviours compared to women. This interaction effect suggests that men and women cannot be considered as a uniform group when examining leadership preferences (Bellou, 2011). In line with Bellou's study, the relationships between leadership styles and the outcomes have been found to be moderated by subordinate gender (e.g., Collins, Meyer, & Burris, 2014; Woolley, Caza, & Levy, 2010).

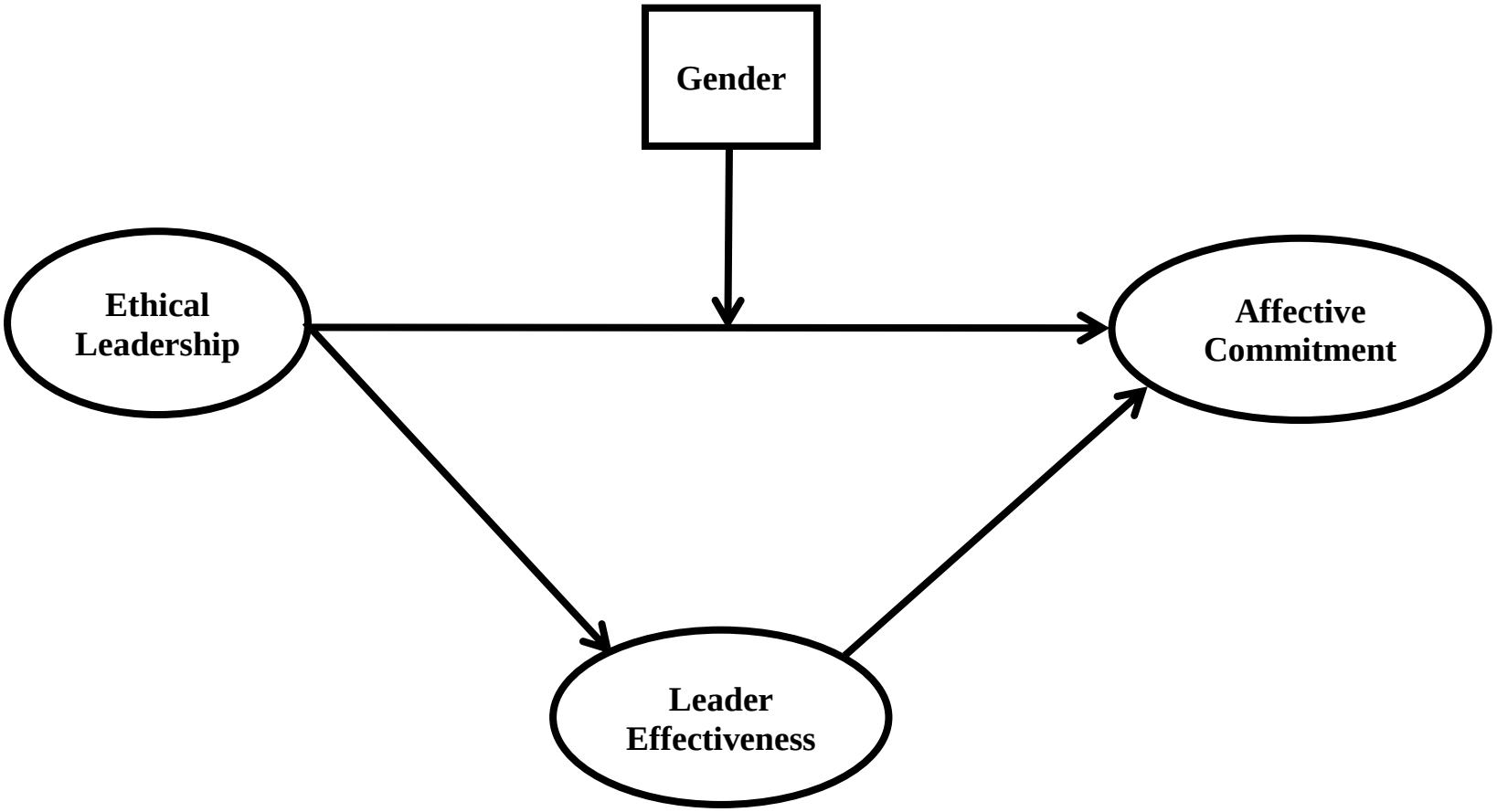
Within the hospitality sector, it was found that the relationship between leaders' behavioural integrity and subordinates' trust in their leader was stronger for females than males (Gatling et al., 2020). Finally, female hospitality workers may expect specific ethical leadership behaviours, since they are likely vulnerable to sexual harassment and discrimination (Keith, Campbell, & Legg, 2010). Hence, the influence of gender might potentially modify our conceptualisation of leadership and what is

considered to be effective leadership (Ayman & Korabik, 2010). These evidence and arguments suggest that gender can play a moderation role of our hypothesised relationships. Here we suggest that the influence of leadership competency on affective commitment will be stronger for females than males because they are more likely to reciprocate (under social exchange theory) with better leadership given the potential issues women can face within the hospitality sector (e.g., Keith et al., 2010). We therefore hypothesise the following.

Hypothesis 5: Gender will moderate the relationship between leadership competency and affective commitment, with women reporting higher effects than men.

The hypothesised model is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Study Model



Method

Sample

Using both online and paper survey forms to ensure the contribution of all potential participants, we aimed to survey full-time, permanent frontline staff in four-and-five-star hotels in New Zealand and a few large three-star ones. All participants were provided with the project information, including the assurance of their anonymity and confidentiality. Following contacts with participating hotels, we collected 109 usable surveys, including 35 online responses (about 4% response rate) and 74 paper surveys in sealed envelopes (about 30% response rate). T-tests confirmed there was no significant differences in responses between these two groups. The demographic characteristics of participants are presented in Table 1.

Measures

From the leadership literature, we sought scales that best matched the 10 competencies offered by Shum et al. (2018). This operationalisation followed the suggestion of Hinkin et al. (1997) and Robinson (2018) to use existing scales, which have been shown to be redundant in the leadership literature (Banks et al., 2018). The usage of existing, validated scales also assures face validity before measurement (Crawford & Kelder, 2019). From the literature, we identified 10 validated scales to measure and test hospitality leadership at the frontline level. To measure our outcome variables, we used the affective commitment scale by Meyer et al. (1993) and our mediator was measured using the leader effectiveness scale by Rogg et al. (2001). All scales and sample items are presented in Table 2. Finally, the moderator Gender was coded 1=female and 0=male.

Table 1. Sample Demographics

Variables		
Gender of employees		%
Male (code =0)	50	(45.9)
Female (code=1)	59	(54.1)
Age groups of employees		
Under 20 years	12	(11.1)
20 to 30 years	44	(40.7)
31 to 40 years	21	(19.4)
41 to 50 years	21	(19.4)
Over 50 years	10	(9.3)
Tenure of employees		
3 years and below	63	(57.8)
4 to 6 years	26	(23.9)
7 to 9 years	6	(5.5)
10 to 12 years	6	(5.5)
13 years and above	8	(7.3)
Departments		
Housekeeping	30	(27.5)
Front office	48	(44.0)
Food, beverages and recreation	21	(19.3)
Security or Engineering	1	(.9)
Others	9	(8.3)
Gender of managers		
Male	66	(60.6)
Female	43	(39.4)
Other	0	(0)
Team size		
Up to 5	35	(33)
6-10	32	(30.2)
11-15	18	(17)
16-20	7	(6.6)
Over 20	14	(13.2)
Hotel rating		
5-star	44	(41.9)
4-star	59	(56.2)
3-star	2	(1.9)

Table 2. Constructs, Scales, and Item Samples

Constructs	**Scales and sources**	**Sample items** Following the stem "My immediate supervisor/manager…"
Ethical Behaviour	5-items, Ethical leadership (Haar et al., 2019)	Can be trusted
Displays Emotional Intelligence	Wong and Law EI scale (WLEIS) (Law et al., 2004)	Is able to control their temper so that they can handle difficulties rationally
Values and Promotes Diversity	Values and Promotes Diversity (Shum et al., 2018)	Works effectively with individuals of diverse style, ability, and thought
Maintains a Proactive Learning Orientation	Learning Orientation Scale (Kaya & Patton, 2011)	Proactively seeks new learning opportunities
Communicates Effectively	Effective Communication (Shum et al., 2018)	Speaks and writes in a coherent and effective manner
Manages Conflict	Conflict Efficacy Scale (Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 2000)	Effectively manages conflicts among team members concerning any work habits
Delegates Effectively	Perceived Delegation (Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998)	Let's me to ask them for information and then make job-related decisions for myself
Leads Effective Teams	Collaborative Team Leader Instrument (Northouse, 2016)	Creates a safe climate for team members to openly and supportively discuss any issue related to the team's success
Coaches and Develops Others	Supervisory Coaching Behaviour (Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2005)	Sets expectations with me and communicates the importance of those expectations to the broader goals of the hotel
Defines and Achieves High Performance	Supervisory Knowledge of Performance (Ramaswami, 1996)	Has developed an excellent working knowledge of my job
Leader Effectiveness	Managerial Competence by Rogg, Schmidt, Shull, & Schmitt (2001)	Follows through on commitments
Affective Organisational Commitment	Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993).	This hotel has a great deal of personal meaning for me

Control Variables

A number of demographic factors have been found to relate to the outcomes here and we controlled for their potential effects. This includes employee age and tenure (both measured by group). These have all been found to be related to organisational commitment in the hospitality industry (e.g., Becker & Tews, 2016; Griffeth et al., 2000; Kara et al., 2012; Karatepe & Kilic, 2015; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010; Lu et al., 2016). Given the potential difference across hotels, we controlled for hotel rating (1=3 star, 2=4 star, and 3=5 star).

Control for Common Method Variance (CMV)

As suggested by Min et al. (2016) and Podsakoff et al. (2003), we attempted to control for CMV in both the design and the analysis phases because CMV may distort correlations between variables (Fuller et al., 2016). The scores of independent variables and dependent variable were shown in five and six-point Likert scales, respectively, and with different colours in the survey. Further, to reduce potential common method variance as suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003), we inserted a blank space and a short transitional sentence between the independent variable section and the dependent variable section as a psychological separation of measurement. We detail our post-hoc analyses conducted below.

Analysis

We conducted some post-hoc tests to probe potential CMV and to validate the composite scale of the leadership competency model. A Harman's single factor test resulted a single factor with eigenvalues greater than 1 accounted for 48.2% variance in the dataset. This result is below the threshold of 50% (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and

thus suggests that common method bias might not severely impact our interpretation of results. Furthermore, since all competencies are components of the latent leadership construct, high intercorrelations (i.e., multicollinearity) among them should exist and may largely contribute to the above high variance result. Following the suggestion of Hinkin et al. (1997), we used AMOS (version 25) to test the construct validity of the leadership competency model with 10 measurement scales by confirmatory factor analysis. This analysis will confirm if the model has a good fit to the dataset.

We adopted these goodness-of-fit indexes: (1) the comparative fit index (CFI) ≥ 0.90, (2) the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) ≤ 0.08, and (3) the standardised root mean residual (SRMR) ≤ 0.10 (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1998; Williams et al., 2009). Hair et al. (2010) suggested that the model fit is good if all other potential models present a poorer fit to the sample. After dropping some items with low factor loadings, the final model fitted the sample relatively well: χ^2 (549) = 877.9 (p= .000), CFI= .91, RMSEA= .07, and SRMR= .05, and better than all other rival models. These results confirmed the construct validity of the model.

Results

Preliminary Analysis

Using SPSS version 25, we conducted several preliminary analyses. Table 3 presents descriptive statistics, the reliabilities of scales and the correlations between competencies and outcome variables. Overall, employees showed relatively high effective commitment with their hotels (M= 4.21, SD= 1.15, mid-point 3.5) and their perception of leader effectiveness was well above average (M= 3.98, SD = 1.0, mid-point 3.0).

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlations

	Scales			Correlations	
	Mean	SD	α	Leader Effectiveness	Affective Commitment
Age (in group)					.05
Ethnicity					-.04
Tenure					.19
Gender (0=male; 1=female)					-.21*
Ethical leadership	4.07	0.95	.92	.71**	.49**
Emotional	3.88	1.00	.93	.59**	.41**
Diversity	4.08	0.92	.89	.73**	.42**
Learning	3.98	0.93	.91	.68**	.28**
Communication	3.95	0.88	.88	.73**	.45**
Conflict	4.03	0.85	.91	.66**	.39**
Delegation	3.86	1.05	.92	.70**	.48**
Team leadership	3.92	0.97	.90	.83**	.40**
Coaching	3.80	0.99	.90	.81**	.39**
Evaluation	4.04	0.89	.92	.79**	.39**
Leader Effectiveness	3.98	1.00	.95	--	.49**
Affective Commitment	4.21	1.15	.80	--	--

N= 109, *: p<.05, **p<.01, SD: Standard deviation

Correlational and regression results

Table 3 shows that all competencies were significantly and strongly correlated with leader effectiveness, but less so with affective commitment. Leader effectiveness was also significantly and strongly related to affective commitment. These results support Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3, and suggest a potential mediation analysis.

The correlational results show that all leadership competencies were likely to be strong, but rival predictors of affective commitment. Therefore, all competencies could be good as an antecedent in the mediation model. In such cases, Pedhazur (1997)

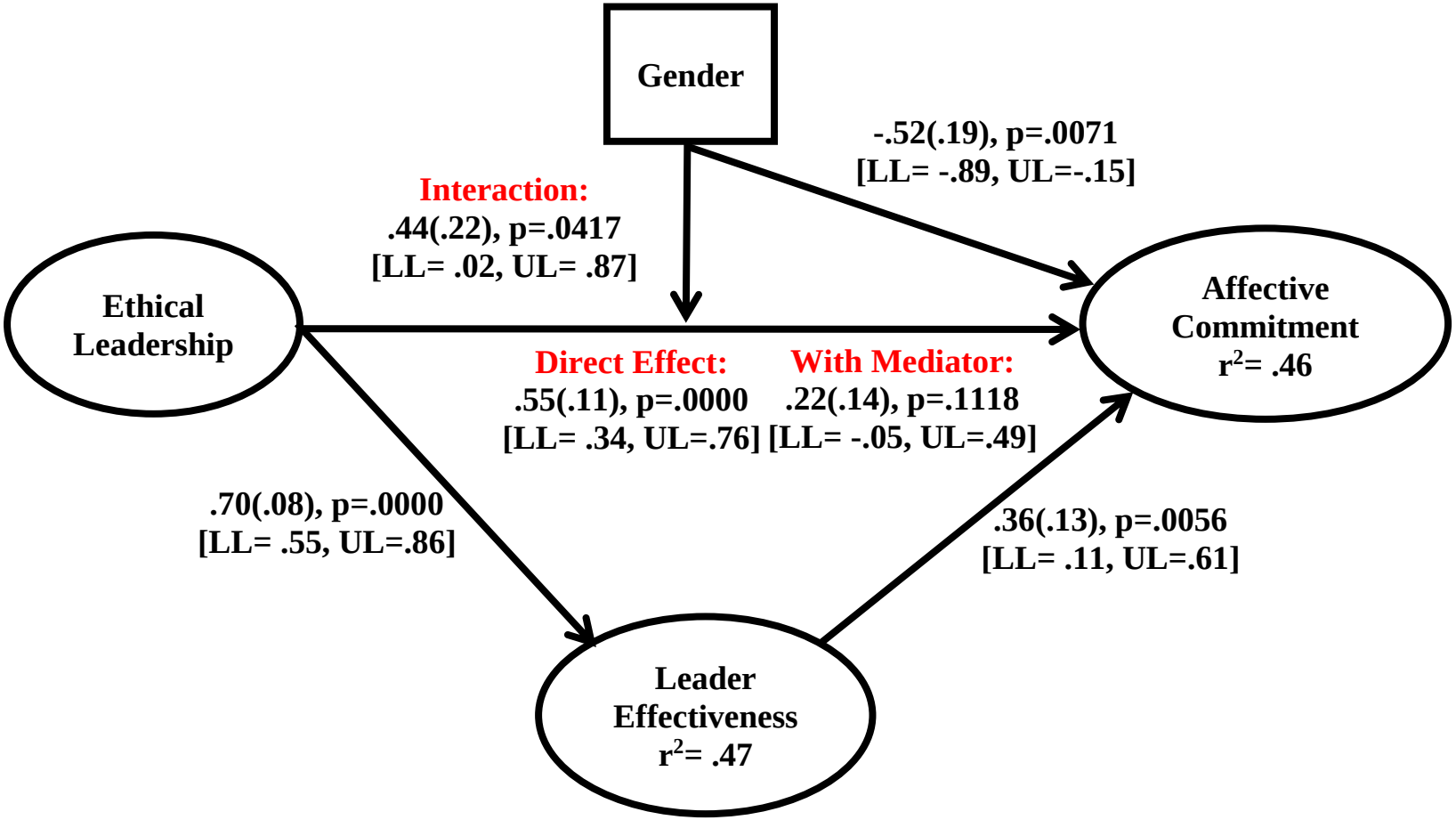
suggests that using stepwise regression analysis is the best way to find the strongest sub-set of predictors when there are multiple dimensions like in the present study. Consequently, we conducted this analysis and identified (in order) ethical leadership and communication to be the two strongest predictors of affective commitment. Similarly, team leadership, coaching, communication, evaluation, and ethical leadership were the best predictors of leader effectiveness. Given the shared importance and strength of ethical leadership, this competency was ultimately chosen as the antecedent to be analysed in the full mediation model. This choice followed the suggestion of Yukl et al. (2019) that, given several components of leadership behaviours, it is vital to consider the effects of specific leadership behaviours on the outcomes.

Mediation model analysis

We adopted the PROCESS tool (version 3.4) by Hayes (2018b) in SPSS to test the mediation effects and used model 5 which does both mediation and moderation, controlling for age and gender of both managers and subordinates, as well as subordinate tenure, and hotel rating.

The result is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Study Results



LL & UL: Lower level and upper levels (for confidence interval), respectively.

As expected, the relationship between ethical leadership and affective commitment was significant (β= .55(.11), p= .0000, [LLCI= .34, ULCI= .76]) supporting Hypothesis 1. Further, ethical leadership was significantly related to leader effectiveness (β= .70(.08), p= .0000, [LLCI= .55, ULCI= .86]) supporting Hypothesis 2. Leader effectiveness was significantly related to affective commitment (β= .36(.13), p= .0056, [LLCI= .11, ULCI= .61]) supporting Hypothesis 3, and when included in the model, it fully mediated the influence of ethical leadership on affective commitment. The influence dropped from (β= .55(.11), p= .0000, [LLCI= .34, ULCI= .76]) to (β= .22(.14), p= .1118, [LLCI= -.05, ULCI= .49]). This supports Hypothesis 4.

In addition, gender was significantly and directly related to affective commitment (β= -.52(.19), p=.0071, [LLCI=-.89, ULCI=-.15]) and significantly interacted with ethical leadership towards affective commitment: (β= .44(.22), p= .0417, [LLCI= .02, ULCI= .87]) and accounted for an additional 2.4% variance (p=.0417). To help explain the effects, the moderation effect of gender is visualised in Figure 3.

Figure 3. The Two-Way Interaction Effects of Gender on Ethical Leadership towards Affective Commitment

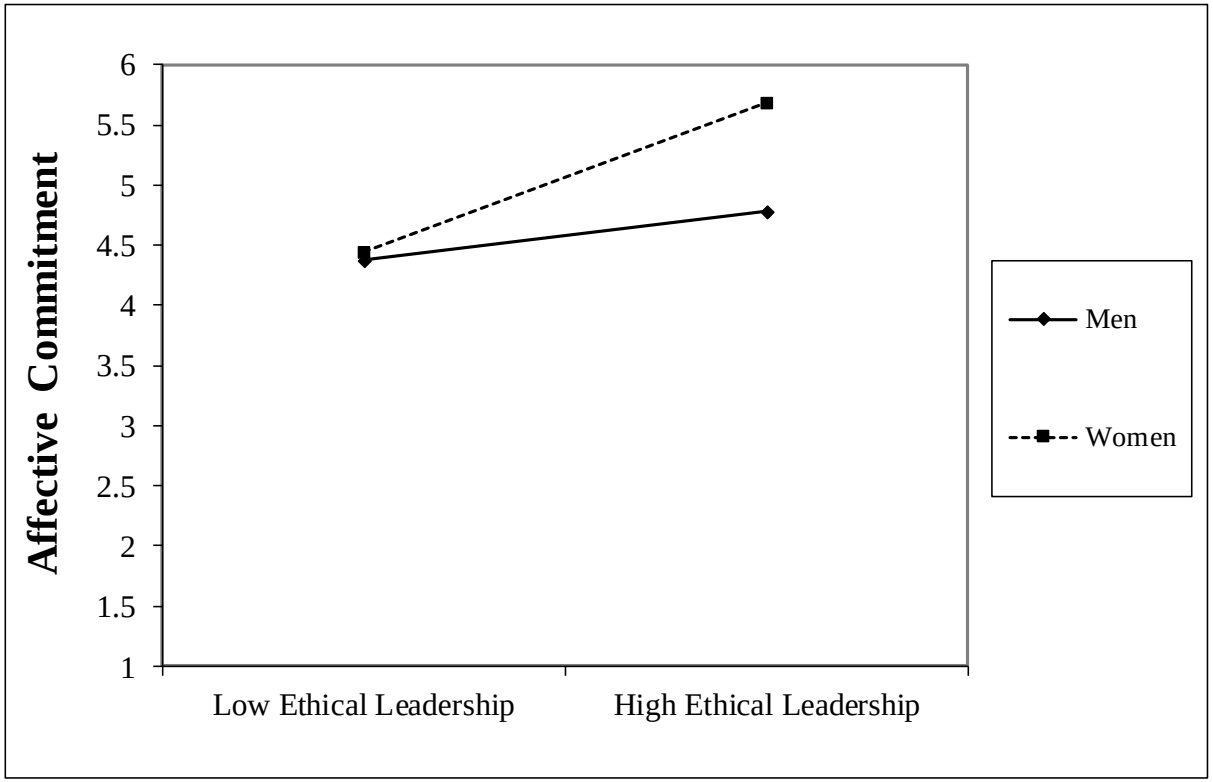


Figure 3 shows there is no significant difference between male and female respondents at low levels of ethical leadership, with both genders reporting near identical levels of commitment. However, when these two groups are compared with the other respondents with high ethical leadership, these employees report significant increase in affective commitment, although the increase for females is significantly steeper than for males. This supports the hypothesised gendered effect, whereby it was expected that women would respond more positively to competent leadership.

Finally, two control variables were also significantly related to affective commitment: employee tenure (β= .28(.09), p=.0037, [LLCI=.09, ULCI=.47]) and hotel rating (β= -.61(.17), p=.0007, [LLCI=-.96, ULCI=-.27]). Overall, the models were significant and explained robust amounts of variance: 46% to affective commitment (F-score 11.6470, p=.0000) and 47% to leader effectiveness (F-score 21.6064, p=.0000)

Discussion

The present study sought to explore the role of the hospitality leadership competency model and its ability to influence subordinate commitment. The focus on commitment is important because it is linked to many important organisational outcomes including performance and retention (Bufquin et al., 2017; DiPietro et al., 2020; Griffeth et al., 2000; Kang et al., 2015). Indeed, while the links between leadership and commitment have been established (e.g., Haque et al., 2019; Mathieu et al., 2016) including within the hospitality industry (e.g., Chiang & Lin, 2016; Liao et al., 2009), there is an acknowledgement that better forms of leadership need to be explored (Alvesson, 2019;

Ashford & Sitkin, 2019). This led Mumford and Fried (2014) to conclude that major leadership theories may not work in the real world. In response to this, the hospitality leadership competency model (Shum et al., 2018) was crafted to provide a guide for the hospitality sector and the present study focused on this approach.

Overall, the results of the present study were successful in confirming the validity of the hospitality leadership competency model according to Shum et al. (2018). First, we successfully achieved construct validity which was confirmed as a result of the confirmatory factor analysis test of the 10 leadership competencies. Second, because of their significant correlations with the investigated outcomes, the predictive validity of all 10 competencies towards the outcomes explored here (leader effectiveness and subordinates' organisational comment) was supported. However, that does provide a challenge towards testing all 10 dimensions towards our commitment outcome. Within the scope of this paper, exploring and presenting the predicting results of all competencies was not possible, although statistical approaches have been suggested to deal with this (Pedhazur, 1997). Specifically, Pedhazur (1997) suggests that using stepwise regression analysis is a useful approach and this was conducted towards both affective commitment and leader effectiveness. From this analysis, a model was run with the strongest predictor, which was ethical leadership. Overall, the hospitality leadership competency model is strongly supported and we find that it could be an inclusive leadership model involving many components of leadership, with the most important leadership competency being ethical leadership, reflecting a leader as a moral component, at least within our sample of New Zealand hospitality workers.

In our present research context, ethical leadership was showed to be the dominant predictor of affective commitment. However, the influence of ethical leadership on affective commitment was found to be best explained as being mediated, or operating though, perceptions of leader effectiveness. Thus, while ethical leadership is dominant towards affective commitment, its importance is really through building the subordinates' perceptions around how effective their leader is, and this ultimately makes them more committed under social exchange theory. In addition, we found the influence of ethical leadership on affective commitment was moderated by gender. When perceptions of ethical leadership are low, we found no difference between females and males regarding their affective commitment. However, when ethical leadership was high, there was an increase in affective commitment as expected although aligned with the moderation hypothesis, this was found to be more pronounced for female employees than male employees. In other words, the effect of ethical leadership on affective commitment was stronger for females than for males. The stronger effect could be explainable since female employees in the hospitality face specific ethical issues such as sexual harassment (Keith et al., 2010), and thus respond more favourably (under social exchange theory) to the support of an ethical leader.

Implications for HRM and industry

One aim of this research was to provide evidence that validates the hospitality competency model in the New Zealand context, with the purpose of understanding its potential usefulness for hospitality organisations, employees, and training institutions. Given that the hospitality competency model has gone through multiple updates, with added validation from the present research, the model could be utilised for leadership

develop and towards human resource management (HRM) in several ways. First, it can be used to clarify expectations for current and future management staff. For example, the ethical behaviours that are highly valued by their subordinates such as non-discrimination and having a trust orientation. Second, the current pool of competencies enables HRM managers and planners within the hospitality sector to develop the future pool and then build, communicate, implement, and evaluate their leadership development plans in a consistent manner.

Third, the future pool could also be used to design leadership educational programmes in hospitality schools, especially extra curriculum targeting at personal leadership (e.g., ethical and emotional leadership) and people leadership (e.g., team leadership). These two factors with 10 competencies could be prioritised for training frontline managers in hospitality organisations. Finally, the model provides some guidance for managers seeking self-training towards their career development. The hospitality leadership competency model might therefore effectively consolidate independent leadership development efforts made by hospitality organisations, schools, and individuals together.

In hotels where female employees are likely to be dominant (Mooney et al., 2017), the research results imply that to have committed employees, ethical leadership should be especially considered. The significant gendered moderation effect found is somewhat similar to the result found in hospitality by Gatling et al. (2020), around subordinate gender moderating their sensitivity to leader's integrity. The detected effect is also consistent with the findings of Karakuş (2018), who found that when compared to their male counterparts, female teacher's commitment levels was more strongly influenced by the school principal's ethical leadership. The interaction effect

detected by our study also aligns with Kacmar et al. (2011), where the effect of ethical leadership on employee behaviours produced different patterns depending on gender.

These results also add more evidence of the potential gender differences in practising, perceiving, and responding to leadership (e.g., Billing and Alvesson, 2018). Our finding of gender differences supports the argument that managers adopting one-sided perspective of leadership (e.g., masculine, or result orientation) may not be always effective (Bellou, 2011), or may not be as effective as they could be. HRM managers might seek to consider the role of hiring and training ethical leadership skills amongst leaders. They might also look to hire and promote more women to leadership positions given they are more likely to offer effective leadership (Zenger & Folkman, 2020). Thus, it appears that context plays a crucial role in leadership and should be considered in training, practising, and appraising leadership, whereas a gender-neutral leadership model turns out to be neutral or not might be contextual.

Overall, to recruit and prepare managers, it is necessary for HRM departments to consider the leadership preference of their employees (Bellou, 2011). Our research is amongst the first to find gendered effects from ethical leadership in the New Zealand hospitality sector and highlights that building greater affective commitment in the hospitality industry appears to be dependent on good leadership. The finding highlights and supports arguments around the critical role of ethical leadership in female dominant industries, such as hospitality as found here, but potentially other sectors like education. This research also supports the proposition of Shum et al. (2018) that ethical leadership is an essential component in the hospitality context and that it should be integrated into hospitality training courses and the code of conduct in hospitality organisations. To conclude, ethical leadership could be viewed as a

component, indeed an essential one, of leadership competencies (Shum et al., 2018) and not as an independent style of leadership. This view is in line with some other studies that affirm the vital role of ethical leadership as a universal competency (e.g., Giles, 2016).

Limitations

Our research has some limitations that future research might seek to address. The cross-sectional data hindered us from making a strong causal claim about the investigated relationships. Thus, future research can take a more in-depth probe into causal relationships. The research could be done, for example, by strictly applying and managing an updated code of ethical conduct and subsequently testing its longitudinal effects on organisational commitment and other subordinate outcomes. Future research might also test the effects of hospitality leadership competencies on other important outcomes, such as performance or customer satisfaction. Further, future research might explore the role of union membership given New Zealand findings around the importance of union membership (Douglas, Haar, & Harris, 2017). Another limitation is our relatively small sample size and multicollinearity among competencies also prevented us from using sophisticated analysing techniques such as Structural Equation Modelling. This limitation could be overcome by obtaining stronger support from the industry since the research theme is highly sensitive and somewhat overlaps with their frequent internal audits. Nevertheless, these issues imply opportunities for future studies which need a larger sample size and a refined composite scale to measure leadership competencies.

Conclusion

This research examined the relationships between hospitality leadership competencies with leader effectiveness and organisational commitment (specifically the affective dimension) in New Zealand hotels. Having found those relationships, we took an in-depth exploration into the effects of ethical leadership on affective commitment as mediated by leadership effectiveness and moderated by gender. We found that the effects of ethical leadership on affective commitment, as well as mediated effects, to be strong and meaningful, and also with a significant moderation effect. These results support the validity of the hospitality leadership competency model and the proposition that ethical leadership should be considered as a core component of the model, or of leadership more broadly. In line with previous studies, our research suggests that the hospitality leadership competency model deserves a shared approach by hospitality managers and educators. This will consolidate the compatibility between leadership education in hospitality schools and the industry requirements. Finally, since female workers are likely more sensitive to ethical conduct in hotels in New Zealand, stronger attention to ethical leadership from hospitality managers and educators may be worthy of winning the commitment of that segment of workforce.

CHAPTER 6

MANUSCRIPT 3

HOSPITALITY LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES AND EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT IN VIETNAM

This manuscript is under review (as at September 7, 2020) in the *International Journal of Hospitality Management*.

The core content of this manuscript (blind peer-reviewed) was presented at the 30th Annual Council for Australasian Tourism and Hospitality Education Conference (CAUTHE 2020). The conference was organised at AUT from 10 to 14 February, 2020. The conference paper (1,500 words) has been published as:

Nguyen, L. V., Haar, J., & Smollan, R. (2020). Hospitality leadership and employee commitment in Vietnam. In: *CAUTHE 2020: 20: 20 Vision: New Perspectives on the Diversity of Hospitality, Tourism and Events, 408-410,* Auckland, New Zealand.

The manuscript uses American English and was reformatted to put tables and figures into their right places. To avoid multiple replications of references, all references in this manuscript are listed in the reference section which is shared among all chapters.

Introduction

Turnover and related issues such as uncommitted employees have rarely been studied in Vietnamese hotels, a booming industry in a transitional economy challenged by alarmingly rising turnover rates (Hang, 2019; Le et al., 2018). Thus, addressing these issues is becoming urgent. Research in hospitality has confirmed that committed employees better serve the guests, are unlikely to quit, and contribute to sale growth (Bufquin et al., 2017; DiPietro et al., 2020; Redditt, Gregory, & Ro, 2019). Since both researchers (e.g., Brien, 2010; Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Madanoglu et al., 2004) and practitioners (e.g., Bock, 2015) have suggested that competent leadership is strongly related to employee commitment and low turnover, organizations desiring committed employees need to establish competent leadership and strategize leadership development (Lee & Ok, 2016; Meyer et al., 2002). These plans of action may be particularly important in the hospitality industry, where employee commitment is often undermined by working conditions, e.g., long working hours, shift work, and seasonality (Kusluvan et al., 2010; Tracey, 2014).

While the leadership literature presents little agreement on how to conceptualize and develop leadership (Barker, 1997; Turner & Baker, 2018), it does provide some guidelines on how to better develop leaders. First, developing leaders must be associated with the organizational context (Brownell, 2010; Cohen, 2019; Larsson, Holmberg, & Kempster, 2020; Probert & Turnbull, 2011). Second, it has been pointed out that leadership development content must concern “the motivation of followers” and “how to launch, maintain, and improve teams” (Kaiser & Curphy, 2013, p. 298). Third, and most importantly, the adopted leadership construct or model must display meaningful correlations with outcomes (Banks et al., 2018). Also, to

design an effective leadership development program, a sound supporting leadership theory or model must be identified first (Day et al., 2014; Mumford & Fried, 2014; Turner & Baker, 2018). Supporting theories or models can only be sound if they are useful for explanation, prediction, and practice; usually, better theories or models are more specific and multilevel (Klimoski, 1991; Turner & Baker, 2018).

This study examines the hospitality leadership competency model (HLCM), which is industry-focused, performable, usable-for-training, and appraisable (Chung-Herrera et al., 2003; Tas, 1988; Testa, 2001), is therefore very prospective to be supportive for leadership development. However, while this model has been applied in the industry (Assante et al., 2009), empirical testing it has been rare, especially its prediction on the outcomes (Swanson et al., 2020; Tavitiyaman et al., 2014). In addition, the literature investigating leadership and organizational commitment in developed countries is considerable but very few studies of this type have been done in developing countries (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016).

The present study fills in those two gaps by exploring how effective the HLCM is in predicting key outcomes such as leader effectiveness and organizational commitment. The study first explores the relationships between leadership competencies and those two outcomes. Next, the study investigates how the mediating effects of a dominant leadership competency on those two outcomes are moderated by team size as a contextual factor. Finally, since little is known about how hospitality leadership competencies are perceived by frontline employees, the voice from this neglected stakeholder group will add valuable evidence. The leader-subordinate relationship has been central and many leadership theories have revolved around the co-construction of leadership by both leaders and subordinates (Kark & Dijk, 2019);

hence, how to conceptualize and practice competent leadership should be consensual among leaders and their subordinates. If the HLCM, as until now solely constructed by hospitality managers and researchers, is not effective in mobilizing subordinates to do their jobs and commit themselves to their workplaces, it should be paused for a reconsideration.

Literature review and hypotheses

Unlike many other leadership theories with single or co-authorship, the HLCM has been gradually developed through years with the cumulative contributions of many researchers and practitioners. Following initial studies on leadership competencies in hospitality by Morris (1973) and Tas (1988), many studies have been conducted, mostly in Western culture, by examining the perception of hospitality managers on highly demanded competencies (Baum, 1988; Chung-Herrera et al., 2003; Kay & Russette, 2000; Tesone & Ricci, 2006).

A competency is a set of "observable and applied knowledge, skills and behaviors that create competitive advantage for an organization…it focuses on how an employee creates value and what is actually accomplished" (Nath & Raheja, 2001, p. 26). Competencies are, therefore, usable for training and measurable (Nath & Raheja, 2001). This definition reinforces the view of Morris (1973) and Tas (1988) that competencies are essential skills and activities to perform the duty of a job. Though the competency models, including the HLCM, appear relatively vague or only at the periphery in the leadership literature (Banks et al., 2018; Dinh et al., 2014; Meuser et al., 2016), this might imply only an inadequate research focus. In reality, the competency models have been widely used to appraise performance in big

corporations like Google and Cisco (Javad & Sumod, 2015) and continue to expand despite criticisms, such as lacking moral and emotional concerns (Bolden & Gosling, 2006). From the resources-based view of the firm, leadership competencies are the intangible assets acquired by the organization (Barney, 2001) and some competencies have been confirmed to have significant impacts on financial performance in the hospitality industry (Gursoy & Swanger, 2007). Thus, Dopson & Tas (2004) suggested hospitality schools to utilize competencies for curriculum development. However, Whetten (1989) noted earlier that the model can be ready for the classroom if the relationships in a model have been verified.

Since the number of competencies is large, Testa and Sipe (2012) neatly categorized them into three sets: business, people, and the self. Until recently, in their updated HLCM, Shum et al. (2018) identified fifteen competencies which are equally distributed into business, people, and personal factors. They argued that, with limited resources, developing personal and people competencies should be prioritized for managers at the frontline level, and it is these required competencies of frontline managers being investigated by this research. In *personal leadership,* Shum et al. (2018) identified five competencies: (1) acts ethically (2) demonstrates emotional intelligence, (3) values and promotes diversity, (4) maintains a proactive learning orientation, and (5) communicates effectively. In *people leadership*, they identified five competencies: (1) manages conflicts, (2) delegates effectively, (3) leads team effectively (4) coaches and develops subordinates, and (5) defines and achieves high performance. As a response to those above criticisms, ethical behaviors and team leadership were added; therefore, testing this updated model with those ten competencies may yield novel theoretical insights and practical implications.

The employment relationship is characterized by both economic exchange via a formal contract and social exchange via mutual expectations of behaviors (Aryee et al., 2002). Thus, beyond the obligations bound by the contract, employees perceiving positive behaviors of their managers are likely to respond with positive attitudes and behaviors (Haar & Spell, 2004). Research has found that employees working with more competent managers express higher organizational commitment (e.g., Gatling et al., 2016; Haque et al., 2019; Meyer et al., 2002; Patiar & Wang, 2016; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016), which is defined as “the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Porter et al., 1974, p. 604). Leadership has been further affirmed as an antecedent of organizational commitment in the hospitality context (e.g., Jang & Kandampully, 2018; Kim, Poulston, & Sankaran, 2017; Ozturk, Hancer, & Im, 2014). To engage employees, hotels may need to reconsider how they conceptualize competent managers (Brien, 2010). This is supported by a recent research of Swanson et al. (2020) who found of the effects of leadership competencies (e.g., managing change, communicating effectively, developing employees) on employee loyalty in the industry. Thus, it may be clear that the best way to enhance employee commitment is enacting competent leadership. Therefore, and because the number of competencies is large, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: Leadership competencies will be positively related to organizational commitment.

In the workplace, competent managers need to enact their leadership roles in a reliable and timely manner. However, from the performance-based theory of competence, Boyatzis (1993) raised a major concern about managers who possess

competencies but do not always demonstrate them; and this concern is line with the observations of Mintzberg (2004). Similarly, Antonakis et al. (2003) mentioned laissez-faire leadership as the dearth of leadership in which competent managers avoid taking necessary actions. Boyatzis (1993) further argued that managers can be more effective by consistently performing their competencies. This consistency helps managers not only to retain subordinates but also boost their commitment and, likely, get the results. Consequently, effective managers are regarded as those who can retain their subordinates and get results (Horstman, 2016). As such, possessing plus performing the required competencies is not strictly synonymous with effective leadership but is determinant of it (Boyatzis, 1993). It is, therefore, essential to know if managers behave consistently and with a result orientation, and hence, effectively, which is referred to as *leader effectiveness* in the current study. Because the concept of leader effectiveness is both complex and contested, as viewed in the literature (Bamel et al., 2015; Hamlin, 2005), this study adopts the construct and associated scale that best match with the above conceptualization of leader effectiveness, including two key factors: consistent behaviors and result commitment. We adopt the construct "managerial competence and consistency" of Rogg et al. (2001), which is referred to as "the degree to which managers were consistent in their treatment of employees and the articulation of organizational goals and policies" (p. 436).

From these arguments, to be effective leaders, a prerequisite is that managers must possess the required competencies. Since leadership competencies determine leader effectiveness, we propose that:

Hypothesis 2: Leadership competencies will be positively related to leader effectiveness.

Furthermore, Rogg et al. (2001) argued that organizations should enhance their climate factors such as managerial competence and consistency, cooperation, and communication because these factors will likely affect the attitudes and behaviors of employees, and ultimately, the effectiveness of organizations. Based on this argument, some studies have found that the construct leader effectiveness (i.e., managerial competence and consistency by Rogg et al. (2001)) shows strong relationships with employees' attitudes and behaviors such as work engagement, organizational citizenship behaviors, and psychological well-being (Kataria, Garg, & Rastogi, 2019; Kim, Kim, Newman, Ferris, & Perrewé, 2019). Prior studies have also found that leader effectiveness mediates the relationship between some leadership competencies, such as evaluating, motivating, and coordinating teamwork (Kaya, Koc, & Topcu, 2010), or styles such as servant leadership (Ozyilmaz & Cicek, 2015), and job satisfaction. Thus, these findings support the argument of Rogg et al. (2001) and direct us to propose that a specific leadership competency leads to leader effectiveness, which may, in turn, improve employees' attitudes and behaviors and this will apply to employees' organizational commitment. Therefore, it is possible that leader effectiveness, as perceived by employees, plays an intermediate role in the relationship between the leadership competency and organizational commitment. This discussion guides us in hypothesizing that:

Hypothesis 3: Leader effectiveness will mediate the relationship between a leadership competency and organizational commitment.

Methodology

Participants and samples

In 2019, we surveyed full-time, permanent frontline employees in upscale hotels in the tourist hubs of Vietnam, the cities of Hochiminh and Vungtau. We focused on those hotels because both hotel organizational structure and leadership competencies vary according to different hotel star ratings, for example, deluxe hotels require more attention to high quality standards (Tavitiyaman et al., 2014). From contacting with all potential hotels via their general managers or human resources managers, seven hotels (two large three-star, two four-star, and three five-star) permitted the distribution of an anonymous paper survey to their frontline employees. As a result, 236 usable surveys in sealed envelopes were collected (a response rate of about 43%), mostly from typical departments in hotels (i.e., Food and beverages, Housekeeping, and Front office). Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the participants.

Table 1. Sample Demographics

Variables		
Gender of employees		%
Male	85	(42.1)
Female	116	(57.4)
Other	1	(.5)
Age groups of employees		
Under 20 years	2	(9)
20 to 30 years	145	(61.7)
31 to 40 years	56	(23.8)
41 to 50 years	16	(6.8)
Over 50 years	16	(6.8)
Tenure of employees		
3 years and below	103	(44.2)
4 to 6 years	63	(27.0)
7 to 9 years	23	(9.9)
10 to 12 years	16	(6.9)
13 years and above	28	(12.0)
Departments		
Housekeeping	62	(26.3)
Front office	33	(14.0)
Food, beverages and recreation	62	(26.3)
Security or engineering	36	(15.3)
Others	43	(18.2)
Gender of managers		
Male	142	(60.2)
Female	92	(39.1)
Other	1	(.4)
Team size		
Under 5	33	(14.1)
6-10	35	(15.0)
11-15	38	(16.2)
16-20	48	(20.5)
Over 20	80	(34.2)
Hotel rating		
5-star	113	(47.9)
4-star	101	(42.8)
3-star	22	(9.3)

Measures

Leadership competencies

Although associated scales were not specified by Shum et al. (2018), all defined competencies have their own literature where scales can be found. We developed scales following a deductive scale approach (Hinkin et al., 1997) in which available items or validated scales in the literature can be used to operationalize the construct. Robinson (2018) also suggested that researchers are able to find an existing scale which best matches with the construct. In addition, using such validated items or scales, instead of self-developed ones, provides face validity (Crawford & Kelder, 2019). Because constructs and scales are abundant in the leadership literature (Banks et al., 2018), we were able to find 10 scales that matched with the 10 competencies defined by Shum et al. (2018). For example, team leadership has been thoroughly studied, and several validated scales are available (e.g., Kline, 2003; Northouse, 2016). Ethical leadership has also received much research attention with validated scales (e.g., Brown et al., 2005; Locke, 2003).

Leader effectiveness was measured with the scale by Rogg et al. (2001). Organizational commitment (affective) was measured with the 5-item scale by Meyer et al. (1993). To translate the original English scales into Vietnamese, we adopted the Brislin (1970) back-translation method. All the constructs, scales, reliabilities, and sample items are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Constructs, Scales, Item Samples, Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and Composite Reliability (CR)

Constructs and sources	**Sample items** Following the stem "My immediate supervisor/manager…"	**Average variance extracted (AVE)**	**Composite Reliability (CR)**
Ethical Behavior (Haar et al., 2019)	Makes fair and balanced decisions	.69	.87
Displays Emotional Intelligence (Law et al., 2004)	Has good control of their emotions	.65	.85
Values and Promotes Diversity (Shum et al., 2018)	Ensures that the workplace is free from discriminatory behavior and practices	.66	.85
Maintains a Proactive Learning Orientation (Kaya & Patton, 2011)	Sees learning new knowledge as a key skill	.68	.86
Communicates Effectively (Shum et al., 2018)	Clearly articulates a point of view	.66	.88
Manages Conflict (Alper et al., 2000)	Effectively manages conflicts among team members concerning work roles	.60	.88
Delegates Effectively (Schriesheim et al., 1998)	Gives me areas where I decide on my own, after first getting information from them	.64	.84
Leads Effective Teams (Northouse, 2016)	Looks for and acknowledges contributions by team members	.58	.84
Coaches and Develops Others (Ellinger et al., 2005)	Provides me with constructive feedback	.56	.84
Defines and Achieves High Performance (Ramaswami, 1996)	Can assess my job performance	.67	.89
Leader Effectiveness (Rogg et al., 2001)	Follows through on commitments	--	--
Affective Organizational Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)	This hotel has a great deal of personal meaning for me	--	--

Control variables

In the hospitality industry, and also in a turnover meta-analysis, gender, age, and tenure have been found to be related to organizational commitment (Becker & Tews, 2016; Lu et al., 2016). Therefore, these variables were measured and subsequently controlled for in all analyses. As leader effectiveness may be affected by the manager's age and gender, and by team size (i.e., number of subordinates managed by a manager, measured in groups), we measured and then included these control variables in the stepwise regression analysis with listwise option.

Control for Common Method Variance (CMV)

We controlled for CMV in both the design and the analysing phases as suggested by Min et al. (2016) and Podsakoff et al. (2003). In the survey, five and six-point Likert scales in blue and red were used to present the scores of independent variables (IVs) and dependent variables (DVs), respectively. To reduce potential CMV as suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003), we put a blank space and a transitional sentence between the IV section and the DV section as a psychological separation of measurement.

CMV Test

To check for potential CMV bias, we ran Harman's single factor test. A single factor with eigenvalues greater than 1 accounted for 39.8% variance in the dataset. Since this value is well below the threshold of 50% (Podsakoff et al., 2003), CMV bias might present but would not misdirect our interpretation of results. Moreover, because all competencies (i.e., IVs) are components of the latent leadership construct, high intercorrelations (or multicollinearity) among them were expected and therefore largely contributed to the detected variance.

Scale Validation

Using AMOS (version 25), we tested the construct validity of the leadership competency model (with 10 measurement scales) by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as suggested by Hinkin et al. (1997). The result would indicate if the model has a good fit to the sample.

We followed the goodness-of-fit suggestions in the literature (Hu & Bentler, 1998; Williams et al., 2009): (1) the comparative fit index (CFI $\geq$ 0.90), (2) the standardized root mean residual (SRMR $\leq$ 0.10), and (3) the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA $\leq$ 0.08). Hair et al. (2010) suggest that the model fit is good if all other rival models fit the data significantly poorer. After removing a few items with low factor loadings, the final model fitted the sample relatively well with χ^2 (549) = 939.9 (p= .000), CFI= .94, RMSEA= .05, and SRMR= .04 whereas rival models fitted the data poorer. These values confirmed the construct validity of the measurement model. Of all 10 constructs, the average variance extracted (AVE) values are above 0.5 and the composite reliabilities are above 0.7 (see Table 2), suggesting adequate convergence and good reliability, respectively (Hair et al., 2010).

Analysis

To test the hypotheses, we used SPSS (version 25) and the PROCESS macro (version 3.4, provided by Hayes (2018)). Because of multicollinearity, including all 10 leadership competencies together in a single regression equation may produce imprecise regression coefficients (Pedhazur, 1997). Therefore, we used stepwise regression procedure and all possible subsets regression approach (Kraha et al., 2012; Pedhazur, 1997) to obtain a smaller but meaningful number of competencies (i.e.,

predictors). We ran two models with leader effectiveness and organizational commitment each as the criterion. The control variables were included in all analyses.

Results

Table 3 presents descriptive statistics and correlational results. Overall, employees in the sample showed good commitment to their hotels (M= 4.41, SD= 1.09). All competencies were significantly and strongly correlated with organizational commitment (highest r= .38 for team leadership) and leader effectiveness (highest r= .79 also for team leadership). These correlational results support hypotheses 1 and 2 and provide evidence that all 10 competencies were likely to be strong, but rival predictors of both outcomes. Table 3 also shows that leader effectiveness had the strongest correlation with organizational commitment (r= .40). As a requirement for a mediated relationship is the mediator having the strongest relationship with the outcome (Holland, Shore, & Cortina, 2016), this correlation result suggests a mediation effect.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlations

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Gender																		
2. Age group	2.6	0.9	-.04	--														
3. Tenure	2.2	1.4	-.04	.76**														
4. Team size	3.5	1.4	-.03	.14*	.18**													
5. Ethical L.	4.2	0.8	-.09	.10	.01	.14*	(.86)											
6. Emotional L.	4.0	0.8	-.11	.11	.01	.12	.66**	(.85)										
7. Diversity	4.2	0.8	-.16*	.10	.01	.08	.75**	.73**	(.85)									
8. Learning	4.2	0.7	-.18*	.11	.01	.09	.61**	.65**	.70**	(.86)								
9. Comms	4.1	0.8	-.11	.08	-.03	.15*	.69**	.70**	.75**	.69**	(.88)							
10. Managing conflicts	4.2	0.7	-.06	.14*	.06	.18**	.60**	.58**	.66**	.58**	.67**	(.88)						
11. Delegation	3.9	0.9	-.06	.11	.00	.04	.39**	.40**	.49**	.42**	.47**	.44**	(.84)					
12. Team L.	4.1	0.8	-.12	.06	-.07	.10	.62**	.66**	.67**	.63**	.71**	.70**	.50**	(.84)				
13. Coaching	4.0	0.8	-.10	.06	-.06	.13	.59**	.63**	.64**	.62**	.67**	.68**	.47**	.74**	(.84)			
14. Performance	4.1	0.8	-.09	.05	-.02	.21	.54**	.59**	.58**	.56**	.58**	.67**	.39**	.71**	.67**	(.89)		
15. Leader Effectiveness	4.1	0.7	-.14	.19	.00	.17**	.62**	.61**	.66**	.62**	.68**	.72**	.46**	.79**	.72**	.75**	(.88)	
16. Org. Comm.	4.4	1.1	-.08	.07	.02	-.09	.33**	.28**	.33**	.24**	.33**	.21**	.31**	.38**	.30**	.30**	.40**	(.81)

N= 236; *: p<.05; **: p<.01; Cronbach's alpha=in bracket; M= mean; SD= standard deviation

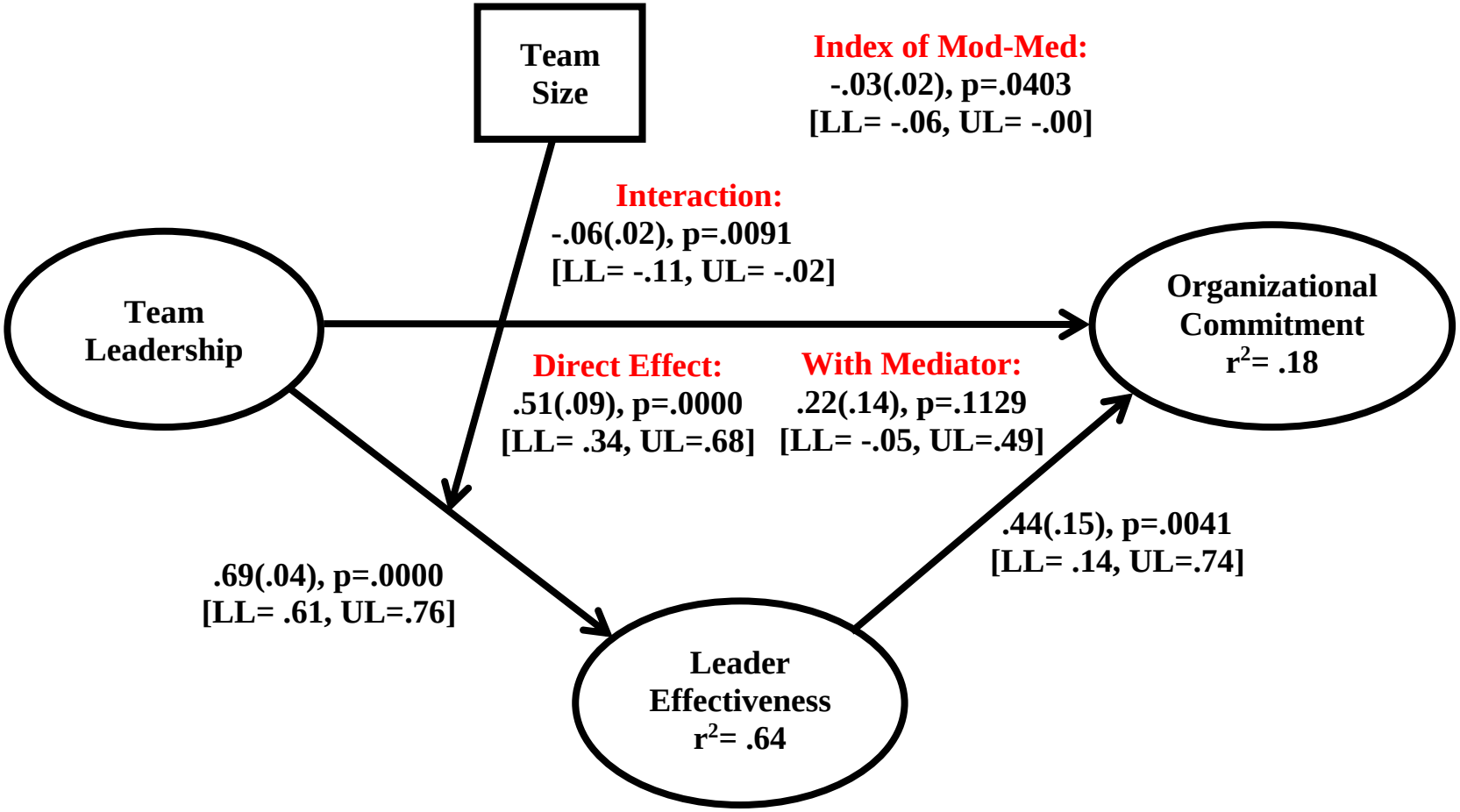
Using stepwise analysis, we found that leader effectiveness was best and significantly predicted by the set of predictors, involving (in strength order) team leadership, evaluation, conflict management, communication, and coaching. Team leadership and delegation, respectively, were the best predictors of organizational commitment. Consequently, team leadership, as the strongest predictor found in both regression models, was used to test the mediation model. Unstandardized coefficients and bootstrap confidence intervals (5,000 samples, 95% confidence) are reported with Confidence Intervals (CI) at Lower Limits (LL) and Upper Limits (UL).

Using model 4 of PROCESS, we tested the mediation effect of leader effectiveness. Team leadership was found to be directly and significantly related to organizational commitment (β= .51, p=.000 [LLCI= .34, ULCI= .68]). Being fully mediated by leader effectiveness with the effect of the mediated path (β= .30, [LLCI= .07, ULCI= .54]), the direct effect of team leadership on organizational commitment dropped to (β= .22, p= .11, [LLCI= -.05, ULCI= .49]), i.e., insignificant. The mediation model explained 17% of the variance in organizational commitment (R^2 = .17, $F_{(4,228)}$ = 11.9, p< .000) with insignificant and very slight effects from control variables, and 62% of the variance in leader effectiveness (R^2 = .62, $F_{(3,229)}$ = 125.5, p<.000). Since team leadership is only typical and other competencies did have similar but weaker effects, this mediating result may imply that leadership competencies, first and in a combined manner, contribute to shaping leader effectiveness, which subsequently influences organizational commitment. Hypothesis 3 is supported.

Concerning team leadership and leader effectiveness, Yukl (2013) proposed that leaders of larger team size may have less opportunity for coaching, recognizing, and supporting subordinates as well as maintaining effective relationships with them.

Thus, it seems that larger team size can neutralize the effect of team leadership on leader effectiveness. Therefore, beyond its role as a control variable, we further explored the moderation role of team size on the above-detected effect of team leadership on leader effectiveness. The results by model 7 of PROCESS are summarized and presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Study Model and Results



There was a small, but not hypothesized, interaction effect of team leadership and team size (β= -.06, p= .0091, [LLCI= -.11, ULCI= -.02]) on the mediated path from team leadership to leader effectiveness. This interaction effect accounted for 1.1% variance in leader effectiveness (R_{change} = .011, F_{change}= 6.9, p=.009). As Figure 2 illustrates, for small (i.e., low) team size, team leadership correlated more strongly to leader effectiveness (β= .78 at SD= -1, p< .000) whereas large (i.e., high) team size seemed to weaken their correlation (β= .59 at SD = +1, p< .000). Thus, the effect of team leadership on leader effectiveness was stronger if team size is small. Figure 3 further shows how the interaction effect between team leadership and team size indirectly affected organizational commitment as mediated by leader effectiveness. At larger team size, team leadership made a slightly weaker effect on leadership effectiveness, which in turn exerted a weaker effect on organizational commitment. This interaction effect weakened the conditional indirect effect of team leadership on organizational commitment through leader effectiveness by a small, negative moderated mediation index at (β= -.03, [LLCI= -.06, ULCI= -.00]). As estimated by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2012), interaction effects are unlikely to be detected with data affected by CMV. The interaction effect detected should ease the risk of severe CMV in the data. Overall, the model 7 explained 18% of the variance in organizational commitment and 64% of the variance in leader effectiveness, thus suggesting a small but meaningful improvement compared to the mediation model 4.

Figure 2. The Interaction Effect between Team Leadership and Team Size on Leader Effectiveness

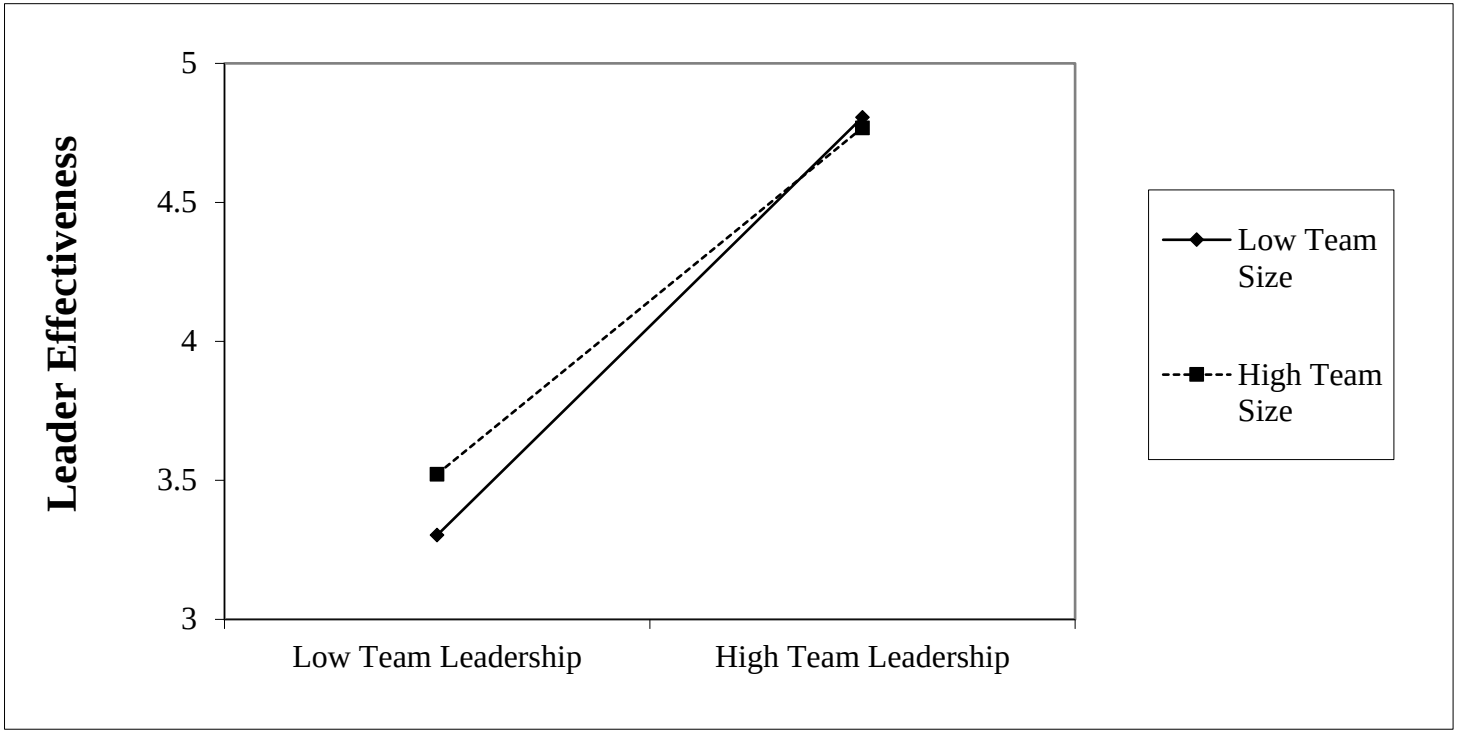
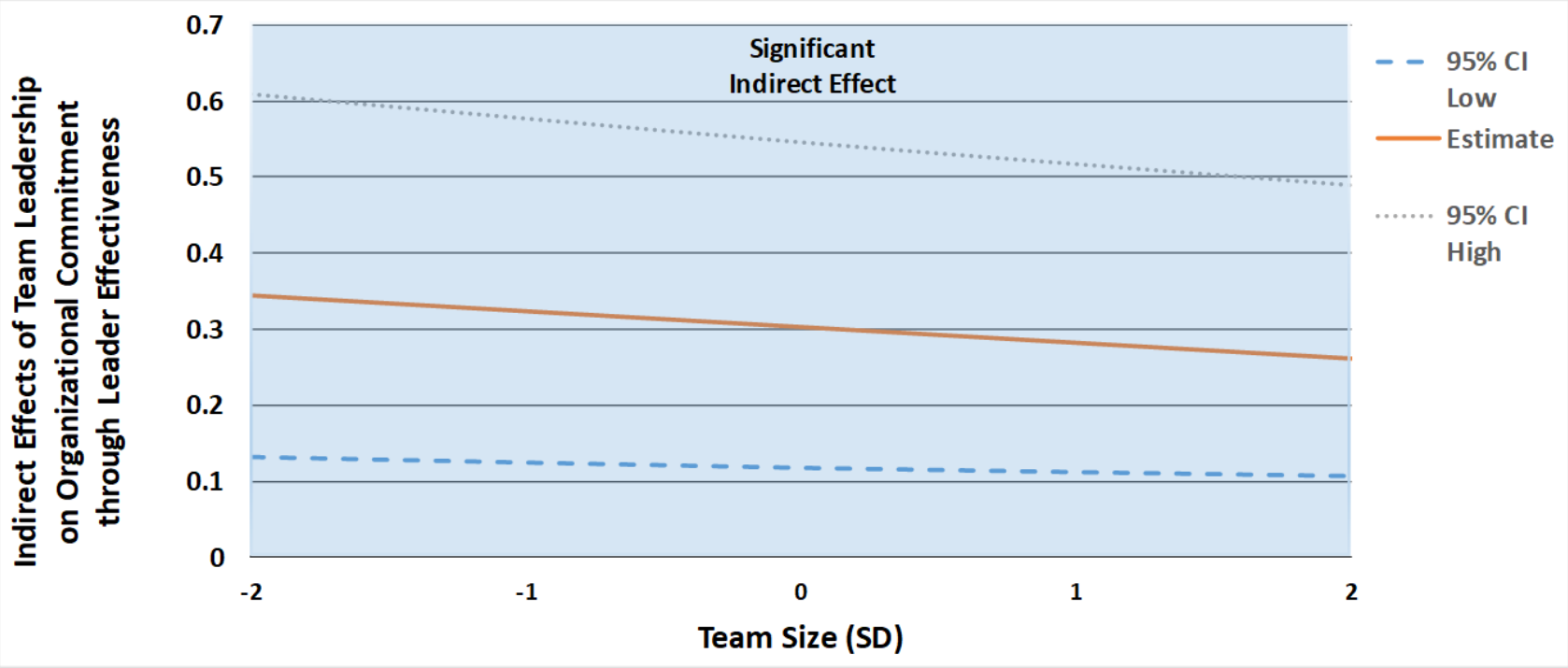


Figure 3. The Interaction Effect of Team Leadership and Team Size on Organizational Commitment through Leader Effectiveness



Discussions and implications

In this study, we confirmed the construct validity of the updated HLCM at the frontline level and then explored the relationships between hospitality leadership competencies and leader effectiveness and organizational commitment. The exploration was done at the correlational level for all competencies and at the mediation and moderation levels only for team leadership competency being the outstanding predictor. The results indicate that leader effectiveness fully mediated the relationship between team leadership and organizational commitment and that this mediated effect was slightly and negatively moderated by team size. The findings from this study contribute to extend the knowledge around the HLCM by establishing the construct validity of the HLCM at the frontline level and the relationships among leadership competencies and key outcomes such as leader effectiveness and organizational commitment. Overall, the results support all hypotheses and further implications as follows.

First, and in line with many studies on leadership and organizational commitment in developed countries (Haque et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2015; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016), our study adds more evidence that leadership is a central factor that enhances the commitment of employees toward their organizations. Notably, and testing the HLCM as modelled by Shum et al. (2018) for the first time, our study extends this line of research to a less studied context such as the hospitality industry in a developing country. This study complements the model features by showing the fresh evidence of its prediction on leader effectiveness and organizational commitment, especially in the context characterized by low commitment and high turnover. As such, the HLCM is not only industry-focused, performable, trainable, and

appraisable, but also helpful to predict such key outcomes as found by this study. Since the adoption of the model for leadership development is very potential, it should be commonly utilized with more confidence in both hospitality organizations and schools. Moreover, our research implies that, though the HLCM has been developed in developed countries, it could be applied successfully in developing countries such as Vietnam as well. The utilization of this common framework is critical to rejoin the industry, which demands leadership competencies, with hospitality academic research, which has been otherwise focused more on leadership styles (Maier, 2011). More importantly, future hospitality managers will benefit from being trained in leadership competencies that are explicitly required by the industry. Such leadership competencies can be best trained by, for example, practice-based methods whereby trainees can develop their constructions of reality through their experiences as well as their reflections on those experiences, and it is this learning-by-doing accelerates the rate of their mastery of skills (Lacerenza et al., 2017). Current managers can also improve their leadership competencies via self-training and practice since these competencies have been explicitly described.

Second, this study differs from prior research by identifying team leadership as the strongest predictor of both leader effectiveness and organizational commitment. Our study responds to the call for more research on leading team since, as Morgeson, DeRue, and Karam (2010) suggest, traditional leadership models may have failed to make the distinction between leader-team interactions and leader-subordinate interactions; and there are gaps in the knowledge of the unique interplay between leadership processes and teams. The findings support the suggestion of Shum et al. (2018) that, for frontline managers, developmental efforts should be put into people

leadership competencies. The results suggest that team-leading skills may be determinant to engage employees with their teams and ultimately, their organizations. Also, by integrating team leadership as a component, which emerged as a core one in our research, the HLCM of Shum et al. (2018) becomes more inclusive. Therefore, hospitality organizations may put more effort into training their frontline managers in team-leading skills while hospitality schools, especially in Vietnam, may consider training in team-leading skills for their management students. Other competencies of high importance, identified in this present study, such as evaluation, conflict management, communication, and coaching, could also be prioritized for training frontline managers.

Finally, this study reinforces the fact that team size, as a contextual factor, may influence leader effectiveness and final outcomes, and thus, confirms the above proposition of Yukl (2013) about team size. According to Cha, Kim, Lee, and Bachrach (2015), the contextual moderator role of team size has received minimal consideration in the leadership literature; therefore, their finding of the moderating role of team size on the association of transformational leadership - teamwork quality is substantive. Our research finding is in line with a few previous studies that found team size did play a moderating role in the transformational leadership process (Kim & Vandenberghe, 2017) and moderated the relationship of team leadership with team innovation (West et al., 2003) or team performance (O'connell, Doverspike, & Cober, 2002). Since leadership is enacted within a certain context (Bush, 2017; Oc, 2018), contextual factors such as team size must be considered to better explain the phenomenon and its operation, and thus to apply it smoothly in a specific industry

context (Luo et al., 2013). For example, when a work unit grows much larger, it may need to be separated into subgroups (Yukl, 2013).

Limitations and future research directions

Our study has some limitations which also imply more and better research for the future. The cross-sectional data hindered us from making a stronger claim on a causal path from team leadership through leader effectiveness to organizational commitment though some support for this underlying mechanism is present in the literature (e.g., Pearce & Herbik, 2004). However, our research made a meaningful probing exploration, and its positive results are persuasive for further research investigating objective, but confidential, outcomes such as guest satisfaction, productivity, or turnover rates. As with many competencies, the relatively small sample size also obstructed us from using a better technique of analysis such as SEM. Moreover, the 10 scales used in the study may not fully capture the 10 competencies identified by Shum et al. (2018), thus suggesting a refinement. With stronger support from hotels towards such a highly sensitive research topic, future research can achieve better and more accurate results.

Replicated but modified research can also be done with different staff (e.g., HR Directors and CEOs), in other hotel ratings (i.e., three-star and below) or types of accommodation (e.g., cruises), or in other service sectors such as travel or aviation. This research can be extended into other non-western countries to get insights such as whether or not the model of Shum et al. (2018) is further confirmed and applicable, or needs to be modified. Given the dynamics of both the industry and the model, adding new competencies into the model and justifying them, or identifying the potential

prevalence of other competencies (e.g., ethical leadership) in other contexts could be all fruitful research directions as well.

Conclusion

Running a hotel with uncommitted employees is undesirable but to some extent avoidable by developing leadership on a sound leadership model. The HLCM, which has industry-focused, multilevel, performable, trainable, appraisable features, and usable for prediction as found in this present study, emerges to be that one. These features strongly support the HLCM as being comparable to, if not better than, other leadership theories suggested to be used in the hospitality context (e.g., transformational-transactional leadership, servant leadership).

Importantly, this study attains for the first time the evidence that the HLCM could also be a valid model from the viewpoint of hospitality employees as central stakeholders in the leadership process, given that this model has long been built and validated by influential stakeholders such as researchers and managers. Also, by integrating a core competency such as team leadership, it could be further developed into a 'full range' leadership theory and deserves a better position in the leadership literature. With all available evidence, we suggest that both hospitality organizations and schools in Vietnam, or other countries, can utilize the HLCM as an alternative for better preparing hospitality managers. After all, the results imply that Vietnamese hospitality organizations may need to focus more on team leading skills to win the commitment of their employees.

CHAPTER 7

MANUSCRIPT 4

FAMILY SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISOR BEHAVIOURS AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS: TESTING A MULTIPLE MEDIATION MODEL IN THE NEW ZEALAND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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The manuscript uses New Zealand English and was reformatted to put tables and figures into their right places. To avoid multiple replications of references, all references in this manuscript are listed in the reference section which is shared among all chapters.

Introduction

In 2016, the New Zealand travel and tourism industry generated about 9% of the total jobs and contributed more than 5% directly and 17% in total effects into New Zealand's GDP (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018). To ensure this major job creator and economic engine operates smoothly and effectively, the retention of employees is critical. Consistently, New Zealand hospitality suffers from high turnover rates (Brien, 2004; Poulston, 2008; Williamson et al., 2012). For example, the yearly turnover rates between 2000 and 2010 of a New Zealand hotel group fluctuated between 40-80 percent, whereas those rates of the whole country were just below 18% (Williamson et al., 2012). Worldwide, a high turnover rate is a serious concern and topic of frequent research (e.g., Davidson et al., 2010; Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Kang et al., 2018).

The cost of employee turnover can vary widely (75-200% of salary, Cascio & Boudreau, 2008), and these costs relate to lagging performance as an employee considers leaving, and when they have left, the cost to recruit and select a new hire, and then train them up to the original employee's productivity level. This takes time and can be expensive. Given the potential costs within the New Zealand hospitality sector, the present study suggests examining the role of leadership. Does having a good supervisor make employees want to stay? The oft quoted 'people don't leave jobs; they leave managers' needs closer examination in the New Zealand hospitality context to better understand the role that supervisors play in managing their employees and helping retain them.

Among the many predictors of actual employee turnover, turnover intention remains the best one (Griffeth et al., 2000; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Turnover intention

has been referred to as one's behavioural attitude to leave an organisation (Aydogdu & Asikgil, 2011) or "a set to which thinking of quitting and intent to search for alternative employment also belong" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). Consequently, Akgunduz and Sanli (2017) suggest it should be predicted and released at early stages in the hospitality sector to minimise the potential damage. Bock (2015) states that "manager quality was the single best predictor of whether employees would stay or leave, supporting the adage that people don't quit companies, they quit bad managers" (Bock, 2015, p. 193). Whether this holds in the New Zealand hospitality context needs testing.

The importance of managers on employee retention has also been supported in the hospitality sector (Thomas et al., 2017), where a large number of minimum-wage or low-paid workers are working. Mooney, Ryan and Harris (2017) suggest that some entry-level hotel jobs (e.g., room attendant) are considered straightforward and thus low paid. Despite this, there are still costs associated when performance lags and when an employee is ultimately replaced, with additional factors being a loss of institutional knowledge (processes, customers) for skilled workers, which can have financial impacts on organisations. High turnover rates are not only very costly for the hospitality sector but also detrimental to employee morale, service quality, efficiency and ultimately productivity and profitability (Davidson & Wang, 2011; Hinkin & Tracey, 2000). Fundamentally, training a new employee to the hospitality sector in the processes, approaches and way that work is done, to only have them subsequently leave the job, is not only detrimental to co-worker morale, but also potentially destructive to service performance.

Consequently, retaining qualified staff is crucial and an issue confronting hospitality managers worldwide (Enz, 2009). Since other natural causes of turnover such as seasonality or shift-work will not be easily resolved in the tourism industry, managing workers properly may be an appropriate strategy to decrease turnover intentions. The present study examines whether good management practice through FSSB could be one important strategic choice in the New Zealand context. We then test the potential mediating effects of important job attitudes and show a process model whereby leadership shapes worker attitudes, and it is this that ultimately enhances employee retention. By understanding the factors that help shape employee retention in the hospitality sector, it is hoped that employers will be better able to shape the working lives and experiences of their employees.

Literature review

Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviours (FSSB)

The predictors of turnover intentions are multiple and diverse. Typical predictors include organisation related factors (employee loyalty, enthusiasm, commitment, and justice experiences); job related factors (earnings, security, stimulation, satisfaction, work hours, work stressors); as well as work and family issues (Chen & Wu, 2017; Gatling et al., 2016; Mohsin et al., 2015; Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). Furthermore, leadership and the behaviour of supervisors has been found to be an important predictor (Davidson & Wang, 2011; Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Qiu et al., 2015). In their meta-analysis of turnover intentions, Griffeth et al. (2000) reported that satisfaction with supervisor had a significant effect on reducing turnover intentions. In their meta-analysis of ethical leadership, Bedi, Alpaslan, and Green (2016) found ethical

leadership had a very strong and negative influence on turnover intentions. Given the strong linkages between turnover and both leadership and work-family issues noted above, the present study asserts that supervisors who better manage work-family issues are likely to influence turnover intentions.

FSSBs are defined by Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman and Daniels (2007) as those supervisor behaviours that provide support for subordinates' family commitments, and inherently in this, provides flexibility in order to manage family issues and demands. Mills, Matthews, Henning, and Woo (2014) argued that examining this approach to work-family issues is important, because irrespective of whether an organisation does have or not have policies for managing work-family issues, "it does not mean that employees will not view the company as work-family supportive" (p. 1765). Thus, an organisation can have no formal policies but be viewed as having highly supportive supervisors towards work-family issues (high FSSB). Conversely, an organisation with many work-family policies can be rated as having poor FSSBs if supervisors do not allow such policies to be actualised in practice. While clearly a complex relationship, the linkages to turnover intentions have clear theoretical links, which are detailed below.

In the New Zealand hospitality industry, the lowest job levels are dominated by females, thus child caring becomes a challenge of their careers to a greater extent than those faced by their male colleagues (Mooney et al., 2017). While work-life balance (Haar, 2013) has been identified as a priority for such workers, there is a lack of a formal policies around work and family from the hospitality sector, particularly one that assists working mothers (Mooney & Ryan, 2009). Consequently, to help retain subordinates and especially new comers in the sector, hospitality managers should

actively support their psychological and learning needs (Mooney et al., 2016). The informal discretion of supervisors to support employees balancing work and family has actually been recognised in other workplaces (Hammer et al., 2009). Wide adoption of these supportive behaviours in the hospitality sector, could potentially have beneficial effects regarding the retention of subordinates despite challenging working conditions (24 hour/7 days/week nature of the sector).

Supportive supervisors are those who empathize with their subordinates' efforts to balance between work and family responsibilities (Thomas & Ganster, 1995) and Hammer et al. (2009) found FSSB were negatively related to turnover intentions. Similarly, Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, and Crain (2013) found FSSB were significantly and negative related to employee turnover intentions in two samples. In the New Zealand context, Haar and Roche (2008) found FSSBs were also negatively related to turnover intentions, highlighting the potential within a New Zealand context. Theoretically, this effect is explained by social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Blau (1964) stated that social exchange theory "refers to voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others" (p. 91).

Social exchange theory "is among the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behavior" (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 874) and fundamentally posits that when an employer provides a valued benefit (like supportive behaviours for work-family issues) then employees feel a felt obligations to reciprocate with enhanced attitudes and behaviours (Haar & Spell, 2004). Hence, those who feel their supervisor is supportive of their family issues are likely to reciprocate with lower turnover intentions. Straub (2012) proposed that FSSB positively affects

employees' well-being and other critical employee's outcomes including turnover intentions. Theoretically, a supervisor perceived as helping an employee balance their work and family roles is likely to elicit a psychological obligation from these actions (Haar & Spell, 2004), which would see employees reciprocate with stronger attitudes and behaviours including around staying in their job. For example, an employee thinks 'I am treated so well by my supervisor, I really can't leave them!'.

Given the wide body of support for FSSB on turnover intentions and other work outcomes (Bagger & Li, 2014; Hammer et al., 2013; Wang, Walumbwa, Wang, & Aryee, 2013; Yragui, Demsky, Hammer, Dyck, & Neradilek, 2013) we suggest that hospitality workers who rate their supervisors as being more supportive of work-family issues (high FSSB) will respond with lower turnover intentions. We posit the following.

Hypothesis 1: FSSB will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Mediators: Job attitudes

Beyond the influence of FSSB on turnover intentions, we also explore two job attitudes (organisational trust and job satisfaction) as potential mediators, as these attitudes are also likely to be positively influenced by FSSB under social exchange theory. Including these in the model between FSSB and turnover intentions might also provide a clearer understanding of the process (or pathway) by which FSSB influence turnover intentions.

Trust has been conceptualised in many ways (Nyhan & Marlowe, 1997), for example, as a person's expectations, assumptions or beliefs in the favourable, beneficial and unharmful behaviours of another person or an organisation, and thus

trust is central in relationships and guides behaviours between parties (Robinson, 1996). Since an employee engages with potential multiple parties at the workplace, different forms of employee trust exists, including towards peers, direct managers, CEOs, and the organisation as a whole (Costigan, Insinga, Berman, Kranas, & Kureshov, 2011). We focus on the broader organisational trust (instead of supervisor trust) as this captures a more global contextual factor of trust for our model. While theoretically, FSSB will shape organisational trust it also allows for other organisational elements influencing trust beyond the supervisor to be captured. Indeed, organisational trust has been found to be a better predictor of turnover intentions than manager trust (Costigan et al., 2011).

Job satisfaction has been defined as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (Locke, 1969, p. 316). Importantly, job satisfaction is the result of an interaction between the employee and the working environment (Locke, 1970) and this includes the supervisor (Haar & Roche, 2008). Under social exchange theory, FSSB is likely to influence these job attitudes. Thus, a supervisor whose behaviours are supporting for family emergencies as well as regular family issues, is likely to see subordinates react with more positive job attitudes: they will like their job more and view their organisation as a more trusting entity.

The links between FSSB and job satisfaction are well supported, with Hammer et al. (2009) reporting a strong positive relationship between FSSB and job satisfaction, and Hammer et al. (2013) finding a strong positive relationship in two samples. In the hospitality sector, Kong (2013) found that work-family supportive supervision was associated strongly to job satisfaction. While the linkages to job

satisfaction are well established, the linkages with organisational trust are under explored. However, the links between organisational trust and job satisfaction have been shown to be highly related (e.g., Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Armstrong-Stassen, 2001) and thus we expect similar effects between FSSB and both job satisfaction and organisational trust. Theoretically, employees can extend their reciprocity beyond themselves (and their job satisfaction) towards the organisation as a whole (here trust), and there is meta-analytic support for such relationships under social exchange theory (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Consequently, we hypothesise a direct effect from FSSB on organisational trust and expect hospitality workings with higher FSSB to report stronger job satisfaction and organisational trust.

Hypothesis 2: FSSB will be positively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: FSSB will be positively related to organisational trust.

Furthermore, both these job outcomes are linked directly with lower turnover intentions. Job satisfaction has been found to be a strong determinant of turnover intentions in general contexts (e.g., Griffeth et al., 2000; Jackofsky, 1984; Jin, McDonald, & Park, 2018; Price, 2001; Steel & Lounsbury, 2009; Tett & Meyer, 1993). In the hospitality industry, job dissatisfaction is among a large number of reasons for hospitality employees to leave (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). Ultimately, job satisfaction has empirically been found to have a strong and negative effect on turnover intentions (Choi, 2006; Jang & George, 2012; Kang et al., 2015; Mohsin et al., 2013; Pang, Kucukusta, & Chan, 2015). Similarly, organisational trust has been found to be negatively related to turnover (Aryee et al., 2002; Hopkins & Weathington, 2006; Robinson, 1996; Rodwell, McWilliams, & Gulyas, 2017). Ultimately, an employee

who feels greater trust to their organisation and greater satisfaction in their work are likely to reciprocate with lower turnover intentions under social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Here, employees with higher attitudes around job satisfaction and organisational trust feel obligated to stay and reciprocate the trust and enjoyment from their organisation and job. We posit the following.

Hypothesis 4: Organisational trust will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5: Job Satisfaction will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Beyond these direct effects, we also suggest these job attitudes will mediate the influence of FSSB on turnover intentions. Costigan et al. (2011) found trust towards the organisations was more powerful in predicting turnover intentions than attitudes towards the supervisor, which aligns with Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) who argue the under social exchange theory, the supervisor is seen as the immediate representative of the organisation, and thus the organisation has the greater strength of influence. Importantly, it is likely that job quitters engage in a series of leaving decisions and behaviours during the turnover process (Griffeth et al., 2000). From a sample of social workers in South Korea, Cho and Song (2017) found that organisational trust mediated the relationship between supervisory support and turnover intentions. Kossek et al. (2018) found that employees reporting higher levels of FSSB at Time 1 showed significantly higher job satisfaction and significantly lower intentions to turnover at Time 2.

Recently and from a social exchange approach, Paillé, Bourdeau, and Galois (2010) found that the relationship between employees' trust and intentions to leave was mediated by their satisfaction. Indeed, researchers have found that organisational

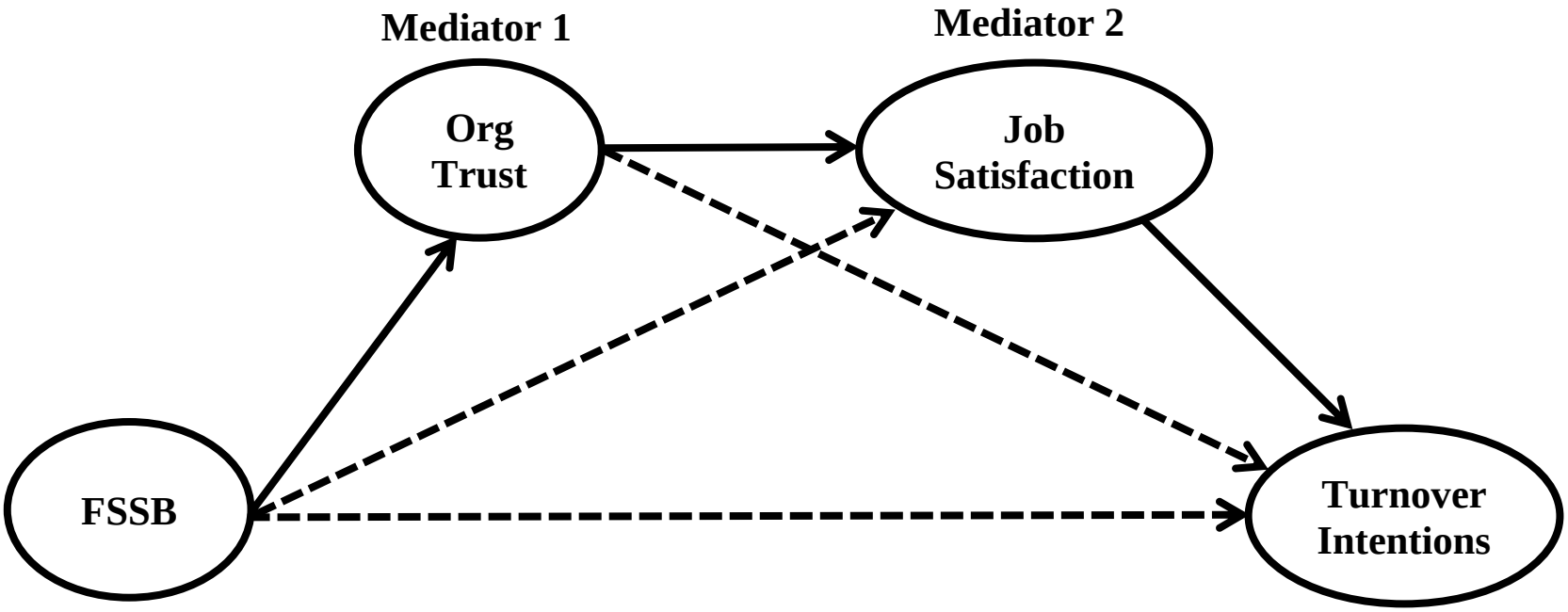
trust shapes job satisfaction (Aryee et al., 2002). Aryee et al. (2002) argued that under social exchange relationships, factors like support shape trust, which in turn influences job satisfaction. Thus, we not only suggest a mediating effect from organisational trust and job satisfaction, but also a process or pathway of influence, whereby FSSB influences organisational trust, which positively influences job satisfaction, which then negatively influences turnover intentions. This leads to our last hypotheses.

Hypothesis 6: Organisational trust and job satisfaction will mediate the influence of FSSB on turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 7: Organisational trust will be positively related to job satisfaction, and job satisfaction will mediate the influence of organisational trust on turnover intentions.

Our study model is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Study Model



Note: dotted line = expected mediated effect

Method

Participants and Sample

Using the Qualtrics survey platform, we recruited participants who are hospitality employees in New Zealand. To participate in the research, they had to be at least 18 years of age and work a minimum 20 hours a week. Participation is totally voluntary, anonymous and confidential. Qualtrics also removes respondents who answer too fast or slow to ensure quality responses. These conditions assure that respondents will likely provide honest answers (Chang et al., 2010). This approach to data collection is becoming more common (e.g., Haar et al., 2019) and a recent meta-analysis (Walter, Seibert, Goering, & O'Boyle, 2019) compared panel data with conventionally sourced data and stated that online panel data had "similar psychometric properties and produces criterion validities that generally fall within the credibility intervals of existing meta-analytic results from conventionally sourced data" (p. 425). Overall, in the sample of 149, more participants were female (65%) and this corresponded with the domination of females in the hospitality workforce (Mooney et al., 2017). The ages of respondents ranged between 18 and 72 (Mean 42.6, SD = 14.2) and nearly two-thirds (65%) of them had partners. On average, respondents worked 35.6 ho4 5670urs per week (SD= 9.1) and by education, 34.2% of them had a high school education, 26.8% had a Polytechnic qualification, and 38.9% had a university degree or above. By firm size, 56.4% of the respondents worked in businesses having less than 100 employees, 22.1% of them worked in 101-500-employee businesses and the rest 21.5% respondents worked in businesses with more than 501 employees.

Measures

FSSB was measured using the 4-item short-form of FSSB which was validated and tested in previous studies (Hammer et al., 2013), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. A sample item is "My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him/her about my conflicts between work and non-work" (α= .93).

Organisational Trust was measured using four items developed by Robinson (1996), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. This has been used in some studies in hospitality (Ariyabuddhiphongs & Kahn, 2017). A sample item is "I believe my employer has high integrity" (α= .86).

Job Satisfaction was measured by the short 3-item scale by (Judge et al., 2005), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. This is based on the original longer scale by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). It has been well validated in New Zealand (e.g., Haar, 2013; Haar et al., 2019). A sample item is "Most days I am enthusiastic about my work" (α= .90).

Turnover Intentions was measured using the 4-item scale by Kelloway et al. (1999), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. This scale has been validated in New Zealand (Haar, Roche, & Taylor, 2012). A sample item is "I am thinking about leaving my organisation" (α= .93).

Control variables

We controlled for factors that are likely to influence turnover intentions beyond our independent variables, based on the meta-analysis by Griffeth et al. (2000): Age (in years), Gender (1=female, 0=male), and Education (1=high school, 2=polytechnic, 3=university degree, 4=postgraduate qualification). Specifically within the hospitality

sector, there is support for controlling for age and gender (Lu et al., 2016) and education (Chen, Friedman, & Simons, 2014). Furthermore, given our sample is slightly older and more educated than might be expected and possibly reflects that some workers see the hospitality sector as a serious career, controlling for age and education on turnover intentions can aid our analyses of our hypothesised effects. While firm size is not always included in the literature, we also controlled for it here (coded 1=up to100 employees, 2=101-500-employees, 3=501+ employees). We suggest larger sized hospitality organisations might have more opportunities for employees encouraging them to stay.

Measurement Model

Confirmation of the separate dimensions of the study constructs involved conducting a CFA in SEM using AMOS v.25. Williams et al. (2009) recommend the following goodness-of-fit measures to assess fit of the data to the hypothesised models: (1) the comparative fit index (CFI $\geq$ 0.95), (2) the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA $\leq$ 0.08), and (3) the standardised root mean residual (SRMR $\leq$ 0.10). The hypothesised measurement model fit the data best: $\chi 2$(df)= 118.8 (84), CFI=.98, RMSEA=.05, and SRMR=.04, with the two alternative measurement models resulting in poorer fit, both $p < .001$ (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Analyses are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	Model Fit Indices					Model Differences			
Model	**χ^2**	**df**	**CFI**	**RMSEA**	**SRMR**	**$\Delta\chi^2$**	**Δdf**	**p**	**Details**
Model 1	118.8	84	.98	.05	.04				
Model 2	365.6	87	.84	.15	.13	246.8	3	.001	Model 1 to 2
Model 3	335.6	87	.86	.14	.11	216.8	3	.001	Model 1 to 3

Model 1= Hypothesised 4-factor model: FSSB, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intentions.
Model 2= Alternative 3-factor model: FSSB and job satisfaction combined, organisational commitment, and turnover intentions.
Model 3= Alternative 3-factor model: FSSB and organisational trust combined, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions.

Common Method Variance Test

Given our data is cross-sectional, (Podsakoff et al., 2003) suggests this raises potential for issues around common method variance (CMV). Haar, Russo, Sune, and Ollier-Malaterre (2014) noted that CFA in SEM can aid the confidence in constructs and their unique nature, and thus reduces fears of CMV. As a post-hoc test of CMV, Podsakoff et al. (2003) suggests the Lindell and Whitney (2001) procedure. This is where a partial correlation is conducted, controlling for a construct unrelated to the study model. We controlled for happiness (1-item measure by Bakker, Demerouti, Oerlemans, & Sonnentag, 2013) and the analysis showed no change on the strength of correlations, which according to Haar and Spell (2009) suggests that CMV is not an issue.

Analysis

Hypotheses were tested using SPSS version 25 and the PROCESS macro (version 3.1) by Hayes (2018a). We used Model 6 because this approach allows the testing of two mediators in a pathway. In all analyses, models included the control variable (age, gender and education), with FSSB as the independent variable. Organisational trust is entered as mediator number 1 and job satisfaction as mediator number 2. Turnover intentions is the dependent variable. As suggested by Field (2018) and Hayes (2018a), unstandardised coefficients and bootstrap confidence intervals (5,000 resamples, 95% confidence) are reported.

Results

Descriptive statistics for all the study variables are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age	42.62	14.20	--						
2. Education	2.15	1.02	-.10	--					
3. Firm Size	1.65	.81	.02	-.02	--				
4. FSSB	3.35	1.02	-.08	.07	.04	--			
5. Organisational Trust	3.30	.97	.12	-.00	-.12	.57**	--		
6. Job Satisfaction	3.41	.97	.11	-.03	-.07	.45**	.52**	--	
7. Turnover Intentions	2.84	1.24	-.29**	.23**	.07	-.35**	-.57**	-.51**	--

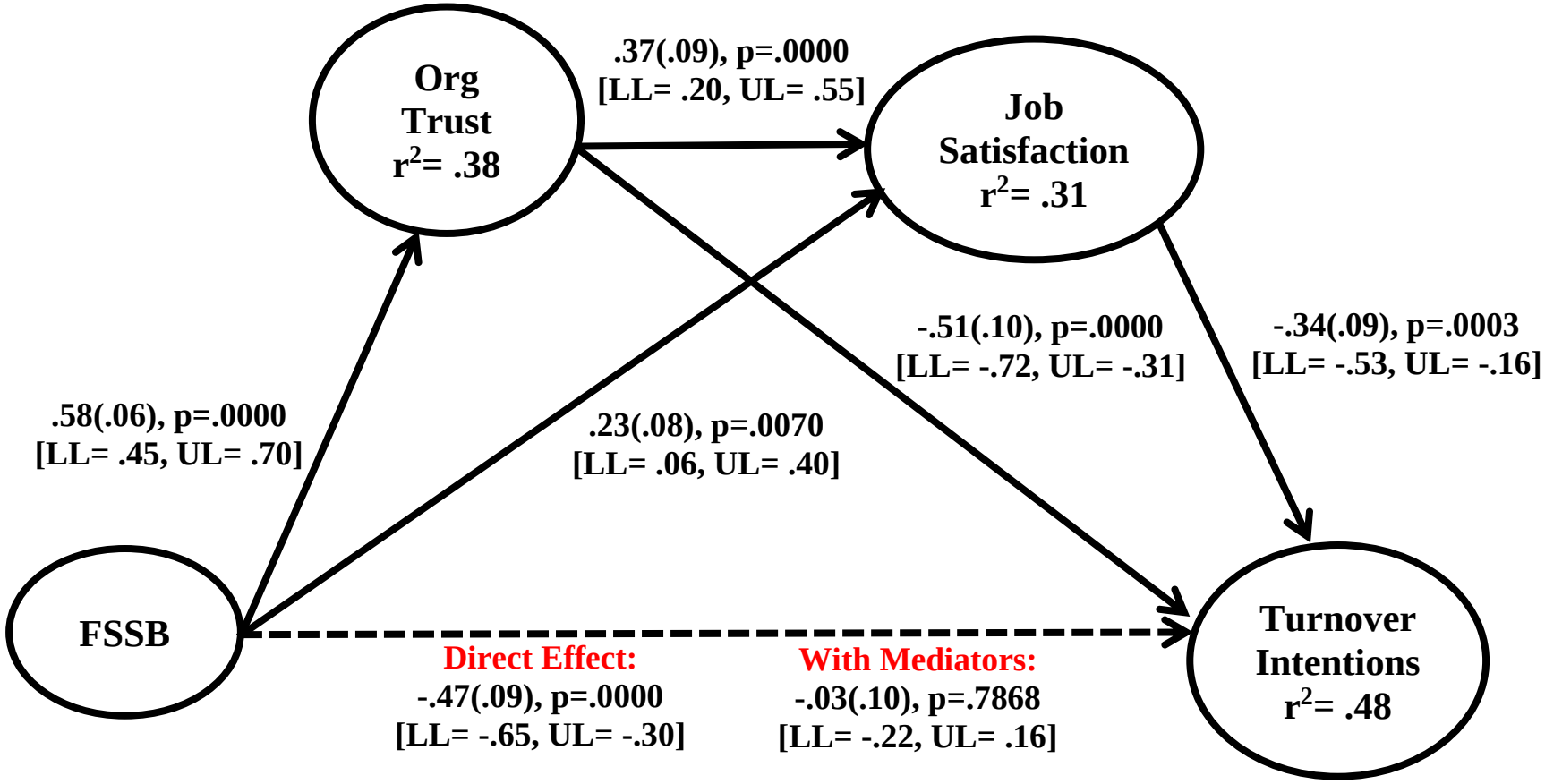
N=149, *p<.05, **p<.01.

From Table 2, it can be seen that the overall mean score for turnover intentions is 2.8 (SD= 1.2), which reflects on average that respondents have leave intentions near the mid-point of 3.0, which is high by traditional turnover intentions (e.g., Haar et al., 2012). This figure aligns with the lower end of Williamson et al. (2012) turnover rate (40-80%), but that data does reflect a single hotel group, and our sample is of the broader hospitality sector. Still, this suggests the overall sample is relatively equivalent to what might be expected. With respect to the correlations, Table 2 shows that age is significantly correlated to turnover intentions ($r= -.29$, $p< .01$), as is education ($r= .23$, $p< .01$), FSSB ($r= -.35$, $p< .01$), organisational trust ($r= -.57$, $p< .01$) and job satisfaction ($r= -.51$, $p< .01$). FSSB is significantly correlated to organisational trust ($r= .57$, $p< .01$) and job satisfaction ($r= .45$, $p< .01$), with these two constructs significantly correlated with each other ($r= .52$, $p< .01$).

Results of the regression analyses for Hypotheses 1 to 7 are shown in Figure 2.

Regarding the direct effects, Figure 2 shows that FSSB is significantly related to turnover intentions (β= -.47(.09), p= .0000 [LL= -.65, UL= -.30]), as well as organisational trust (β= .58(.06), p= .0000 [LL= .45, UL= .70]) and job satisfaction (β= .23(.08), p= .0070 [LL= .06, UL= .40]), supporting Hypotheses 1 to 3. In addition, towards turnover intentions both organisational trust (β= -.51(.10), p= .0000 [LL= -.72, UL= -.31]) and job satisfaction (β= -.34(.09), p= .0003 [LL= -.53, UL= -.16]) are significantly related supporting Hypotheses 4 and 5. Consequently, we find consistent support for the direct effects from our constructs.

Figure 2. Study Results



Our final hypotheses examined potential mediation effects. Hypothesis 6 suggested these job attitudes would mediate the influence of FSSB on turnover intentions and evidence was found, with full mediation effects, with FSSB dropping to (β= -.03(.10), p= .7868 [LL= -.22, UL= .16]). Thus, Hypothesis 6 is supported. Finally, organisational trust was positively related to job satisfaction (β= .37(.09), p= .0000 [LL= .20, UL= .55]) and the PROCESS indirect effects analysis shows that the relationship between organisational trust on turnover intentions is accounted for by job satisfaction in a significant amount (β= -.18(.07), p= .0032 [LL= -.33, UL= -.07]). Hence, job satisfaction partially mediates the influence of organisational trust on turnover intentions although organisational trust retains a significant indirect effect, which supports Hypothesis 7.

Finally, from the control variables, age is significantly related to turnover intentions (β= -.02(.01), p= .0065 [LL= -.03, UL= -.00]) as is education (β= .26(.07), p= .0006 [LL= .12, UL= .41]). However, gender and firm size are not significantly related. Overall, the models accounted for robust amounts of variance including 38% variance towards organisational trust and 31% to job satisfaction, with a large 48% for turnover intentions.

Supplementary analysis

Given the importance of age, we conducted post-hoc analysis and performed an ANOVA on turnover intentions by age, grouped as 1=30 years and under, 2=31-40 years, 3=41-50 years, and 4=51+ years. Following Haar et al. (2014) we used the Student–Newman–Keuls (SNK) because it is "a sequential test designed to indicate which groups are significantly different from all the others. It orders mean scores from the lowest to the highest and compares pairs of groups for significant differences" (p.

368). The F-test=5.644 (p=.001) showed significant differences by age, which the SNK revealed as the highest turnover intentions was the youngest group (M=3.42, SD=1.1), which was significantly higher than all other groups (p< .05), followed by the next age group (31-40 years) at M=3.05 (SD=1.1), which was significantly higher than the 41-50 year old group (M=2.54, SD=1.4) and the 51+ age group (M=2.43, SD=1.2). We also explored ANOVA on the mediators but both organisational trust (F= .394, p=.757) and job satisfaction (F=.378, p=.769) did not differ by age.

Although not specifically hypothesised, we also explored whether the effects found here differed across age bands, education, marital status and firm size (all separately as moderators) and these effects were all not significant. Hence, while some demographic variables are directly important (e.g., age and education), these plays a significant direct effect on outcomes only, and the influence of FSSB and the mediators are consistent across the sample by these variables on turnover intentions.

Discussion

High turnover rates in the New Zealand hospitality industry demand a strategic choice and examining specific solutions. Turnover rates are likely to be high, with Williamson et al. (2012) reporting a turnover rate of 40-80% in a single hotel chain. The present study found turnover intentions at roughly the 50% mark, indicating our sample is within a similar range. As such, our model becomes especially relevant and useful as it taps into a cohort who are not cemented to their current employment. In addition, our post hoc analysis of turnover and age revealed that younger employees (especially the 30 and under group) had the highest turnover intentions at roughly 64%. Thus, our findings suggest our sample is slightly at the lower scope of the typical hospitality high turnover rates because we have a sample with older employees. We

did explore (results not shown) age bands as a moderator and these effects were not significant. Hence, while age clearly plays a significant direct effect on turnover intentions, the influence of FSSB and the mediators are consistent across the sample by age. Thus, a good supervisor matters and that is irrespective of employee age.

The present study proposed that a supportive supervision such as FSSB is effective in building a coherent team with engaging members, given the hospitality sector is dominated by females (Mooney et al., 2017). Under social exchange theory, is was expected that employees who receive greater support for family issues would reciprocate with superior job attitudes and behaviours, including higher organisational trust and job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions. Theoretically, the links between supervisor support and employee attitudes and behaviours has strong support (Kurtessis et al., 2017) although these aspects are underexplored in the hospitality sector and within New Zealand generally. Interestingly, even in a sector where high turnover is the norm, hospitality employees were found to respond positively to a supervisor looking out for their work and family roles and our findings provides strong support for FSSB as a key mechanism to enhance employee retention in this sector. Thus, social exchange theory effects around turnover hold even in highly volatile sectors. Overall, we proposed a model whereby the relationship between FSSB and turnover intentions would be mediated by organisational trust and job satisfaction, and this was highly supported.

We found that FSSB was strongly and negatively related to turnover intentions but was also strongly and positively related to organisational trust and job satisfaction, and it was these job attitudes that ultimately predicted turnover intentions and accounted for all the direct effect of FSSB. Hence, responses to positive treatment by an individual (respondents' supervisor) triggers felt obligations and reciprocity

towards attitudes and behaviours, including targeting the organisation overall (trust). Theoretically, this links with Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) who argue the supervisor is seen as the immediate representative of the organisation, and hence why FSSB can influence perceptions around the organisation as a whole (its trustworthiness). While we found FSSB to be important, the overall average score (M=3.35) is significantly lower than other New Zealand studies of similar constructs in different settings. For example, Haar (2006) found a mean score of 3.9 in a sample from a Government department, and Haar and Roche (2008) reported a mean score of 3.6 from an employee sample across a range of New Zealand employers. Given the high standard deviation found here (SD=1.02) this suggests that while there is great variability in the hotel sector of New Zealand around FSSB, it is likely to be more limited in strength than other New Zealand workplaces and provides an important area for development and leadership training.

The results add more evidence to the FSSB literature (Hammer and colleagues), and specifically the pathway of influence towards employee retention, which is best understood as support perceptions from the supervisor shaping attitudes towards the organisation (trust) and the job (satisfaction) which ultimately influence job behaviours (turnover). This also reflects that potential job quitters tend to make a complex evaluation on multiple factors before leaving (Griffeth et al., 2000). Among those factors in the hospitality setting, our research pointed out that FSSB appears to play an important role ultimately in turnover intentions. While the strong direct effect was found to be fully mediated, the importance it plays in shaping organisational trust – which is a new addition to the literature – and confirms similar influences on job satisfaction (Hammer et al., 2009, 2013; Kong, 2013), means that FSSB still play an invaluable role in understanding employee behaviour in the hospitality sector.

Theoretically, the findings reinforce not only the beneficial nature of social exchange theory, but also highlight how these perceptions targeting the supervisor (FSSB) can shape attitudes towards the organisation and job and then ultimately behaviours. This reinforces the felt obligations to reciprocate (Haar & Spell, 2004) and highlights the beneficial influence positive leadership can play in the hospitality sector.

Theoretically, the results of this research reinforce and broaden the boundary of current research on turnover intentions and their antecedents in the hospitality context (e.g., Chen and Wu, 2017; Gatling et al., 2016; Pan, 2018; Yang et al. 2012; Xu et al. 2018). Within the hospitality sector, studies on the consequences of FSSB are extremely rare. Among 60 (broad) FSSB studies over the last three decades reviewed in their article, Crain and Stevens (2018) found only one study on the relationship between FSSB and subordinates' withdrawal behaviour in the hospitality sector. Since a study of FSSB and organisational trust was not found in the recent review by Crain and Stevens (2018), this research may also expand the FSSB nomological network by adding organisational trust as an FSSB outcome and mediator towards turnover intentions. Thus, our study constructs while strongly applicable to the hospitality sector, are also likely transportable beyond this sector to other New Zealand sectors.

Practically, our research focused on FSSB is important because it is a push (or controllable) factor in the hospitality industry, given that there are pull (or uncontrollable) factors such as attractions from other workplaces (Davidson & Wang, 2011). To keep talented staff – especially those who are well educated as shown in our study – who tend to quit their job more readily, hospitality businesses and managers must take more control of factors such as helping employees manage their work-family issues (FSSB) while considering the actions of attractive competitors. Indeed, FSSB is something that supervisors can be trained to engage with, and this makes

these findings especially valuable for the HR and employee relations field. We also suggest that New Zealand hospitality businesses could consider adopting formal work-family policies relating to support and/or encourage Hospitality managers to use their informal discretion to support their subordinates beyond the workplace issues because this support may benefit with no or very low cost.

Limitations

Like most research, the present study has some limitations. We controlled for gender as a potential important factor influencing turnover intentions. Nevertheless, its influence was small and insignificant. While we did explore other moderators, we did not investigate other family-related factors, such as the parental status of respondents, and thus exploring whether respondents had babies or school-aged dependants might have been valuable. We addressed issues around CMV earlier, but we encourage future research could collect FSSB data at the team level or consequences (e.g., turnover intentions) from different sources such as partners or co-workers, or separate constructs at different periods of time. Finally, we acknowledge that our sample was relatively small (n=149), but Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001) note that a sample of n=120 is required at a minimum to achieve adequate statistical testing (i.e., $p < .05$). Further, Bartlett et al. (2001) argue that the minimum sample size should equate to ten times the number of variables used, and here we have only eight variables in total (including control variables), which also meets this threshold. Thus, while our sample is modest it still has sufficient power and integrity for the regression analyses, we performed.

Conclusion

Overall, the present study sought to examine the influence of FSSB on employee turnover intentions within the hospitality sector of New Zealand. While we find it plays a valuable part, it is best understood as influencing employee job behaviours via job attitudes. Specifically, building perceptions of organisational trust which then shape job satisfaction, and these both reduce intentions to leave the job. The findings do highlight the value of supervisors supporting subordinate's family issues, and this is to be encouraged.

CHAPTER 8

FINAL DISCUSSION

8.1 Synthesis of the four studies and manuscripts

Four studies and associated manuscripts have been produced from the two datasets obtained in New Zealand and one dataset obtained in Vietnam, representing two distinct cultures albeit in very similar hospitality industry contexts. From the results and findings of the four studies, the three research questions (RQ) that have been transformed into the hypotheses in those studies are further answered as follows.

RQ1: *What influence do the 10 leadership competencies, as identified in the updated model of Shum et al. (2018), have on hotel employees' job outcomes?*

In both country samples, study 1 found that all 10 competencies, as modelled by Shum et al. (2018), presented significant correlations with job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Similarly, all 10 competencies were significantly correlated with affective commitment as found in study 2 in New Zealand and study 3 in Vietnam. Thus, these results in three studies and across two samples thoroughly answered RQ1 in finding that all 10 leadership competencies had a strong influence on those key job outcomes of hotel employees. This strongly supports Shum et al. (2018) assertion that it is a collection of these leadership competencies that can all potentially play important roles in the hospitality context. These results also informed further in-depth investigations in seeking answers to RQ2 and RQ3.

RQ2: *How do these leadership competencies influence hotel employees' job outcomes (specifically, is there a mediation process)?*

Study 1 further investigated which competencies are dominant in influencing turnover intentions and included job satisfaction as a mediator based on strong meta-analytic evidence (e.g., Griffith et al., 2000). Across the two countries, both ethical leadership and team leadership were found to be more important than the others in determining how the subordinates were satisfied with their jobs and felt about leaving their jobs. Moreover, the influence of these important competencies on turnover intentions was mediated by job satisfaction. In the New Zealand sample, study 2 found a moderated-mediation model explaining how the dominant ethical leadership influenced employees' commitment toward their hotels as mediated by leader effectiveness and moderated by gender. In the Vietnamese sample, study 3 found a similar moderated-mediation model explaining how the dominant team leadership influenced employee commitment as mediated by leader effectiveness and moderated by team size. As mediation analysis is a procedure for testing hypotheses about causal mechanisms (Hayes et al., 2017), the mediation models in study 1, as well as the moderated-mediation models in studies 2 and 3, imply underlying causal mechanisms (single-sourced data not withstanding – Spector, 2019). These mechanisms manifested that the influence of leadership competencies on the final outcomes did occur in a sophisticated manner whereby the mediators intervened in the influencing pathway and, the moderators, as contextual factors, further and subtly modified that intervention of effects from the leadership competencies.

Study 4 hypothesised, in the New Zealand context only, whether and how a specific leadership behaviour (i.e., FSSB) influenced important outcomes expressed by the subordinates, including organisational trust, job satisfaction, and turnover

intentions. The findings demonstrated that such an influence did exist, not in a simple and straightforward way, but again, in the form of a mediation mechanism in which several sequential effects were detected. As such, study 4 provides an additional answer to RQ2 that FSSB, as a potential new leadership competency to be added to the list of Shum et al. (2018), did have a similar pattern of influence on the common outcome turnover intentions. All the results found in these four studies answered RQ2 thoroughly.

RQ3**:** *Will there be differences in the relationships between typical leadership competencies and the investigated outcomes in Vietnamese versus New Zealand hotels?*

The findings in study 1 showed strong correlations between all 10 competencies with job satisfaction and turnover intentions; however, the correlations in the New Zealand sample were stronger than those in the Vietnamese sample. Further, in the two mediation models, delegation leadership is an extra competency found to be important only in Vietnam. As similarly revealed in studies 2 and 3, all 10 competencies showed strong correlations with organisational commitment, and the correlations in the New Zealand sample were again stronger than those in the Vietnamese sample. In addition, team leadership was found to be dominant in the Vietnamese sample, and its influence on organisational commitment via leader effectiveness was dampened by team size whereas, in the New Zealand sample, ethical leadership was found to be dominant and its influence on organisational commitment was moderated by gender. Thus, across the two countries, it seems that the influence of leadership competencies on organisational commitment, as demonstrated by correlational as well as potentially causal relationships, presented similarities but also clear differences in correlational

strength and typically influencing factors. All the above-mentioned differences between the two hotel sectors answered RQ3. Further augmented comparisons will be presented in section 8.2.

Overall, these four studies and associated manuscripts addressed the specific research questions and the thesis has investigated and elaborated the influence of leadership competencies on a range of key outcomes, mediators, and moderators. This elaboration satisfactorily answered the overarching research question, **"How do the leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers influence their subordinates' organisational commitment and turnover intentions**?". The answer to this question is: Hotel frontline managers influenced their subordinates' organisational commitment and turnover intentions through excelling in a suite of leadership competencies, driven principally by ethical leadership and team leadership.

Studies 1, 2, and 3, however, present the most interesting findings from the datasets. For example, two full multiple mediation models 6 (using analysis by PROCESS), each with the predictor being team leadership (Vietnam) or ethical leadership (New Zealand), have been established with leader effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment as three serial mediators, and turnover intentions as the criterion. Studies 2 and 3 could also be replicated with the other competencies demonstrating just smaller, but still significant effects. Also, it is worth noting that only significant moderation results were reported, a few moderated effects by other factors such as hotel ratings were found on the statistical borderline, that is $0.05 < p < 0.1$. These unreported findings and results imply that the research questions could be answered to a further extent.

8.2 Key findings and theoretical contributions

Beyond the specific contributions presented in the manuscripts, the thesis as a whole contributes to the leadership knowledge in several ways. Wacker (1998) referred to management theory as being made up of four components: (1) Definitions of terms or variables, (2) a domain or setting where the theory applies, (3) a set of relationships of variables, and (4) specific predictions. While the HLCM has not been called a theory, it could be viewed as being a theory, since Dubin (1978) stated that "I will use the terms theory, theoretical model, models, and systems interchangeably. All these terms will stand for a closed system from which are generated predictions about the nature of man's world" (p. 18). The two distinct goals of science, Dubin affirmed, are the prediction of outcomes and understanding about a system involving interactions among variables in the system. Based on these arguments, and given that the HLCM has been built to the construct definition level, theoretical contributions can be made by adding the relationship component and the prediction component (including potential interactions among variables). In more detail, Locke and Latham (2020) suggested that building a theory includes many steps in which key components are:

- Identifying the research domain: what you are trying to explain
- Defining the key concept(s)
- Formulating logically relevant measures
- Focusing on replication with variation
- Integrating and presenting data in "essentialized" form
- Identifying moderators
- Identifying mediators
- Looking for and analysing contradictions to inductively derived principles
- Expanding through connections with other valid theories, and taking into account additional studies by researchers in different fields
- Providing guidelines, based on empirical research, for implementation in field settings which in turn may provide data for further theory expansion. (p. 12)

As a result, theoretical contributions can be made by completing or extending one or some of the steps above. From Locke and Latham's (2020) suggestion, it can be inferred that, to establish the HLCM as a theory, many steps are open for making contributions since only the steps of identifying the research domain and defining the key concepts have been accomplished.

Usually, CFA is adopted to confirm the construct validity, that is, how variables (i.e., the results from measuring with scales) logically and systematically represent constructs and their relationships involved in a theoretical model (Hair et al., 2010). In the thesis, the CFA results (and AVE results in study 3 only) have demonstrated that the HLCM has relative construct validity in both datasets and the combined dataset. Thus, the model measuring the 10 competencies of priority to hospitality frontline managers has been validated and, as a result, further used for predicting turnover intentions and organisational commitment in the thesis. This thesis contributes such confirmation to the literature on the HLCM, using 10 independent, validated scales that best match with the 10 competencies.

Beyond the relationships found among 10 competencies in the CFA models, the thesis also presents the findings of correlational relationships between 10 competencies and the range of outcomes, namely leader effectiveness, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and organisational commitment. These relationships were affirmed though the strengths of these relationships varied across the two samples. Having found the relationships within the variables in the model (i.e., competencies) as well as between them and the investigated outcomes, the thesis contributes to the knowledge around the HLCM by adding the relationship component to it.

In several ways, this thesis confirms the predictive validity of the HLCM towards job satisfaction, leader effectiveness, organisational commitment, and

turnover intentions. The findings revealed that the effects of leadership competencies on turnover intentions, as well as organisational commitment, were mediated by job satisfaction and leader effectiveness, respectively. The detected mediation effects imply underlying causal mechanisms presented in the datasets. With the outcome organisational commitment, these mechanisms were further elaborated as being moderated by contextual factors such as team size and gender. Hence, the findings contribute to unpacking the underlying mechanisms informed by prior studies and theories that managers' leadership behaviours can strongly influence and predict their subordinates' attitudes and behaviours (e.g., Haar & Spell, 2004; Kim & Brymer, 2011; Testa & Sipe, 2012).

The establishment of several mediation mechanisms, moderating effects, and moderated-mediation mechanisms among leadership competencies and the investigated outcomes sheds light on why and, consequently, how unsatisfied and uncommitted hospitality employees leave their organisations as a result of the leadership behaviours of their immediate managers. Such empirical findings not only confirm the predictive validity of the HLCM of Shum et al. (2018) but also support prior propositions as well as qualitative results that leadership is a crucial factor in shaping the attitudes and behaviours of the subordinates (e.g., Bock, 2015; Brien, 2010; Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Yang et al., 2012). Therefore, and from the viewpoint of employees, hospitality managers who are perceived as demonstrating leadership competencies may be effective at mobilising employees to do their jobs satisfactorily and commit themselves to their workplaces. Consequently, hospitality leadership competencies can be useful for developing leaders who effectively mobilise their subordinates, engage them in coherent teams, and likely get the results. All of these

above contributions fill in the first research gap which has been pointed out in Chapter 1 (p. 3).

The thesis also provides evidence of confirming the validity of the HLCM from the viewpoint of frontline employees across two distinct cultures and contexts, with New Zealand representing a developed economy and western culture (e.g., individualistic), and Vietnam representing a developing economy and eastern culture (e.g., collectivist) (Cohen, Wu, & Miller, 2016; Luu, 2018; Mejia at al., 2015; World Bank, 2019). The validity is supported by the findings that present similar patterns of influence of leadership competencies towards a range of outcomes and mediators, including the finding that both team leadership and ethical leadership were similarly more important than other competencies in both cultures. From the employees' viewpoint, the evidence of the HLCM's validity is critical since the definitions and operationalisations of leadership competencies have solely been constructed by researchers and managers. The insight of the employees' viewpoint across cultures and contexts contributes to filling the second research gap (Chapter 1, p.3).

Finally, the thesis seeks to expand and open the focus on leadership competencies through exploring – and finding support for – another leadership competency, namely FSSB. As seen in Chapter 7, FSSB strongly and significantly influenced hospitality employee turnover intentions via organisational trust and job satisfaction as mediators and, thus, might have similar effects on the outcomes studied here with the other 10 competencies, principally turnover intentions. The findings signal a high potentiality that a distinct leadership behaviour around supporting employee work-family issues (i.e., FSSB) could be added to the existing 10 competencies, particularly to people leadership competencies set out by Shum et al. (2018). This additional competency may help to explain more variance in the attitudes

and behaviours of hospitality employees, and thus can expand the meaning of competent leadership, at least in the hospitality context and at the frontline level. At the minimum, it provides a useful avenue for researchers to extend the Shum et al. (2018) leadership competencies and include one specifically around work and family issues.

Ultimately, as compared to the four-component framework of theory by Wacker (1998), this thesis contributes to the knowledge of HLCM by validating its competency-constructs and by fulfilling the two last components (i.e., relationship and prediction components). The thesis, therefore, likely provides some way towards developing the HLCM as a theory as per this framework. If theoretical contributions are to be made following the above suggestion of Locke and Latham (2020), this thesis contributes to the knowledge of HLCM by formulating relevant scales, focusing on replication with cultural variation, identifying some moderators and mediators, providing guidelines for implementation in the industry, and finally offering and testing extensions to develop the HLCM.

Beyond these contributions made to the HLCM, this thesis also contributes to leadership knowledge by showing that leadership may have a much broader meaning than has been conceptualised in mainstream theories, such as transformational-transactional leadership (Bass, 1997), authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) or servant leadership (Greenleaf & Spears, 1998). This contribution is made by first locating supportive arguments and evidence and then presenting them in the literature review chapter. Besides, based on some existing definitions, this thesis provides a simple definition of leadership, defining it as the use of resources, that can be very broadly operationalised at different management levels as presented in Chapter 2 (p. 39). In hospitality organisations particularly, such an operationalisation at the frontline

level has been conducted by tapping into the definition with two leadership factors plus 10 competencies identified by Shum at al. (2018) and the 10 associated scales. As a result, and importantly, the thesis finds support for the view that, for the frontline level only, the meaning of leadership is already broad and multidimensional. As suggested by Shum et al. (2018), personal leadership and people leadership factors are essential to frontline managers; and this has been proved by clearly identifying prominent competencies representing both factors such as ethical leadership (personal leadership or self-leadership) and team leadership plus delegation (people leadership). Thus, it can be inferred that employees respond to not only how they are led within the reciprocal relationship between them and their managers but also how the managers broadly demonstrated themselves to be competent self-leaders beyond that relationship (i.e., a role model). The findings support the growing critique that most leadership research has been narrowly, thus inadequately, focused on the manager-subordinate dyadic relationship (e.g., Ahmad & Loch, 2019; Gottfredson et al., 2020; Hassan et al., 2018; House & Aditya, 1997; Mumford & Fried, 2014).

From the starting point of a broad meaning of leadership, this thesis further challenges the one-size-fits-all or general approach to leadership by showing that leadership behaviours and perceptions are culturally and contextually influenced and that leadership is a multilevel construct. A general or universal theory of leadership may not be able to capture the complexity of leadership which may need multiple specific theories, with the HLCM being one of them. First, the thesis shows strong empirical evidence that the importance of individual competencies differs across cultures, which has been found in previous studies (e.g., Baum, 1990; Siu, 1998). This is because the expectation of employees on their leaders may vary across cultures, gender, or organisational context. The findings show that team leadership in Vietnam

had a stronger impact on employee attitudes and behaviours than in New Zealand. In a collective culture, the coherence of the team might be more prevalent; thus, team building skills may be more demanding and prior. Ethical leadership was more important to New Zealand employees, reflecting the dominance of females and a large proportion of immigrants, those who tend to be vulnerable to ethical issues such as harassment and discrimination (Keith et al., 2010). This supports the meta-analysis around ethical leadership and its importance on shaping employee attitudes and behaviours (e.g., Ng & Feldman, 2015).

The finding highlights that delegation, one among 10 leadership competencies modelled by Shum et al. (2018) and tested in this research, was dominant in Vietnam only. As Luu (2018) argued, Vietnam has been strongly influenced by Confucianism, and this has contributed to paternalistic leadership, which involves three behavioral dimensions: authoritarianism, benevolence, and morality. Authoritarianism entails "commanding employees' compliance with the organization's course of actions and his guidance, as well as applying penalty their breach of rules and norms" (Luu, 2018, p.134). Therefore, it seems that paternalistic managers tend not to delegate their authority to their subordinates and seek to penalise those who ignore their guidance. In hospitality, Luu (2018) found that the authoritarianism dimension negatively related to employees' work engagement and extra-role customer service. In such a context, employees may highly appreciate the delegation of managers and relate this competency strongly to their job attitudes whereas delegation behaviour might be a norm and, thus, not salient in the New Zealand context.

In addition, ethical issues might be more prevalent in New Zealand since employees could be better protected and aware of their rights and codes of ethical conduct. Moreover, with a low rate of unemployment (at the time of data collection),

if managers behave unethically, their subordinates may decide to leave their workplaces quickly; and this is more likely in New Zealand where the mean of turnover intentions was 3.4 (scale 1-6, midpoint= 3.5). In Vietnam, however, job security may be more important because of higher unemployment (Pham, 2019). Under incompetent leadership, therefore, and compared to their New Zealand counterparts, Vietnamese employees may less likely look for another workplace, and this is evident in weaker correlations among leadership competencies and the outcomes as well as a lower mean of turnover intentions (M= 2.7). These differences detected between the two countries contribute to filling the third research gap (Chapter 1, p.3).

The argument that leadership behaviours and perceptions are contextually influenced (Bush, 2017; Oc, 2018; Osborn et al., 2002) is further supported by the distinct impacts of (1) team size on the effect of team leadership on leader effectiveness in the Vietnamese sample, and (2) gender on the effect of ethical leadership on organisational commitment in the New Zealand sample. These findings and contributions of this thesis could be significant since, as argued by Ayman and Korabik (2010), gender and culture can modify our definition of leadership and effective leadership, and such an inclusive conceptualisation of leadership can better represent all human beings. Especially, how leadership is perceived and responded to may be influenced by gender as found in manuscript 2. Therefore, these contextual factors should be considered in not only leadership research but also HR practices such as hiring, appraising, and promoting leaders. This thorough consideration may have the potential to come closer to gender equality that is required to address the gender problems in hospitality (Mooney, 2020).As noted in the literature review, there is a growing critique of leadership (e.g., Mooney, 2020; Billing & Anderson, 2014;

Powell, 2014; Millmore et al., 2007; Shen & Joseph, 2020) including in the hospitality sector (e.g., Mooney, 2020; Mooney & Ryan, 2009), and future research might engage this more readily with the leadership competencies explored here.

Further, the findings of this thesis provide evidence to support the theory-building principle of Locke and Latham (2020) that,

> "People are constantly making choices. … Thus, we know by induction that the causal factors of their choices often change in some way. Predictions of human action, therefore, are conditional upon certain assumptions which typically need constant checking. This does not make generalizations impossible but rather contextual." (p. 5)

Therefore, a theory must be first generalised within a certain context (e.g., in a culture or industry) before potentially being extended to other contexts; however, some modification may be required.

Second, the present study partly confirms (i.e., though the frontline level only) the arguments and findings of Shum et al. (2018) that there are differential competency priorities for frontline managers and for senior or top managers. The review of the literature in this thesis also found arguments that leadership is a multilevel construct (Crawford & Kelder, 2019; Day & Harrison, 2007; Turner & Baker, 2018). Thus, it is essential to consider level effects in order to fully conceptualise and better study leadership phenomena (DeChurch, Hiller, Murase, Doty, & Salas, 2010; Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson, 2007). Hence, as a multilevel construct, the meaning of leadership is one that is basically modified by management level. The thesis supports these various authors' calls for future research that explores management level beyond it being a control variable (i.e., an influencer); and so the emphasis on the controlling of hierarchical level in leadership research (e.g., Bruch & Walter, 2007) might need to be reconsidered. As management level could be better considered as a modifier of meaning of leadership than an influencer of its relationship with the outcomes,

developing differential scales for measuring leadership at different levels during a research design may be appropriate, as shown in the HLCM and suggested by Mumford et al. (2007). For example, strategic leadership could be operationalised, measured, and tested for middle and top managers only (Dragoni et al., 2014). It is also at the strategic level of leadership, the use of nonhuman resources such as budget, information, technology, or artificial intelligence becomes more prevalent. Leaders at this level are assigned positions that are linked to the specific resources they oversee, for example, chief financial officer (CFO), chief information officer (CIO), or chief human resources officer (CHRO). Such a differentiation of management levels may avoid "the automatic or blind inclusion of control variables in multiple regression and other analyses" (Spector & Brannick, 2010, p. 287). Also, the detection of significant moderation and moderated mediation effects of team size and gender, while individually discussed in each manuscript chapter, overall does highlight that these factors can make a difference to leadership effect beyond the role of a control variable. The findings of this thesis present a different role for those factors compared to the findings of Bernerth et al. (2018) that gender, team size, and management level have been frequently considered as control variables in leadership studies but the assignment of these (and other) control variables is rarely justified by theoretical reasons.

Having said that does not mean the contributions of this thesis may be similarly viewed from other perspectives. In the case what a theory means and what constitutes a theory are assumed to be different from the framework of Locke and Laham (2020) presented above, the contributions of this thesis could be otherwise explained. In short, the meaning of contributions to theory and knowledge is shaped by what is considered a theory. Being an extrapolation from the framework of Locke and Laham (2020), the

structure of a theory of a phenomenon may include the four likely complex mechanisms as follows:

- The sense/meaning-making mechanism (what does the investigated phenomenon mean?).
- The causal mechanism (why does it happen?)
- The operational mechanism (how does it happen?).
- The consequential mechanism (what effects does it make on other phenomena? i.e., a prediction focus).

The two first mechanisms, in Locke and Laham's terms, are to qualitatively identify what a researcher is trying to explain and to define that "what". The two last mechanisms are to, more quantitatively, identity operational and predictive evidence. As such, a theory starts with identifying and defining the focused phenomenon.

From this structure, the contributions of this thesis *to the HLCM* are more of empirical contributions, which are (1) to understand how hotel frontline employees view the leadership operation (behaviours) of their managers and (2) how this leadership makes important effects on other job-related phenomena such as job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The findings of these effects, as presented in six models in the manuscripts, contribute to establish the nomological network around leadership competencies and its relationships with other constructs.

However, as summarised by Locke and Laham (2020) and Dubin (1978), a theory may alternatively start with:

- An assumption about an association between phenomena/variables and a relationship is tested afterward
- A hypothesis that is the result of a guess or experiment and a relationship or causal test afterward

- A hypothesis that is deduced from other theories and a relationship is tested afterwards.

Thus, if viewing from these theory settings, which are likely simple, the contributions of this thesis could be mostly empirical rather than theoretical. As such, the contributions are less robust in terms of theoretical contribution since they are more of empirical testing, thus, empirical contributions.

8.3 Practical implications

8.3.1. Implications for the industry and its HRM departments

Based on the literature review and findings, the thesis offers some practical contributions to solve the two coexisting challenges faced by HR managers in the industry, as identified in Chapter 1, around staff retention and leadership development.

8.3.1.1. New approach to solve the old issues

Leadership has been suggested to be a crucial factor that determines whether employees engage with and trust their organisations, are satisfied with their jobs, and thus tend to stay or leave. Despite robust research and suggestions, turnover and turnover intentions are still persistent (Gupta, 2019; Haldorai et al., 2019). Indeed, in the present study they were very high in the New Zealand context. Hence, it could be suggested that a new approach is needed. This thesis demonstrates the HLCM is good at predicting employees' attitudes and behaviours. The thesis reinforces the adage that employees may quit their immediate managers who fail to mobilise themselves and their subordinates, and this adage is similarly confirmed across the two cultures and industry settings in New Zealand and Vietnam. To retain staff, increase their commitment, and, ultimately, reduce their turnover, the thesis proposes the utilisation of the HLCM for leadership practices in the hospitality industry as an alternative

towards general leadership theories such as transformational leadership or authentic leadership.

In particular, the results and scales can potentially be used in hotel settings to train frontline managers with the right competencies to minimise employee turnover intentions and other outcomes related to poor practices of leadership, such as job dissatisfaction or non-commitment to the organisation. In such a way, limited leadership training resources and budgets in hotels could be optimised by focusing on the competencies that are most required but likely least performed. Such a training plan will also take into account the organisational context and align with the strategic goal.

8.3.1.2. Leadership development

As discussed in the literature review chapter and subsequent manuscript chapters, many major leadership theories have been criticised for their unhelpfulness for leadership development (e.g., Alvesson, 2019; Andersen, 2016; Ashford & Sitkin, 2019; Barker, 1997; Kaiser & Curphy, 2013; Larsson et al., 2020; Mumford & Fried, 2014; Rost, 1993). For leadership development, especially in the hospitality industry, an alternative approach is needed. This thesis and its findings support the HLCM to be positioned as an alternative theory to general leadership theories. Therefore, HRM departments may consider recruiting, selecting, training, and developing leaders in a systematic manner by applying the HLCM. Otherwise, the model could be added to the pool of potential leadership approaches that are available for leadership development in the industry. The 10 validated scales could also be used as a basic for appraising the leadership performance of hotel frontline managers, or of higher

management levels if properly modified. Such information is unique for profiling managers for intervention and development purposes.

To be future-oriented, the model could be extended with new competencies being added, with FSSB a potential option as suggested by this thesis. Furthermore, other competencies such as work-life balance for frontline managers (Dolasinski & Reynolds, 2019), or strategic leadership for middle and top managers (Dragoni et al., 2014) have also been suggested. This differentiation of leadership development is consistent with the multilevel conceptualisation of leadership as presented above and may help to focus limited training resources on the competencies most needed at each level.

8.3.2 Implications for hospitality managers, subordinates, educators, and the industry

The thesis and its findings may be significant for hospitality managers, subordinates, and educators. First, since all leadership competencies, and thus the HLCM, are found to be predictive to a range of key outcomes, hospitality managers should consider the utilisation of the HLCM, instead of, or in addition to, other leadership theories, in performing their duties and personally developing their leadership talent. Second, the insight into the mechanisms that underlie the relationships between leadership competencies and organisational commitment and turnover intentions will help hospitality managers to identify a better approach to strengthen the relationship with uncommitted subordinates and to dissolve the intentions of potential quitters. It is unlikely that good leadership reduces turnover directly. Ultimately, good leadership competencies shape employee attitudes and these reduce turnover intentions and thus ultimately turnover.

Finally, in a highly internationalised industry, expatriate hospitality managers may need to know, adopt, and enhance suitable leadership competencies in the newly assigned workplaces and cultures. Parent organisations, however, often do not provide adequate pre-departure training in culturally related competencies to their expatriates, and this lack may lead to those managers' high failure rates (Seak & Enderwick, 2008). Thus, hotel chains and schools may need to put more effort into supporting those expatriate managers. In addition, more comparative research is needed to inform all of them about the relevant leadership practices in each context.

Subordinates, especially those who feel less committed or are likely to leave, should pay more attention to the behaviours of their immediate managers and improve the relationship with them. This is of crucial importance to the job performance, the wellbeing, as well as the career prospects of subordinates in organisations. An understanding of leadership competence is also crucial for those subordinates who want to evaluate the leadership of their immediate managers and make final decisions on whether to stay or leave.

Whetten (1989) suggested that if the relationships in a model have been empirically verified, the model is likely ready for the classroom. Hence, the HLCM can be utilised for training by hospitality educators, especially those who provide management courses. With a training focus on competencies like team leading, problem-solving, and communication sought after by the industry, the significant gaps between industry expectations and the academic over-teaching of conceptual and analytical skills could be reduced (Raybould & Wilkins, 2005). This utilisation may, therefore, increase the chance of their students being recruited by hospitality organisations. Since the industry focuses on leadership issues that relate to the core themes, such as business acumen and work-life balance, to move forward, hospitality

educators should focus on researching and teaching around these instead of themes such as leadership styles (Maier, 2011). Hence, the HLCM could be a common, fruitful approach for hospitality organisations, educators, and students.

In terms of sustainable tourism, it has been argued that the topic of frontline employment and wellbeing have been largely marginalised in the minds of policymakers and educators (Baum, 2018). This is somewhat unfortunate because tourism cannot be fully sustainable if its frontline workforce, being associated with a lack of respect and esteem, even with human rights violation (Robinson, Martins, Solnet, & Baum, 2019), is continuing to be so treated and largely ignored by responsible stakeholders. The wellbeing of hospitality frontline employees, therefore, should be of concern to the whole industry, especially managers, educators, and policymakers. This thesis implies that the role of hospitality managers is crucial to not only formulate good regulations and practices (e.g., ethical codes of conduct) but also follow these consistently and behave competently so that the wellbeing of their frontline employees could be enhanced. Educators and trainers should be more concerned about how to educate competent managers so that their wellbeing, and that of their subordinates, is sustained. Policy makers may need to play a more important role in diagnosing and intervening in issues relating to the wellbeing of those employees since some issues, such as sexual harassment, should not be seen as organisational issues that are subject to internal compromise. Given the high costs of turnover, providing good leadership within hotels that ultimately improves and retains the workforce, will provide economy and non-economic gains to hotels and their workforces.

8.4 Limitations

Unavoidably, this present research study has several limitations that imply more research is needed in the future. First, the cross-sectional design is a major limitation that hinders this study from making more persuasive causal claims, though the sophisticated patterns of relationships found in both datasets have strengthened the causal prediction of HLCM. It was also noted previously by Spector (2019), that such cross-sectional studies might still provide useful insights inferring causality. The data on both the leadership competencies (i.e., the predictors) and turnover intentions or organisational commitment (i.e., the criteria) were obtained from the same source (i.e., individual respondents). This design might be vulnerable to CMV issues (Podsakoff et al., 2012) though several remedies to deal with it have been applied to minimise the risk and this may be minor, as shown in the results. However, it should be noted that the research results and findings might still be affected by some common method bias and should be viewed with the awareness of such bias in the datasets.

Second, the sizes of samples (i.e., n= 109 in New Zealand and n= 236 in Vietnam) are relatively small. Consequently, several detected moderation effects did not pass the significance threshold $p < .05$. The adoption of validated scales (i.e., the deductive scale approach described by Hinkin et al.,1997) led to the option to match the best available scales with the studied constructs. This feasible option, however, resulted in some overlapping items. With the removal of some items, the final measurement model fitted the datasets. During the design phase, future research should consider removing overlapping items thoroughly and modifying items carefully to capture the constructs better.

Third, as presented in the literature chapter, the causes of employee turnover intentions and commitment are multiple. Within the scope and timeframe of this PhD

research, several other important factors have not been measured and controlled, for example, the income and education of employees. Within a broader context, alternative job opportunities or unemployment may affect turnover and turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000), yet these factors were not controlled. As a result, a portion of variance in the outcome variables was left unexplained. Since leadership, as perceived by subordinates, may still be dissimilar to the perception of it from other observers (i.e., the superiors of the manager); hence, there is the potential for bias in the results. Moreover, the thesis does not investigate objective outcomes, such as hotel guest satisfaction or turnover rates. These simply were outside of the interest of participating hotels. Therefore, the findings and associated inferences are unlikely to be objective though it is objectivism that serves as the lodestar of this present study.

Fourth, it should be noted that the PROCESS tool used in this research has several weaknesses. This analysis tool estimates moderation and mediation effects better if observed variables are used (Hayes et al., 2017). In this research, however, perception variables are indeed the proxies of observed items in scales measuring those variables, i.e., the sum score of items in each variable/scale was used as the observed value of the variable. Thus, the detected effects might be less accurate than would be the case if larger samples were achieved and SEM were used. That said, Hayes et al., (2017) have noted that PROCESS results are near identical to SEM.

Finally, the HLCM has been developed within the hospitality industry; and this present research investigates it within two narrow hotel contexts in New Zealand and Vietnam. Therefore, the generalisation of the findings is currently limited. Even if research is replicated to other hospitality sectors (e.g., travel or aviation) or within the hospitality industry worldwide, generalisation should be made with great care and modification may be essential. Also, the cultural effect, such as the influence of power

distance, was not controlled since the inclusion of one or more constructs (with multiple-item scales) would have added to the length of the survey and thereby possibly undermined data collection. However, future research might include such approaches.

8.5 Implications for future research

From the limitations described above as well as the studied state of the HLCM, there are several research opportunities that are worthy of being considered for future research. First, and within the frontline level, it is critical to study objective outcomes such as actual turnover rates or guest satisfaction. Thus, future research can measure and investigate these factors. Moreover, there are apparent research gaps on how the leadership competencies of higher-level managers, such as directors and CEOs, influence a range of outcomes of hotels, hotel guests, and employees. Important outcomes of hotels are, for example, room occupancy percentage (ROP), or revenue per available rooms (RevPAR). Data representing alternative views from the peers or superiors of the managers are valuable to enhance our understanding of the HLCM. Therefore, future research should consider studying higher levels and collecting such outcome variables and data.

Second, the importance of individual competencies can be further explored between different hotel departments. This could be an avenue for future research since a study has shown that competencies were ranked differently between departments; thus, training needs and development plans should be carefully prioritised according to the specific position (Siu, 1998). The thesis findings open an opportunity to conduct future original research that incorporates FSSB into the pool of hospitality leadership competencies for frontline managers. The dependence of leadership on the context

also signals opportunities for researchers to explore the effects of potential moderators such as hotel size or ratings, manager tenure or age, and employee income and education.

Third, since context does have some influence on leadership behaviours and perceptions, managers should consider contextual factors in enacting their roles (Bush, 2017; Luo et al., 2013). Future research might consider replicating this research study with data from other countries representing a developed economy in an Eastern culture (e.g., Japan) or a developing economy in a Western culture (e.g., Poland). For example, future research might be conducted to determine what ethical leadership might look like across different contexts. For example, findings universal similarities, or subtle differences between Japan and Poland, would be useful for training agencies to understand when shaping training on the 'ethical leadership behaviours' of staff. Such replications will help the HLCM to evolve and be more validated and useful. Conducting expansively comparative research to explore how and explain why a typical competency such as ethical leadership could be more significant to employees in one culture than the others may worthy of a research problem. As suggested by Locke and Latham (2020), predictions of human action, which are contextually dependent, need constant checking; therefore, replicated or modified studies within the hospitality industry are still relevant and may yield contributions. Moreover, since the HLCM is open to new competencies being added, with FSSB a potential option proposed by this thesis, future studies can add emerging competencies and eliminate diminishing ones. These checking and validation studies will help the HLCM to evolve. Since additional evidence and bias checking are also essential in theory building, prestige journals are now open to publishing replication research (e.g., Antonakis, 2017; Roloff & Zyphur, 2019).

Fourth, there is potential that other hospitality sectors (e.g., travel) or other service industries such as health care or education, i.e., those relying heavily on the female workforce, may share some of the dominant leadership competencies studied here, such as ethical leadership, team leadership, or delegation. Thus, the HLCM may be applicable to and researchable in those hospitality sectors, or other service industries with proper modifications, where identical outcomes such as turnover intentions, employee's commitment, or guest satisfaction can be predicted. Such studies will be very helpful in validating the HLCM further as a basic leadership model for the service sector. It should be noted that these validations may not be necessary for generalising it, or promoting it as a one-size-fits-all model, but for modifying of the HLCM to fit the model with other service industries.

In terms of research design, future studies need a larger sample size to build and test the multidimensionality of the HLCM. These can be second-order factor measurement models, including personal leadership and people leadership (for frontline managers) or personal leadership, people leadership, and organisational leadership (for director and top managers). In the present research, a few moderated effects by other factors, such as hotel ratings, were found just outside the standard $p < .05$ threshold, that is, between $0.05 < p < 0.1$. This implies that if a larger sample size had been obtained, these effects could have become significant. More sophisticated designs, such as obtaining different sources of data (i.e., co-worker ratings of turnover intentions or organisational commitment) or conducting longitudinal or experimental observations to obtain a solid causal inference, are worthy of research effort.

Finally, a large sample size will support robustness and more options in data analysis. As noted in the limitation section, a mediation analysis using SEM may

achieve a more accurate estimation of effects. Thus, based on the present research and the scales, future research should adopt an original design using SEM.

To conclude, many valuable opportunities for practising, developing, and researching leadership are available for those who wish to adopt and develop the HLCM as an open leadership model. The implications for future research, as presented above, are not exhaustive but result from the current perspective of the researcher.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSION

Towards the end of this thesis write up, the world was shocked by the Covid-19 pandemic. The New Zealand and Vietnamese hospitality industries have been severely damaged by travel bans, restrictions, and closed borders. In such a 'new normal', leadership really counts and continues to do so. Further, while the turnover intentions issue might be less important given the large numbers of layoffs in the tourism and hospitality worldwide (Baum, Mooney, Robinson, & Solnet, 2020), this thesis was largely conducted pre-Covid-19 making the findings important for the time at which it was conducted.

In a broader context, too, leadership does matter. In many cases, a lack of leadership, which may lead to employee self-controls and autonomy as positive outcomes (Yang, 2015), might have been better than toxic leadership or destructive leadership, which is only harmful to both employees and organisations (Krasikova, Green, & LeBreton, 2013). Therefore, leadership development does matter more in such cases. However, it would be impossible to develop something in employees when we do not know what it is, even something that we know is crucial. The challenge for a PhD researcher like me, trying to trace and understand leadership as well as how to develop leaders and leadership, may open the door to a puzzle of theories and guidelines. Many of these approaches are likely to be competing with each other, including having some overlap or even being conflicting. This thesis is the result of my journey through such puzzlement to find a better possible approach for practising and developing leadership in the hospitality industry. Ultimately, from my PhD journey, I can find a meaningful approach to leadership including the need to focus

and develop better leadership competencies in future employees and leaders. Looking back on the journey I have gone on, and the thesis I have written, some self-evaluation on the research objectives, questions, contributions, and some thoughts for the future arise.

This research study aimed to understand hotel frontline managers' leadership competencies and their effects on the attitudes and behaviours of the subordinates. This aim has been divided into several objectives, including measuring leadership competencies and testing a developing theory of hospitality leadership (i.e., Shum et al., 2018), and building statistical models whereby these effects were significantly detected and reported. First, and across the two countries, this study measured and affirmed the strong relationships between leadership competencies and the outcomes, which focused on turnover intentions, but also leader effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. Second, the study explored and found the potential causal mechanisms that underlay their relationships, albeit acknowledging issues with cross-sectional data (see Spector, 2019). Third, the study compared the two countries and found both similarities and differences in the effects of leadership competencies on the outcomes studied. In addition, the study tested a multiple mediation model whereby FSSB exerted similar effects on turnover intentions and thus can be added as a new competency into the HLCM. Overall, these three themes of findings provide strong evidence that validates the HLCM so that it can be utilised with more confidence and as an alternative to general leadership theories. Beyond this thesis, four manuscripts were formulated to publicly inform the hospitality industry of these three themes of the findings. Each manuscript focuses on different competencies but all of them significantly found the effects of leadership competencies on subordinates' attitudes and behaviors. Furthermore, these manuscripts present some contextual

effects, such as gender effects, that improve the understanding of how leadership competencies influence subordinates' job attitudes and behaviors. Combined, these manuscripts provide strong empirical support for Shum's leadership competencies model and provide support across western (New Zealand) and eastern (Vietnam) settings. Further, one manuscript (on FSSB using the dataset provided by my first supervisor) provides useful new directions to the leadership competencies model suggesting extensions for the model.

In conclusion, by providing the novel, elaborated relationships among leadership competencies and the outcomes studied in the two countries, the thesis has answered the overarching question: "**How do the leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers influence their subordinates' turnover intentions and organisational commitment?".** The thesis makes an important advance in the HLCM and further answers the compelling question asked by Shum et al. (2018, p. 57): "Which competencies matter more?" To conclude, the thesis has achieved its aim and objectives; it also contributes to the leadership literature, especially around the HLCM, fills the research gaps, and offers some future research directions.

After this PhD journey, it is clear to me that not only does leadership matter, but leadership competencies matter even more. To me, doing research is an exciting journey motivated by curiosity and passion. Actually, it has been a journey to obtain the answers for myself first. Before doing this research, I had been puzzled about so many leadership theories and research approaches. The puzzle is still there, but a possible, exciting trajectory is open for me to continue my research career.

Leadership may still be a mysterious, or even deceptive phenomenon. What is leadership? How can it be enacted properly? These are short and simple questions, but quest after quest has been continued to find better answers. Thus, my odyssey on

the sea of leadership (Andersen, 2016) may be endless and this thesis is definitely one single step that begins the journey.

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Appendix A. Ethics Approval

Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC)

Auckland University of Technology
D-88, Private Bag 92006, Auckland 1142, NZ
T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316
E: ethics@aut.ac.nz
www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics

12 September 2018

Jarrod Haar
Faculty of Business Economics and Law

Dear Jarrod

Re Ethics Application: **18/291 Leadership competencies of hotels frontline managers and their effects on subordinate turnover intentions: A comparative study of New Zealand and Vietnam**

Thank you for providing evidence as requested, which satisfies the points raised by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC).

Your ethics application has been approved for three years until 12 September 2021.

Non-Standard Conditions of Approval

1. Ensure that the most recent versions of the Information Sheet(s) are provided to participants accurately translated.

Non-standard conditions must be completed before commencing your study. Non-standard conditions do not need to be submitted to or reviewed by AUTEC before commencing your study.

Standard Conditions of Approval

1. A progress report is due annually on the anniversary of the approval date, using form EA2, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
2. A final report is due at the expiration of the approval period, or, upon completion of project, using form EA3, which is available online through http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by AUTEC prior to being implemented. Amendments can be requested using the EA2 form: http://www.aut.ac.nz/research/researchethics.
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events must be reported to AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.

Please quote the application number and title on all future correspondence related to this project.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval for access for your research from another institution or organisation then you are responsible for obtaining it. If the research is undertaken outside New Zealand, you need to meet all locality legal and ethical obligations and requirements. You are reminded that it is your responsibility to ensure that the spelling and grammar of documents being provided to participants or external organisations is of a high standard.

For any enquiries, please contact ethics@aut.ac.nz

Yours sincerely,

Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: vinhnle@gmail.com; le.vinh.nguyen@aut.ac.nz

Appendix B. Project Information Sheet (English)

Participant Information Sheet

Date Information Sheet Produced:

15 June 2018

Project Title

Leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers and their effects on subordinate turnover intentions: A comparative study of New Zealand and Vietnam.

An Invitation

I am Le Vinh Nguyen. I am conducting the research titled above to fulfil the requirement for my PhD study in Management at the Auckland University of Technology (AUT), New Zealand. By this research, I want to understand the leadership of your immediate manager and your attitudes such as job satisfaction and turnover intentions. I would like to invite you to be a participant in my research. You are invited because you are in the best position to know the leadership of your immediate manager. Your participation into this research is totally voluntary and the decision is yours. You can withdraw from this research without giving any reason and having any consequence.

What is the purpose of this research?

This research aims at investigating the perceived leadership competencies of hotel frontline managers and its influence on subordinate turnover intentions. This research done for my PhD study and its outcomes will be a thesis and research papers which report the results. Findings may be used in academics as well.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You are invited to the research because you are unique in observing the leadership of your immediate supervisor or manager. Initial contacts have been made with your hotel human resource management to get a permission to invite you to join the research.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

Your participation in this research is voluntary (it is your choice) and whether or not you choose to participate will neither advantage nor disadvantage you. You are able to withdraw from the study at any time. However, once your response (your answered questionnaire) is submitted, you are not able to withdraw since it is anonymous.

What will happen in this research?

This research will use your information on leadership practices and attitudes to understand how leadership can help to improve employees' attitudes towards the jobs. Such an understanding is important and potentially beneficial to all stakeholders in hotels including you, the managers, and the hotel.

All things you do are to give your best responses to statements in the questionnaire, check your completion of the questionnaire and put it into the self-addressed envelop and send to the researcher. You can use the Courier Service of your hotel for returning your questionnaire to the researcher. The information you provide will entirely be held confidentially and anonymously and used only for this research. Your and your manager' identities cannot and will not be inferred from the information you give and only the researchers can have access on these information, which will be stored and destroyed to the AUT's policies.

What are the discomforts and risks? How are these alleviated?

This process should not pose any discomfort or risk to you. We are NOT collecting your personal name or workplace so you will never be personally identified. Overall, your responses will be added together and analysed at the aggregate (combined) level only. There is no way your manager can sue what you respond.

The data will not be shown to anyone outside of the research team and any records will be stored at a locked file at AUT University. Again, responses are anonymous and respondents cannot be identified in any way.

What are the benefits?

Understanding leadership is important and potentially beneficial to all stakeholders in hotels including you, the managers, and the hotel. Research implications can potentially be utilised by hotels and education providers for training managers in a way that keeps hotel employees satisfied and energised at work.

How will my privacy be protected?

The information provided by you is totally anonymous. Nobody, including the researcher, will know who answered the questionnaire since it is sealed and sent by you.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

It will take you about 15 to 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. It is worthy to pause and think about your job.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

The opportunity for your voice, as an employee to how leadership should be, to be heard and considered.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

Absolutely you can. The researcher will publish the summary of related research papers on his Research Gate account which can be viewed publicly. The account is https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Vinh_Nguyen_Le2.

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, *Professor Jarrod Haar, email: jarrod.haar@aut.ac.nz, phone:* +64 921 9999 ext 5034.

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTEC, Kate O'Connor, *ethics@aut.ac.nz*, 921 9999 ext 6038.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

Researcher Contact Details:

Le Vinh Nguyen, email: le.vinh.nguyen@gmail.com, phone: + 64 921 9999 ext 4171.

Project Supervisor Contact Details:

Professor Jarrod Haar, email: jarrod.haar@aut.ac.nz, phone: +64 921 9999 ext 5034.

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 12 September, 2018, AUTEC Reference number *18/291*.

Appendix C. Project Information Sheet (Vietnamese)

PHIẾU THÔNG TIN

Đây là mẫu phiếu thông tin về nghiên cứu nhằm cung cấp thông tin cho Bạn, những người tham gia vào nghiên cứu này.

Ngày lập phiếu:

15 tháng Sáu, 2018

Đề tài

Năng lực lãnh đạo của các quản trị viên trực tiếp và sự tác động đến ý định chuyển việc của nhân viên: Một nghiên cứu so sánh ở New Zealand và Việt Nam.

Lời mời

Tôi là Nguyễn Lê Vinh. Tôi đang làm nghiên cứu này để hoàn thành luận án Tiến sĩ (chuyên ngành Quản lý) tại Trường Đại học Kỹ thuật Auckland (AUT), New Zealand. Thông qua nghiên cứu này, tôi muốn tìm hiểu về sự lãnh đạo của cấp trên trực tiếp của Bạn cũng như sự nhìn nhận của Bạn liên quan đến sự thoả mãn do công việc mang lại và sự chuyển đổi công việc trong tương lai. Bạn được mời tham gia nghiên cứu vì Bạn là chính là người hiểu rõ nhất về người quản lý của mình. Sự tham gia của Bạn vào nghiên cứu này là hoàn toàn tự nguyện và Bạn quyết định hoàn tất bảng khảo sát. Bạn có thể rút khỏi nghiên cứu này mà không cần nêu lý do cũng như chịu bất kỳ kết quả nào. Tôi không ghi nhận tên của Bạn - Bạn sẽ hoàn toàn ẩn danh và không bao giờ được nhận dạng.

Mục đích của nghiên cứu này là gì?

Nghiên cứu này nhằm tìm hiểu năng lực lãnh đạo của quản trị viên trực tiếp trong khách sạn và sự tác động đến ý định chuyển việc của nhân viên. Nghiên cứu này được thực hiện trong quá trình học Tiến sĩ của tôi và kết quả của nghiên cứu sẽ là luận án và các bài báo nghiên cứu tường thuật lại kết quả nghiên cứu. Các khám phá từ nghiên cứu cũng có thể được sử dụng trong các ấn phẩm học thuật.

Vì sao tôi được biết đến và được mời tham gia và nghiên cứu này?

Bạn được mời tham gia nghiên cứu vì Bạn là chính là người hiểu rõ nhất về người quản lý của mình. Tôi đã tiếp xúc với bộ phận quản lý trong khách sạn để được phép mời những người như Bạn tham gia vào nghiên cứu. tuy nhiên họ sẽ không biết cụ thể là ai sẽ được mời tham gia.

Tôi sẽ đồng ý tham gia vào nghiên cứu này như thế nào?

Sự tham gia của bạn vào nghiên cứu này là tự nguyện (là sự lựa chọn của bạn) và bạn chọn tham gia hoặc không tham gia sẽ không bất lợi hay thuận lợi hơn cho bạn. Bạn có thể rút ra khỏi nghiên cứu này bất cứ lúc nào. Tuy nhiên, khi các câu trả lời (bảng hỏi được Bạn trả lời) đã được nộp, Bạn không thể rút lại được vì bảng hỏi hoàn toàn ẩn danh.

Điều gì sẽ xảy ra trong nghiên cứu này?

Nghiên cứu này sẽ sử dụng thông tin bạn cung cấp về năng lực thực hành lãnh đạo và thái độ để tìm hiểu yếu tố lãnh đạo có thể cải thiện thái độ người lao động như thế nào đối với công việc. Sự thông hiểu như thế là quan trọng và có tiềm năng rất lớn trong việc mang lại lợi ích cho tất cả các bên trong khách sạn bao gồm bạn, người quản lý và khách sạn. Tất cả những việc bạn phải làm là cho biết câu trả lời đúng nhất cho các ý kiến phát biểu nêu lên trong bảng khảo sát, kiểm tra xem đã hoàn thành bảng khảo sát chưa và gởi lại cho nghiên cứu viên trong phong bì đã có địa chỉ. Bạn có thể nhờ đến bộ phận thư tín trong khách sạn để chuyển đến cho nghiên cứu viên. Thông tin Bạn cung cấp sẽ hoàn toàn được ẩn danh và bí mật và chỉ sử dụng cho nghiên cứu này. Nhân dạng của Bạn và của người quản lý Bạn không thể và sẽ không được suy đoán ra từ thông tin Bạn cung cấp và chỉ có nghiên cứu viên mới tiếp cận được thông tin này, thông tin cũng sẽ được lưu trữ và sẽ được xoá đi sau khi được sử dụng theo chính sách của AUT.

Có những rủi ro và khó chịu nào không? Làm sao những rủi ro và khó chịu này được giải toả?

Quá trình này sẽ không gây ra bất cứ khó chịu hoặc rủi ro gì cho Bạn. Chúng tôi KHÔNG thu thập tên Bạn và cụ thể nơi làm việc của Bạn vì thế Bạn sẽ không thể nào được nhận dạng. Các câu trả lời của Bạn sẽ được cộng lại với nhau và phân tích trong phạm vi tổng hợp. Người quản lý bạn sẽ không thể biết hoặc nhìn thấy hoặc khiếu nại những gì Bạn trả lời hoặc việc Bạn trả lời.

Dữ liệu sẽ không được tiết lộ cho bất cứ ai ngoài nhóm nghiên cứu và sẽ được lưu trữ dạng hồ sơ khoá tại AUT. Các câu trả lời là hoàn toàn vô danh và nhân thân người trả lời hoàn toàn không thể nhận biết được với bất cứ cách nào.

Thế lợi ích là gì?

Sự hiểu rõ như thế là quan trọng và có tiềm năng rất lớn trong việc mang lại lợi ích cho tất cả các bên trong khách sạn bao gồm bạn, người quản lý và khách sạn. Những hàm ý chính sách mà nghiên cứu chỉ ra có thể được dùng bởi khách sạn và các trường nhằm huấn luyện nhân viên quản lý theo cách thức có thể giúp nhân viên cấp dưới thoả mãn hơn và phấn khởi với công việc.

Sự riêng tư của tôi được bảo vệ thế nào?

Thông tin bạn cung cấp là hoàn toàn bí mật, vô danh và chỉ được sử dụng cho nghiên cứu này. Không một ai, kể cả nghiên cứu viên có thể biết ai đã trả lời bảng khảo sát một khi nó được Bạn niêm phong và gởi đi. Bảng trả lời trên giấy hoặc online sẽ được quản lý chặt chẽ và chỉ có nghiên cứu viên và giảng viên hướng dẫn mới có thể tiếp cận nguồn dữ liệu được lưu trữ trong văn phòng của giảng viên hướng dẫn.

Các chi phí cho việc tham gia vào nghiên cứu này là gì?

Sẽ chỉ tốn của bạn từ 15 phút để hoàn tất bảng khảo sát.

Những cơ hội nào dành cho tôi khi xem xét lời mời này?

Cơ hội để các ý kiến của bạn về lãnh đạo là phải như thế nào sẽ được chú ý lắng nghe và xem xét.

Liệu tôi có nhận được phản hồi về kết quả của nghiên cứu này?

Bạn hoàn toàn có thể. Nghiên cứu viên sẽ công bố tóm tắt các bài viết liên quan đến nghiên cứu này trên tài khoản mạng xã hội Research Gate để công chúng có thể xem. Tài khoản đó là https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Vinh_Nguyen_Le2.

Tôi phải làm gì nếu tôi có những quan ngại về nghiên cứu này?

Bất cứ quan ngại nào về dự án này đề có thể nêu lên trước tiên tới người giám sát nghiên cứu qua *email: jarrod.haar@aut.ac.nz, phone:* +64 921 9999 ext 5034.

Những quan ngại liên quan tới cách thức thực hiện nghiên cứu cần nêu lên cho bộ phận Thư ký Điều hành của AUTEC, Kate O'Connor, *ethics@aut.ac.nz*, 921 9999 ext 6038.

Tôi có thể liên lạc thêm ai nữa để biết thêm về nghiên cứu này?

Xin vui lòng giữ lại phiếu này để tham khảo trong tương lai. Bạn cũng có thể liên lạc với nghiên cứu viên như sau:

Thông tin liên hệ nghiên cứu viên:

Le Vinh Nguyen, email: le.vinh.nguyen@gmail.com, phone: + 64 921 9999 ext 4171. Mobile: 0903 961919 (Vietnam)

Thông tin liên hệ người giám sát nghiên cứu:

Giáo sư Jarrod Haar, email: jarrod.haar@aut.ac.nz, phone: +64 921 9999 ext 5034.

Phiếu thông tin này đã được phê duyệt bởi Hội đồng Chuẩn mực Đại học Kỹ thuật Auckland vào ngày 12/9/2018
Số tham khảo của AUTEC 18/291
Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 12 September, 2018; AUTEC Reference number 18/291

Appendix D. Questionnaire (English)

My immediate supervisor (or manager):	*Strongly disagree*	*Somewhat disagree*	*Neutral*	*Somewhat agree*	*Strongly agree*
54. Knows how to accomplish the work I normally encounter	1	2	3	4	5
55. Has developed an excellent working knowledge of my job	1	2	3	4	5
56. Can assess my job performance	1	2	3	4	5
57. Can specify the most important standards to monitor in my work	1	2	3	4	5
58. Can specify performance objectives to cover the range of activities I perform	1	2	3	4	5
59. Follows through on commitments	1	2	3	4	5
60. Clearly communicates work objectives and responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
61. Takes actions on new ideas provided by employees	1	2	3	4	5
62. Consistently treats everyone with respect	1	2	3	4	5
63. Inspires commitment to the hotel's missions and goals	1	2	3	4	5
64. Considers both the hotel's goals and employees when making decisions	1	2	3	4	5

This section is about your job and your hotel
Please mark the most appropriate response to your level of agreement to the following statements

	Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Slightly disagree*	*Slightly agree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
65. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work	1	2	3	4	5	6
66. I feel fairly satisfied with my present job	1	2	3	4	5	6
67. I find real enjoyment in my work	1	2	3	4	5	6
68. I really feel as if this hotel's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5	6
69. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to this hotel	1	2	3	4	5	6
70. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this hotel	1	2	3	4	5	6
71. I do not feel like "part of the family" at this hotel	1	2	3	4	5	6
72. This hotel has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5	6
73. I am thinking about leaving this hotel	1	2	3	4	5	6
74. I am planning to look for a new job	1	2	3	4	5	6
75. I intend to ask people about new job opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6
76. I don't plan to be in this hotel much longer	1	2	3	4	5	6

End of Questionnaire. Thank you very much for your participation into this research project.

AUT
TE WĀNANGA ARONUI O TĀMAKI MAKAU RAU

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participant:

This questionnaire is for my PhD research at Auckland University of Technology. Your answers are anonymous and confidential. You can email any survey queries at: le.vinh.nguyen@aut.ac.nz. If you may have any queries about the study or confidentiality, you can email my Chief PhD supervisor, Professor Jarrod Haar, at jarrod.haar@aut.ac.nz.

Please be noted that your completion of this questionnaire is also your consent to provide information and take part in the research. Please **do not** answer this questionnaire if you are a seasonal or casual employee of the hotel. Please put your completed questionnaire back into the envelope, seal and return it to the researcher as instructed. Many thanks for your participation.

1. Your hotel star rating is: 3 star ❐ 4 star ❐ 5 star ❐

2. Please choose the department where you are working:
Housekeeping ❐ Front Office ❐ Food, Beverages and Recreation ❐
Security or Engineering ❐ Others ❐

3. Your gender is: Male ❐ Female ❐ Other ❐

4a.Your age group is: Under 20 years ❐ 20 to 30 years ❐ 31 to 40 years ❐
41 to 50 years ❐ Over 50 years ❐

4b. Your ethnicity is: European ❐ Maori ❐ Pacific Peoples ❐
Asian ❐ Middle Eastern/Latin American/African ❐ Others ❐

5. How long have you been working in your current job?
3 years and below ❐ 4 - 6 years ❐ 7 - 9 years ❐ 10 - 12 years ❐
13 years and above ❐

6. Your immediate supervisor or manager's gender is: Male ❐ Female ❐ Other ❐

7. You believe that your immediate supervisor (or manager) is in the age range of:
Under 20 years ❐ 20 to 30 years ❐ 31 to 40 years ❐ 41 to 50 years ❐ Over 50 years ❐

8. The number of subordinates that your immediate supervisor (or manager) manages is about:
Up to 5 ❐ 6-10 ❐ 11-15 ❐ 16-20 ❐ Over 20 ❐

Please read the following statements about your immediate supervisor (or manager) and mark the point to your level of agreement.

My immediate supervisor (or manager):	*Strongly disagree*	*Somewhat disagree*	*Neutral*	*Somewhat agree*	*Strongly agree*
9. Conducts their personal life in an ethical manner	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. Has the best interests of employees in mind	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. Makes fair and balanced decisions	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. Can be trusted	①	②	③	④	⑤
13. Discusses business ethics or values with employees	①	②	③	④	⑤
14. Is sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others	①	②	③	④	⑤
15. Has a good understanding of the emotions of people around them	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. Is able to control their temper so that they can handle difficulties rationally	①	②	③	④	⑤
17. Always calms down quickly if they get very angry	①	②	③	④	⑤
18. Has good control of their emotions	①	②	③	④	⑤
19. Appreciates and leverages the abilities, insights, and ideas of all individuals	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. Works effectively with individuals of diverse style, ability, and thought	①	②	③	④	⑤
21. Ensures that the workplace is free from discriminatory behaviour and practices	①	②	③	④	⑤
22. Embraces the inclusion of all people	①	②	③	④	⑤
23. Proactively seeks new learning opportunities	①	②	③	④	⑤
24. Sees learning new knowledge as a key skill	①	②	③	④	⑤
25. Applies newly gained knowledge and skill on the job	①	②	③	④	⑤
26. Takes personal risks to advance their learning	①	②	③	④	⑤
27. Shares information with clarity, candour, and purpose	①	②	③	④	⑤
28. Speaks and writes in a coherent and effective manner	①	②	③	④	⑤
29. Clearly articulates a point of view	①	②	③	④	⑤
30. Listens carefully to ensure accuracy of understanding when communicating with others	①	②	③	④	⑤
31. Actively engages in debating ideas and the right course of action	①	②	③	④	⑤

My immediate supervisor (or manager) effectively manages ***conflicts*** *among team members concerning any following issues:*	*Strongly disagree*	*Somewhat disagree*	*Neutral*	*Somewhat agree*	*Strongly agree*
32. Personality differences	①	②	③	④	⑤
33. Work habits	①	②	③	④	⑤
34. Safety issues	①	②	③	④	⑤
35. Work roles	①	②	③	④	⑤
36. Scheduling issues	①	②	③	④	⑤
37. Getting the job done	①	②	③	④	⑤

My immediate supervisor (or manager):	*Strongly disagree*	*Somewhat disagree*	*Neutral*	*Somewhat agree*	*Strongly agree*
38. Does not require that I get their input or approval before making decisions.	①	②	③	④	⑤
39. Lets me make decisions by myself, without consulting with them.	①	②	③	④	⑤
40. Lets me to ask them for information and then make job-related decisions for myself.	①	②	③	④	⑤
41. Gives me areas where I decide on my own, after first getting information from them	①	②	③	④	⑤
42. Permits me to get needed information from them and then make my own decisions.	①	②	③	④	⑤
43. Creates a safe climate for team members to openly and supportively discuss any issue related to the team's success	①	②	③	④	⑤
44. Looks for and acknowledges contributions by team members	①	②	③	④	⑤
45. Understands the technical issues we must face in achieving our goal	①	②	③	④	⑤
46. Does not dilute our team's effort with too many priorities	①	②	③	④	⑤
47. Is willing to confront and resolve issues associated with inadequate performance by team members	①	②	③	④	⑤
48. Provides me with resources so that I can perform my job more effectively	①	②	③	④	⑤
49. Sets expectations with me and communicates the importance of those expectations to the broader goals of the hotel	①	②	③	④	⑤
50. Asks questions to help me think through issues rather than provides solutions	①	②	③	④	⑤
51. Provides me with constructive feedback	①	②	③	④	⑤
52. Solicits feedback from me to ensure that their interactions are helpful to me	①	②	③	④	⑤
53. To help me see different perspectives, my manager role-plays with me	①	②	③	④	⑤

Appendix E. Questionnaire (Vietnamese)

Giám sát (hay quản lý) trực tiếp của Tôi	*Hoàn toàn không đồng ý*	*Không đồng ý đôi chút*	*Trung dung*	*Đồng ý đôi chút*	*Hoàn toàn đồng ý*
55. Đã hoàn thiện kiến thức chuyên môn xuất sắc về công việc của tôi	①	②	③	④	⑤
56. Có thể đánh giá việc thực hiện công việc của tôi	①	②	③	④	⑤
57. Có thể cụ thể hoá các tiêu chuẩn quan trọng nhất để kiểm soát trong công việc của tôi	①	②	③	④	⑤
58. Có thể cụ thể hoá các mục tiêu công việc bao quát mọi hoạt động mà tôi thực hiện	①	②	③	④	⑤
59. Luôn hoàn thành các điều cam kết	①	②	③	④	⑤
60. Truyền đạt rõ ràng các mục tiêu công việc và trách nhiệm	①	②	③	④	⑤
61. Thực hiện các ý tưởng mới do nhân viên đề xuất	①	②	③	④	⑤
62. Đối xử trân trọng với tất cả mọi người một cách nhất quán	①	②	③	④	⑤
63. Thúc đẩy sự cam kết đối với các mục tiêu và sứ mạng của Khách sạn	①	②	③	④	⑤
64. Cân nhắc cho cả mục tiêu lẫn nhân viên của Khách sạn khi ra các quyết định	①	②	③	④	⑤

Phần này liên quan đến công việc của Bạn và Khách sạn Bạn làm việc
Vui lòng đánh dấu chọn câu trả lời phù hợp với mức độ đồng ý của Bạn cho các phát biểu sau

	Hoàn toàn không đồng ý	*Không đồng ý*	*Không đồng ý đôi chút*	*Đồng ý đôi chút*	*Đồng ý*	*Hoàn toàn đồng ý*
65. Hầu hết mọi ngày tôi nhiệt tình với công việc của mình	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
66. Tôi cảm thấy khá thoả mãn với công việc hiện tại	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
67. Tôi tìm thấy niềm vui thực sự trong công việc của mình	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
68. Tôi thực sự cảm thấy các vấn đề của Khách sạn này là của chính mình	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
69. Tôi không có cảm giác mình thuộc về khách sạn này	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
70. Tôi không cảm thấy gắn bó về mặt cảm xúc đối với Khách sạn này	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
71. Tôi không có cảm giác mình như là "thành viên trong gia đình" ở Khách sạn này	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
72. Khách sạn này có một ý nghĩa cá nhân rất lớn đối với tôi	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
73. Tôi đang nghĩ về việc nghỉ việc ở Khách sạn này	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
74. Tôi đang lên kế hoạch tìm kiếm một việc làm mới	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
75. Tôi dự định hỏi mọi người về các cơ hội việc làm mới	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
76. Tôi không có kế hoạch ở lại khách sạn này lâu hơn nữa	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥

---HẾT---Xin cám ơn Bạn rất nhiều vì đã tham gia vào nghiên cứu này.

AUT
TE WĀNANGA ARONUI Ō TĀMAKI MAKAU RAU

BẢNG CÂU HỎI NGHIÊN CỨU

Chào quý Bạn,

Bảng câu hỏi dưới đây dành cho nghiên cứu Tiến sĩ của tôi ở Trường Đại học Công nghệ Auckland (New Zealand). Các câu trả lời của bạn là hoàn toàn ẩn danh và bí mật. Bạn có thể gởi email những thắc mắc về nghiên cứu đến le.vinh.nguyen@aut.ac.nz. Nếu như Bạn có thắc mắc thêm về nghiên cứu này hoặc về tính bí mật, Bạn có thể gởi email tới người Giám sát nghiên cứu theo địa chỉ email: jarrod.haar@aut.ac.nz.

Xin lưu ý là sự trả lời bảng câu hỏi này cũng chính là sự đồng ý cung cấp thông tin cũng như tham gia vào nghiên cứu này của Bạn. Vui lòng **không** trả lời nếu bạn là nhân viên thời vụ của khách sạn. Vui lòng cho bảng câu hỏi đã trả lời vào phong bì, niêm phong và gởi lại nghiên cứu viên theo hướng dẫn hoặc tại Lễ tân khách sạn. Xin chân thành cám ơn sự tham gia của Bạn.

1. Hạng khách sạn bạn đang làm việc là: 3 sao ❒ 4 sao ❒ 5 sao ❒

2. Vui lòng chọn bộ phận bạn đang làm việc

   Buồng (phòng) ❒ Tiền sảnh ❒ Ẩm thực và giải trí ❒

   An ninh hoặc Kỹ thuật ❒ Bộ phận khác ❒

3. Bạn là Nam ❒ Nữ ❒ Khác ❒

4. Độ tuổi của Bạn:

   Dưới 20 tuổi ❒ 20 đến 30 tuổi ❒ 31 đến 40 tuổi ❒ 41 đến 50 tuổi ❒

   Trên 50 tuổi ❒

5. Bạn đã làm công việc hiện tại trong:

   Từ 3 năm trở xuống ❒ 4 - 6 năm ❒ 7 - 9 năm ❒ 10 - 12 năm ❒

   Trên 13 năm ❒

6. Cấp trên trực tiếp của Bạn là: Nam ❒ Nữ ❒ Khác ❒

7. Độ tuổi cấp trên trực tiếp của Bạn là:

   Dưới 20 tuổi ❒ 20 đến 30 tuổi ❒ 31 đến 40 tuổi ❒ 41 đến 50 tuổi ❒

   Trên 50 tuổi ❒

8. Số nhân viên dưới quyền của người quản lý trực tiếp Bạn là:

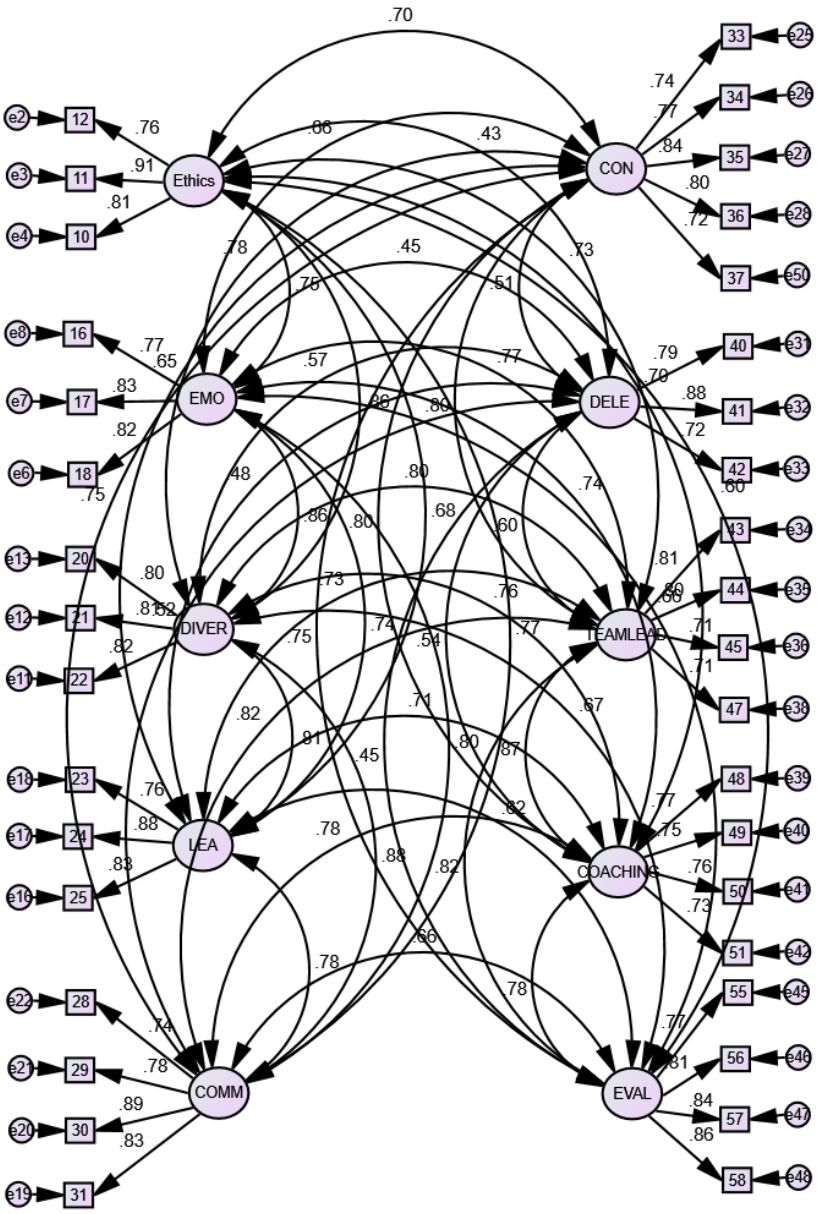
   Dưới 5 người ❒ Từ 6-10 người ❒ Từ 11-15 người ❒ Từ 16-20 người ❒
   Trên 20 người ❒

Xin vui lòng đọc các phát biểu dưới đây về người giám sát (hoặc quản lý) trực tiếp của Bạn và đánh dấu mức điểm mà bạn đồng ý

Giám sát (hay quản lý) trực tiếp của Tôi	*Hoàn toàn không đồng ý*	*Không đồng ý đôi chút*	*Trung dung*	*Đồng ý đôi chút*	*Hoàn toàn đồng ý*
9. Thể hiện lối sống cá nhân một cách có đạo đức	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. Để tâm đến quyền lợi tốt nhất của nhân viên	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. Ra các quyết định đúng đắn và công bằng	①	②	③	④	⑤
12. Có thể tin cậy được	①	②	③	④	⑤
13. Thảo luận các giá trị hoặc đạo đức trong kinh doanh với nhân viên	①	②	③	④	⑤
14. Nhạy cảm với cảm xúc và cảm nhận của người khác	①	②	③	④	⑤
15. Có sự thấu hiểu về cảm xúc của mọi người xung quanh	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. Có thể kiểm soát tâm trạng của bản thân và vì thế có thể xử trí các vấn đề khó khăn một cách hợp lý	①	②	③	④	⑤
17. Luôn luôn bình tĩnh trở lại nhanh chóng khi rất tức giận	①	②	③	④	⑤
18. Có sự kiểm soát tốt cảm xúc của anh/chị ấy	①	②	③	④	⑤
19. Đề cao và vận dụng khả năng, sự hiểu biết và ý tưởng của mọi người	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. Làm việc hiệu quả với tất cả mọi người với phong cách, khả năng và suy nghĩ khác nhau	①	②	③	④	⑤
21. Đảm bảo nơi làm việc không có hành vi và thực hành phân biệt đối xử	①	②	③	④	⑤
22. Đón nhận sự hoà nhập của mọi người	①	②	③	④	⑤
23. Chủ động tìm kiếm các cơ hội học tập mới	①	②	③	④	⑤
24. Xem việc học tập các kiến thức mới là một kỹ năng then chốt	①	②	③	④	⑤
25. Ứng dụng kiến thức và kỹ năng mới vào công việc	①	②	③	④	⑤
26. Chấp nhận rủi ro cá nhân để thúc đẩy việc học	①	②	③	④	⑤
27. Chia sẻ thông tin một cách rõ ràng, chân thật và có mục đích	①	②	③	④	⑤
28. Nói và viết mạch lạc và có hiệu quả	①	②	③	④	⑤
29. Nêu lên một quan điểm nào đó thật rõ ràng	①	②	③	④	⑤
30. Lắng nghe cẩn thận để đảm bảo hiểu chính xác khi giao tiếp với người khác	①	②	③	④	⑤
31. Chủ động tham gia vào việc tranh luận về ý tưởng và về cách thức hành động đúng đắn	①	②	③	④	⑤

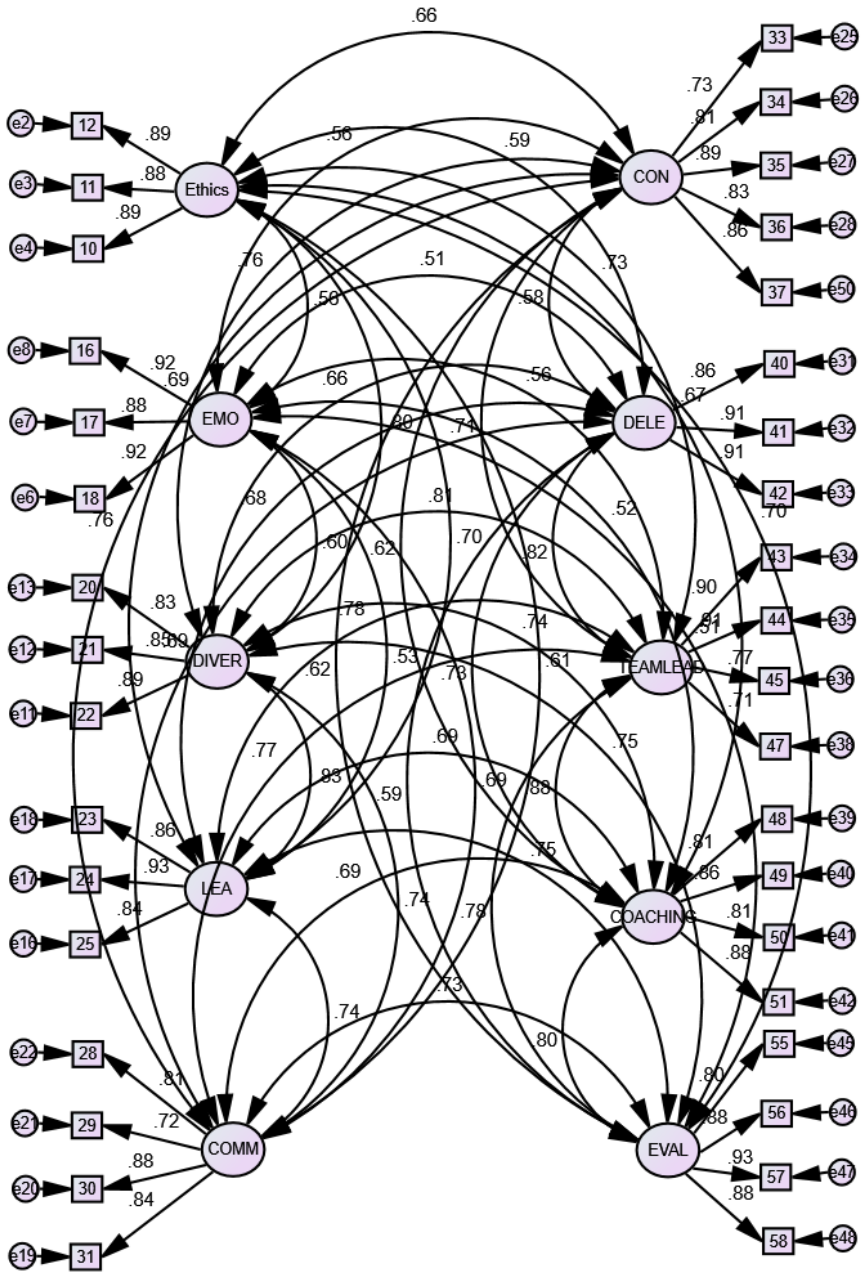
Giám sát (hay quản lý) trực tiếp của Tôi xử lý hiệu quả các mâu thuẫn giữa các thành viên trong nhóm liên quan tới những vấn đề sau:	*Hoàn toàn không đồng ý*	*Không đồng ý đôi chút*	*Trung dung*	*Đồng ý đôi chút*	*Hoàn toàn đồng ý*
32. Những sự khác biệt về cá tính	①	②	③	④	⑤
33. Các thói quen làm việc	①	②	③	④	⑤
34. Các vấn đề về an toàn	①	②	③	④	⑤
35. Vai trò mọi người trong công việc	①	②	③	④	⑤
36. Các vấn đề liên quan đến kế hoạch công việc	①	②	③	④	⑤
37. Làm xong công việc	①	②	③	④	⑤
Giám sát (hay quản lý) trực tiếp của Tôi	*Hoàn toàn không đồng ý*	*Không đồng ý đôi chút*	*Trung dung*	*Đồng ý đôi chút*	*Hoàn toàn đồng ý*
38. Không yêu cầu tôi lấy ý kiến hoặc sự chấp thuận từ anh/chị ấy trước khi tôi đưa ra các quyết định	①	②	③	④	⑤
39. Cho phép tôi tự đưa ra các quyết định, không cần hỏi ý kiến anh/chị ấy	①	②	③	④	⑤
40. Cho phép tôi hỏi anh/chị ấy thêm thông tin và sau đó tự đưa ra các quyết định về công việc cho mình	①	②	③	④	⑤
41. Giao cho tôi những lĩnh vực mà tôi có thể tự quyết định, sau khi đã lấy thêm thông tin từ anh/chị ấy	①	②	③	④	⑤
42. Cho tôi hỏi thêm thông tin cần thiết từ anh/chị ấy và sau đó tự ra quyết định của riêng mình	①	②	③	④	⑤
43. Tạo môi trường an toàn để các thành viên trong nhóm thảo luận một cách cởi mở và có tính hỗ trợ về bất cứ vấn đề gì liên quan đến sự thành công của nhóm	①	②	③	④	⑤
44. Tìm kiếm và ghi nhận đóng góp của các thành viên	①	②	③	④	⑤
45. Hiểu các vấn đề kỹ thuật mà chúng tôi phải đối mặt để đạt được mục tiêu của chúng tôi	①	②	③	④	⑤
46. Không tiêu hao nỗ lực của nhóm vào quá nhiều việc ưu tiên	①	②	③	④	⑤
47. Sẵn lòng đối phó và hoá giải các rắc rối liên quan tới việc thực hiện công việc chưa thoả đáng của các thành viên trong nhóm	①	②	③	④	⑤
48. Cung cấp cho tôi nguồn lực để tôi có thể thực hiện nhiệm vụ một cách hiệu quả hơn	①	②	③	④	⑤
49. Đặt ra các kỳ vọng cho tôi và cho biết tầm quan trọng của những kỳ vọng đó đối với các mục tiêu rộng hơn của Khách sạn	①	②	③	④	⑤
50. Đặt ra các câu hỏi để giúp tôi suy nghĩ cách giải quyết vấn đề, thay vì cung cấp các giải pháp	①	②	③	④	⑤
51. Trao cho tôi các phản hồi có tính xây dựng	①	②	③	④	⑤
52. Khuyến khích sự phản hồi từ phía tôi để chắc chắn rằng sự tương tác của anh/chị ấy có ích cho tôi	①	②	③	④	⑤
53. Để giúp tôi hiểu các quan điểm khác nhau, anh/chị ấy trao đổi vai với tôi	①	②	③	④	⑤
54. Biết cách hoàn thành công việc mà tôi vẫn thường gặp phải	①	②	③	④	⑤

Appendix F. CFA result of measurement model – Vietnamese sample



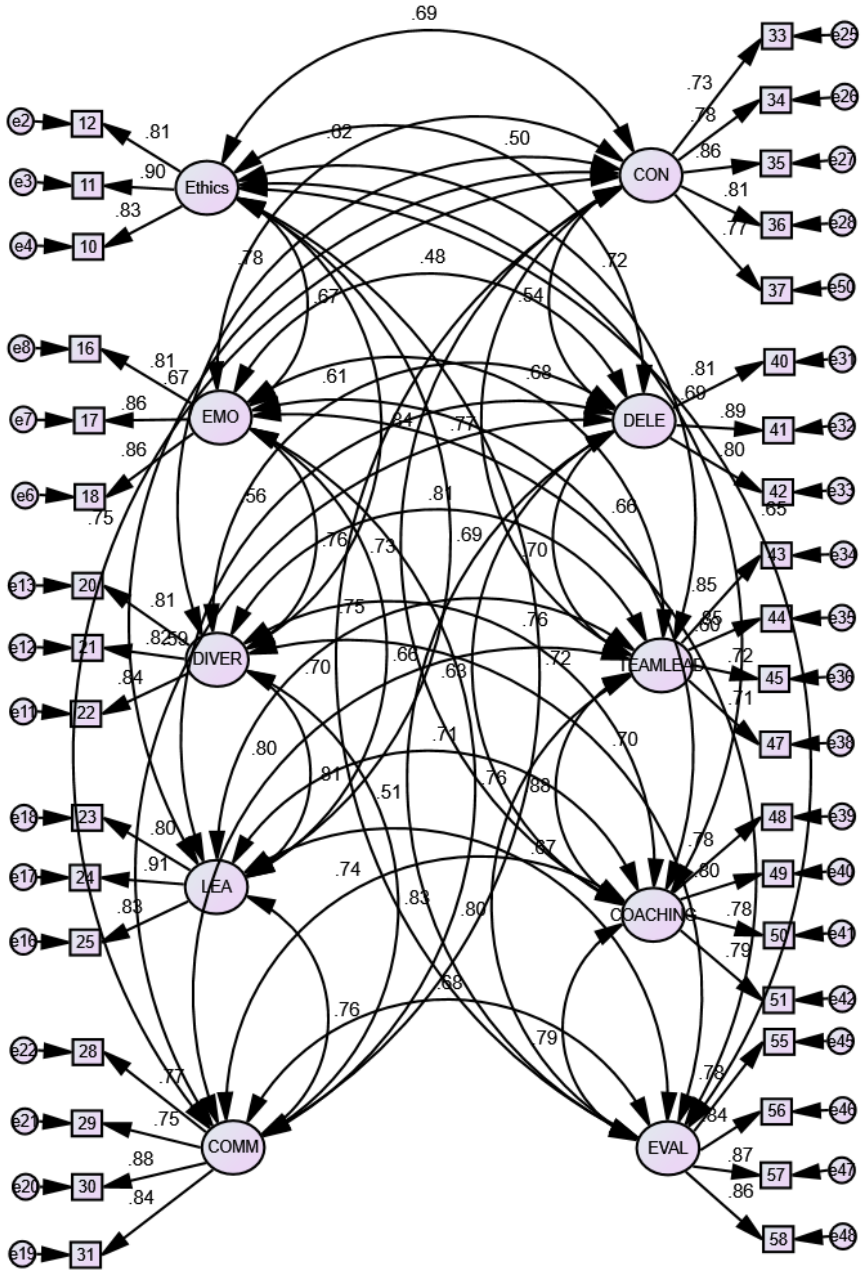
χ^2 (549) = 939.9 (p= .000), CFI= .94, TLI= .93, RMSEA= .05, and SRMR= .04

Appendix G. CFA result of measurement model – New Zealand sample



χ^2 (549) = 877.9 (p= .000), CFI= .91, TLI= .90, RMSEA= .07, and SRMR= .05

Appendix H. CFA result of measurement model – Merged sample



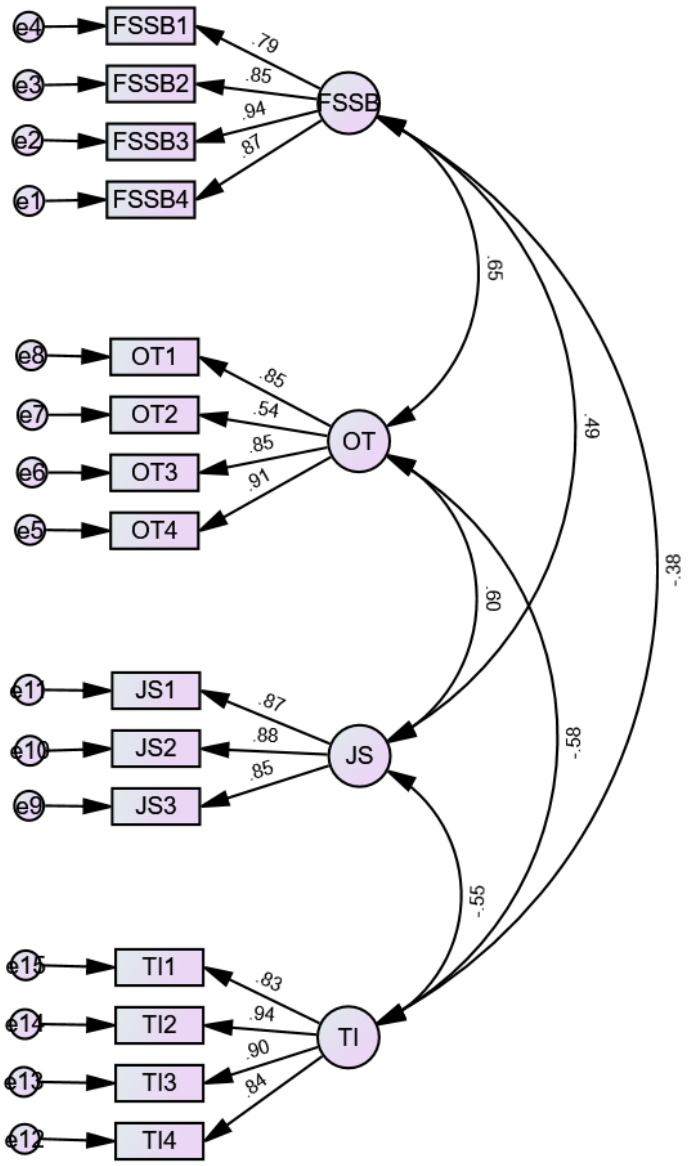
χ^2 (549) = 919.9 (p= .000), CFI= .96, TLI= .96, RMSEA= .04, and SRMR= .03

Appendix I. Study Items and Factor Loadings

Constructs & Items	Factor Loadings		
	Vietnam	New Zealand	Merged sample
Ethical leadership			
Has the best interests of employees in mind	.763	.893	.809
Makes fair and balanced decisions	.912	.883	.903
Can be trusted	.809	891	.834
Emotional leadership			
Is able to control their temper so that they can handle difficulties rationally	.771	.922	.809
Always calms down quickly if they get very angry	.833	.880	.861
Has good control of their emotions	.822	.920	.858
Diversity leadership			
Works effectively with individuals of diverse style, ability, and thought	.796	.831	.810
Ensures that the workplace is free from discriminatory behaviour and practices	.810	.852	.823
Embraces the inclusion of all people	.824	.894	.843
Learning			
Proactively seeks new learning opportunities	.760	.858	.801
Sees learning new knowledge as a key skill	.883	.935	.910
Applies newly gained knowledge and skill on the job	.827	.843	.830
Communication			
Speaks and writes in a coherent and effective manner	.739	.814	.767
Clearly articulates a point of view	.776	.718	.752
Listens carefully to ensure accuracy of understanding when communicating with others	.889	.876	.882
Actively engages in debating ideas and the right course of action	.833	.843	.840
Manging conflicts			
Work habits	.738	.726	.734
Safety issues	.766	.808	.781
Work roles	.835	.895	.859
Scheduling issues	.800	.829	.809
Getting the job done	.723	.855	.773
Delegation			

Lets me to ask them for information and then make job-related decisions for myself	.791	.858	.812
Gives me areas where I decide on my own, after first getting information from them	.884	.911	.889
Permits me to get needed information from them and then make my own decisions.	.717	.911	.796
Team leadership			
Creates a safe climate for team members to openly and supportively discuss any issue related to the team's success	.811	.898	.851
Looks for and acknowledges contributions by team members	.799	.908	.849
Understands the technical issues we must face in achieving our goal	.705	.772	.723
Is willing to confront and resolve issues associated with inadequate performance by team members	.713	.710	.706
Coaching			
Provides me with resources so that I can perform my job more effectively	.766	.814	.784
Sets expectations with me and communicates the importance of those expectations to the broader goals of the hotel	.746	.864	.798
Asks questions to help me think through issues rather than provides solutions	.756	.809	.780
Provides me with constructive feedback	.732	.882	.791
Managing performance			
Has developed an excellent working knowledge of my job	.773	.799	.784
Can assess my job performance	.808	.884	.838
Can specify the most important standards to monitor in my work	.838	.928	.870
Can specify performance objectives to cover the range of activities I perform	.861	.882	.864

Appendix J. CFA result of measurement model – FSSB sample



χ^2 (84) = 118.8 (p= .008), CFI= .98, TLI= .98, RMSEA= .05, and SRMR= .04

Appendix K. Study Items and Factor Loadings (FSSB)

Constructs & Items	Factor loadings
Family supportive supervisor behaviours	
My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him/her about my conflicts between work and non-work	.787
My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work issues	.850
My supervisor works effectively with employees to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work	.937
My supervisor...-Organizes the work in my department or unit to jointly benefit employees and the company	.867
Organisational trust	
I believe my employer has high integrity	.853
My employer is not always honest and truthful [has been reversed]	.544
In general, I believe my employer's motives and intentions are good	.847
My employer is open and upfront with me	.908
Job satisfaction	
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work	.867
I feel fairly satisfied with my present job	.883
I find real enjoyment in my work	.855
Turnover intentions	
I am thinking about leaving my organization	.826
I am planning to look for a new job	.941
I intend to ask people about new job opportunities	.903
I don’t plan to be at my organisation much longer	.844