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## Use of leadership practices by the managers and their impact on the job satisfaction of employees in the hotel industry

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**USE OF LEADERSHIP PRACTICES BY THE MANAGERS AND THEIR IMPACT  
ON THE JOB SATISFACTION OF EMPLOYEES  
IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY**

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**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment  
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**Master of Science**

**in**

**Hotel Administration**

**William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration  
University of Nevada, Las Vegas  
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**Thesis Approval**  
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is approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
Master of Science

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **Use of Leadership Practices by the Managers and their Impact on the Job Satisfaction of Employees in the Hotel Industry**

**By**

**Jasvir Singh**

**Dr. Gerald E. Goll, Examination Committee Chair  
Professor of Hotel Administration  
University of Nevada, Las Vegas**

The purpose of this exploratory study was to determine the differences, if any, between leadership practices used by hotel managers and the perceptions of those leadership practices by employees relative to their job satisfaction. Differences in perception of leadership practices were measured using two identical instruments- one for managers, and the other for their employees. Employees' overall job satisfaction was measured using an additional instrument. Data were collected from 26 managers and 294 employees at five participating non-gaming hotel properties in Las Vegas, Nevada. Five research questions along with two hypotheses were tested. The finding of this study indicated that employees' job satisfaction is more closely related to their perceptions of leadership practices used by their manager. The basis of this study was supported through an extensive literature review, followed by a statistical analysis to suggest conclusion and recommendation for future research.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

Low unemployment rates, combined with aggressive recruiting within a limited talent pool, have made attracting and retaining the best people in the hospitality industry increasingly difficult. The seemingly ever-increasing employee turnover rate in the hotel industry has given cause to hypothesize the manifestations related to this concern and the impact on the overall health of the organization. Numerous methods have been suggested to motivate and to satisfy the employees, and an emphasis has been placed on the tangible aspects of employee satisfaction. However, much less attention has been given to applying the results of psychological and sociological research with respect to the impact of leadership behaviors upon job satisfaction. This lack of recognition of well researched and ever evolving concepts and theories has cost the hotel industry billions of dollars as well as the best employees. All-too-often, employee turnover has been viewed as a problem rather than a symptom of a problem.

The issue of high employee turnover goes hand in hand with their intention to quit or stay in the organization. It is well established in cognitive psychology that a person's state of mind determines his/her emotions, impacts the psychological state, and strongly influences the behavior. Prior to leaving an organization, an employee may have behavioral and attitude problems that are manifested in low morale, poor performance and absenteeism (Williams, DeMicco, daSilva & Vannucci, 1995). Without commitment



the employee has no sense of responsibility for others. Similarly, organizational commitment must arise out of and be related to factors most important to the employee. The employee displays such a commitment when personal values are blended with thoughts, words and actions. The financial impact of employee turnover has been felt by the industry leaders. Comeau (1994) quotes Arthur Nathan, vice president of human resources at the Mirage Resorts Inc., stating the estimate cost of \$144,000 per percentage point of employee turnover in an organization.

Management scholars have postulated a relationship between the leadership of an organization and the productivity and job satisfaction of employees (Argyris, 1957; Herzberg, Mausner, & Synerdeman, 1959; Likert, 1967, and McGregor, 1961). More recent research has suggested that leadership of an organization affects organizational outcomes and influences those served by these organizations (Bass, 1985; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Klimoski & Hayes, 1980; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Ongoing research has focussed on testing these relationships. Such variables as bureaucratic or participative style, locus of control, risk taking, age and functional background, and reward/punishment behavior of the leader have been examined in relation to strategy formulation and performance (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1993; Williams, Podsakoff, & Huber, 1992). While research in other fields has established a positive relationship between leadership behavior and job satisfaction, employee retention, and organizational commitment, there is evident lack of such initiative in the hospitality field of research.

#### **Purpose Statement**

This exploratory study was intended to determine the relationship of leadership practices to employee job satisfaction. The purpose was to identify specific leadership

practices and to investigate the relationship between the use of those practices by hotel department managers, and job satisfaction of their employees. This study attempted to evaluate the leadership model (Kouzes & Posner, 1997) with regard to employee job satisfaction model (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson and Paul, 1989). Impact of leadership behaviors upon job satisfaction was studied within hotel industry parameters defined in the later sections of this chapter.

### Objectives

In expounding on the purpose of the study, several objectives were established. These include:

1. To distinguish the relationship between the manager's own leadership behavior, and the employees' perception of those leadership behaviors.
2. To explore the impact of inconsistency, if any, between the manager's leadership behavior and the employees' perceptions of those behaviors relative to their level of job satisfaction.
3. To identify leadership practices that have positive or functional effects on employee job satisfaction or vice versa.
4. To specify recommendations in the light of the findings of this study.

### Research Questions

1. What leadership practices are displayed by managers of non-gaming lodging properties in Henderson, and Las Vegas, Nevada?
2. What do the employees at the non-gaming lodging properties in Henderson, and Las Vegas, Nevada perceive about the use of leadership practices by their managers?

3. What is the employee job satisfaction at the non-gaming lodging properties in Henderson, and Las Vegas, Nevada?
4. What is the impact of demographic information on an employee's overall job satisfaction level and their perception of leadership practices displayed by their managers.
5. What relationship exists between the inconsistency, if any determined in manager's leadership behaviors and employees' perceptions of those behaviors, and the employee job satisfaction?

An analysis of these research questions may provide useful information. The identification of leadership practices displayed by the managers and the perception of those practices by their subordinates may benefit the management to identify leadership strengths and weaknesses. It will help to indicate the impact of leadership practices on the employees. It will also help recruiters responsible to select and hire management. The results of this study may provide the hotel industry with new human resource insights to develop action plans for continuing leadership development.

These research questions were examined by administering three separate instruments to hotel managers and their subordinates. The Leadership Practices Inventory - Self (Appendix A), developed by Kouzes and Posner (1997) and the Leadership Practices Inventory - Observer (Appendix B), also developed by Kouzes and Posner (1997) were used to identify the leadership practices. Job In General (Appendix C) developed by Ironson et al. (1989) was used to determine the overall job satisfaction of employees. All three instruments are discussed in detail in chapter three.

### Hypotheses

This study, exploratory in nature, intended to gain insights into previously mentioned research questions. Although such studies do not necessarily require hypotheses, the following hypotheses were developed in order to further define the research questions.

#### Hypothesis 1

Ho<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between a manager's use of leadership practices and the observed leadership practices of those managers by their employees ( $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ ).

Ha<sub>1</sub>: There is a significant difference between a manager's use of leadership practices and the observed leadership practices of managers by the employees ( $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ )

#### Hypothesis 2

Ho<sub>2</sub>: Manager's use of leadership practices as perceived by the employees will not influence job satisfaction of employees ( $\beta = 0$ )

Ha<sub>2</sub>: Manager's use of leadership practices as perceived by the employees will influence job satisfaction of employees ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

### Justification

A number of theories and concepts of leadership behavior, employee motivation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment may be found in social and psychological field of research, and they are discussed in chapter two. But, little literature relevant to their applications in the hospitality industry is available. Little or no research effort has gone into determining the impact of these theories on the hotel industry in which the delivery of service excellence is influenced through leadership and commitment. Employees are the core elements in the hospitality business; their behavior is a major

factor in the net outcome on an organization. Leadership plays an important role to influence and facilitate those behaviors. Just recently, hospitality industry leaders have begun to realize the impact of these theories on the well-being and profitability of the organization.

A great deal of research effort has hypothesized the employee turnover as a problem as opposed to symptoms of a problem. The resulting manifestations have focused on the tangible aspect of employee satisfaction. There has been an apparent disregard towards the possible remedies available in sociological and psychological research where the issue of employee satisfaction and turnover is related to the leadership provided by management. As the United States' economic base continues to shift from manufacturing to service related employment locating, compensating, and retaining qualified employees becomes increasingly important for the hotel industry. Although we can learn a great deal from the existing body of research knowledge in the field of industrial/organizational psychology, it is important that new research be conducted within the industry's own settings.

### Constraints

Due to the nature of the study and the paucity of evidence in the literature related to the hotel industry, certain constraints were inherent. Some of these constraints (limitations) were beyond the influence of the researcher, and others (delimitations) were self-imposed to maintain the scope of the study to a manageable level.

### Limitations

1. The study was limited to the conscious self-understanding of the participants, and the frankness with which they responded to the survey. Assured anonymity of the respondent's participation was used to control this limitation.
2. Due to the inability of the properties to provide direct access to the researcher to supervise the administration of survey instrument, the administration of survey was limited to the assumption of responsibility by each coordinator at the participating properties. A detailed explanations of the questionnaires along with the instructions to carry out the survey as well as the contact information regarding the researcher was provided to each coordinator to control this limitation.
3. Most of the respondents answered on the higher end of the scale which resulted in a skew in data. Transformations of data were attempted to overcome this limitation.
4. Employee data were matched against their respective manager data, which reduced the sample size. The reduced sample size restricted the use of some statistical analysis procedures.

### Delimitations

1. This research was de-limited to non-gaming hotel properties in the geographic region of Henderson and Las Vegas, Nevada. All participating properties belonged to a major international hotel chain.
2. The study was further delimited by the minimum number of employees required under the supervision of the participating managers. Minimum requirement of four employees was established to reduce inconsistencies, if any. It was also used as a

measure to ensure anonymity of employees. A management roster was provided by the each participating property fulfilling the requirement.

3. The study was further de-limited to the five categories of leadership practices as documented by Kouzes and Posner (1997). They categorized the result of their extensive study on leadership behaviors into the following five categories:-
  - a. Challenging the process,
  - b. Inspiring a shared vision,
  - c. Enabling others to act,
  - d. Modeling the way, and
  - e. Encouraging the heart.
4. This study measured the global job satisfaction of employees upon 18 one-to -three word adjective-response scale (Job - In - General scale) as developed by Ironson et al. (1989). The authors of the JIG scale narrowed the list to 18 adjectives following extensive research on overall job-satisfaction of employees.
5. The validity of the study was limited due to the voluntary participation by the respondents, and the de-limitation of sample frame belonging to one company. Caution needs to be exercised while attempting to make generalization regarding other hotel properties using results obtained in this research.
6. The study was further delimited by the duration of survey administration. The survey was administered over a seven-day period in June 1998. Manager(s) and/employee(s) who were not available during this period were eliminated from the study.
7. Respondents who failed to respond to more than three questions were eliminated from the study.

## Definitions

**Charisma:** Charisma has been defined as the leader's ability to instill pride, faith and respect, or the leader's ability to generate great symbolic power with which the employee wants to identify.

**Commitment:** Commitment is defined as not just following through on a promise or fulfilling an obligation. A true commitment is maintained constantly and with passion. It is not only a matter of mind, but also of the heart.

**Extrinsic Motivator:** A motivator that is considered tangible, objective and externally derived from the organization or its environment. Generally satisfies lower order needs such as survival and safety/security.

**Intrinsic Motivator:** A motivator that is intangible, subjective and internally derived by the individual through his/her own actions. Generally satisfies higher order needs such as achievement, recognition and personal growth.

**Leadership:** Leadership is a process of social influence in which one person is able to enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task. As stated by Goll, "Leadership is simply helping others to help themselves" (1998, p. 104)

**Motivation:** A process by which a person is stimulated or influenced to take a preferred or desired action towards a goal (Goll, 1998).

## Organization of the study

Employee job-satisfaction to the organization has become an important issue for the companies as they recognize the benefits of staying competitive in the labor market. This study was designed to identify the leadership behaviors that may have effect on the job satisfaction of the employee. This study has been organized in five chapters. Chapter



I provides an introduction to this study, including the statement of the problem, the purpose and the objectives of the study, limitations, and the delimitations of the study. Chapter II is the literature review. The literature review mainly covers the previous literature regarding leadership, motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Chapter III discusses the methodology employed in this study including surveys, and questionnaire design. Chapter IV presents the findings of the study and analyzes the results. Finally, Chapter V provides a summary of findings and conclusions in relation to the study purpose and objectives. With the limitation of the study, suggestions for future research are provided in this chapter.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

**In an attempt to address the issue of leadership behavior and organizational commitment, this research has drawn upon various theories that have long been advocated in the fields of psychology and sociology. A review of these theories along with a discussion of the concepts of leadership, job satisfaction and the organizational commitment in the hotel industry are presented in this chapter.**

### **APPLICATIONS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIOLOGICAL THEORIES IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY**

**For almost a century, organizational psychologists and their predecessors have been trying to understand the intricacies of employee motivation and satisfaction. From scientific management (Fredrick W. Taylor) to time and motion studies (Gilbreth, 1914), and from factors affecting employee fatigue and monotony (Ryan, 1947) to the effects of peer groups and supervisors on performance and morale (Mayo, 1946) researchers have striven to measure job satisfaction quantitatively. Considerable attention has also been given to factors such as participation (Likert, 1961), the attributes of work itself (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959), and monetary rewards (Lawler, 1971) as methods of enhancing job satisfaction. Research has indicated that employees who are experiencing job satisfaction are more likely to stay in job; and likewise job dissatisfaction is related to absenteeism and employee turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993).**

Researchers in organizational behavior assert that a manager's leadership, or leader behavior, affects employee attitude and behavior (Bass, 1981; Fleishman, 1972; Stogdill, 1963). Surveys of job satisfaction from the 1920s onward have stressed the importance of leadership.

### Leadership

This part of the chapter presents leadership as related to job satisfaction. It begins with an overview of the underlying concepts of leadership in the literature followed by the foundation of leadership theories. Subsequent to the foundation of leadership theories, development of various leadership approaches is discussed. At the end of this section, applications of leadership theories in the hospitality industry is discussed, followed by the section summary.

### Overview

Despite an extensive research and voluminous literature, the concept of leadership still remains a mystery. There is no one theory that fully encompasses the concept. Stogdill (1974) stated “there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are researchers who have attempted to define the concept”. Theories range from the “great man theory of leadership” to trait, and behavior theories. Some have proposed a prescriptive set of universal traits (Stogdill, 1974) and behavior (Herzberg, Hemphill & Coons, 1957). Others have emphasized the interaction of leader behaviors and traits with the situation (Fielder, 1967; House, 1971; Vroom and Yetton, 1973). Bass (1990), and Yukl (1989), however, points out that overall empirical support for the existence of universal leader traits and behaviors have been inconsistent. Some trait or behavior categories appear to be related to effective leadership in some situations but not in others.

These inconsistencies may be a result of prescriptive trait and behavior lists that may have been irrelevant to people's implicit preconception of effective and influential leaders.

### Foundations of Leadership Theories

Leadership has been recognized through the ages as a primary means of influencing the behavior of others. The concept of leadership has been examined from the standpoint of traits, functions, styles, and situations; often being viewed anthropologically, and psychologically, as well as from the vantage point of political power and past experience (Hill, 1969). Plato's Republic (370s BC) was an attempt to determine the proper education and training for political leaders. Through centuries of study, scholars who have explored the topic of effective leadership have come to accept the idea that it is basically a person to person relationship. Early leaders ruled by brute force or divine right, neither of which required much concern for the personal needs of the follower. Machiavelli's The Prince (1513), was the handbook for this type of leadership. John Locke, the English philosopher adopted by America as early as the 1600s, expounded the social compact theory of organization in his work, Two Treaties on Government. The social compact theory requires the leader to become more responsive to the needs of the follower. The leader holds his position by the consent of the followers and the effectiveness of both depends on the behavior of the others (Gordon, 1978).

The most popular concept of leadership has centered on whether the leader is task-oriented or people-oriented (Stogdill & Coons, 1957). Other popular concepts have revolved around the leader's predisposition towards democratic or autocratic governance, towards directive versus nondirective behavior. Kouzes and Posner (1997) define

leadership as the art of mobilizing others to want to struggle for shared aspiration. Goll (1998) explicates the concept even further in his assertion that leadership is helping others to help themselves and being responsive to need. Most definitions imply that it is a process of exerting positive influence over other persons (Wexley and Yukl, 1984). Numerous studies, however, have raised questions about the degree to which a leader should take a major responsibility for the direction and administration of the group.

### Research in Leadership Theories

Wexley and Yukl (1984) state that a number of different theories or approaches to studying leadership have been developed depending on the researcher's conception of leadership and methodological preferences.

### Trait Theory

The earliest assumption was that effective leaders possessed particular traits that distinguished them from ineffective leaders. This approach assumed that leadership could be conceived as a personality trait. Effective leaders were thought to be dynamic, intelligent, dependable, high-achieving individuals. Since these traits were hard to change, problems caused by poor leadership were considered to be best solved by replacing the leader with someone who possessed more of the key traits. General emphasis was that if personality correlates of effective leadership could be identified then appropriate methods could be used to select effective leaders. Some of the earlier trait theories include Kohs & Irle (1920), Bingham (1927), and Page (1935). These studies emphasized the personal qualities of those occupying leadership roles. Bird (1940) compiled a list of seventy-nine such traits from twenty psychologically oriented studies. However, researchers failed to identify leader traits that systematically improved

organizational effectiveness. An early review of trait theory highlighted the apparent failure to identify personality traits universally characteristic of leaders (Stogdill, 1948).

Considerable doubt has been cast on the utility of this approach and it subsequently fell into disfavor. Stogdill and Mann have suggested that there is very little or no relationship between personality factors and leadership effectiveness (Landy, 1985). Muchinsky (1983, p. 403) notes that there is "little or no connections between personality traits and leader effectiveness." Researchers in the leadership area (Mitchell, 1982; Yukl, 1989) have noted the substantial impact of Stogdill's review on subsequent trait research.

In recent years, however, there has been a re-emergence of studies concerned with personality in organizations. A meta-analytic study by Lord, et al. (1986) provides support for personality correlations and considers that previous views of trait theories have resulted from misinterpretation of research. They assert that the findings of personality and leadership perceptions have been over-generalized to the issue of how personality relates to leader effectiveness. They further state that the actual empirical results seem to have been interpreted too pessimistically. They pointed out that trait theories pertain to the relation of leadership traits to leadership emergence as opposed to a leader's effect on performance. As a result, there is an increasing use of personality inventories for management selection and in-company development. Some recent studies have focused on the development of personality profiles for hospitality executives and managers (Swanljung, 1981; Worsfold P., 1989)

### Behavior Theory

By the 1940s, due to the limitations of trait theory, researchers had begun to focus on relationships between leader behaviors and employee performance, in search of behaviors exhibited by effective leaders that were not displayed by those less effective. Leadership was linked to providing strong direction and support while encouraging subordinates to participate in important decisions. University of Michigan studies, the Ohio State Leadership Studies, and the Managerial Grid approaches focused on influencing the leadership behavior. Rensis Likert and his colleagues at the University of Michigan studied the patterns and styles of leaders and managers across a wide range of industries. They identified two basic forms of leader behavior: job-centered leader behavior and employee-centered leader behavior (Likert, 1967). Where job-centered leaders emphasized production and technical aspects of the job, employee-centered leaders emphasized the relationship aspects of the job. At about the same time, Ralph Stogdill, Edwin Fleishman, and their associates at the Ohio State University suggested that there are two basic leader behaviors or styles: initiating structure and consideration (Fleishman, 1953). Initiating structure involves behavior in which the leaders organizes and defines the relationship in the group, establishes well-defined patterns and channels of communication, sets goals and give directions. Consideration involves the extent to which the leader establishes mutual trust, respect, warmth, rapport and communication with subordinates. Similar to Ohio State Studies, Blake and Mouton (1964) suggested that the ideal of the Managerial Grid is team-style managers who have an integrative maximum concern for both production and people, since they are able to mesh the production needs of the organization with the needs of the individuals.

### Situation Theory

By the late 1950s, it became evident that an approach was needed that did not depend on ideal traits and universal behaviors. The theory of situational leadership began to be developed. The situationalists advanced the view that the emergence of a great leader is a result of time, place and circumstances. According to situational theories, effective leaders must correctly identify the behavior each situation requires and then be flexible enough to display these behaviors. Leaders who are behaviorally inflexible, or who lack necessary diagnostic skills, must either be trained or replaced. The classic Ohio State studies in the late 1940s and early 1950s were the precursors of the most of situational leadership concepts. Situational leadership itself may be characterized as the doctrine that a leader's style should be modified according to the circumstances encountered. This theory further pronged into two different approaches- non-contingency, and contingency approach.

### Non-Contingency Theory.

Non-contingency theorists find very little reason to consider situational differences. McGregor's Theory Y, Ouchi's Theory Z, Blake and Mouton's 9-9 Leadership style are some of the examples. Each of these espouses the view that there is one best approach to managing that is universal in its application.

McGregor's theory X, and Y. McGregor's theory X falls under contingency theories of leadership. However, it is discussed here as characteristic contrast with the theory Y. A theory X manager is autocratic and operates on the premise that subordinates are passive to the needs of the organization and therefore need direction and motivation. Theory X managers are task-oriented in leadership style and attempt to bring more



structure to the work group in order to increase performance. The superiors make decisions and orders are issued to subordinates. The situation itself may dictate which leadership style may be effective. Fiedler (1967) further refined this concept, stating that the effectiveness of a leader's behavior depends on demands imposed by the situation.

McGregor's theory Y centers on the principal which derives from the integration of individual and organizational goals. The emphasis is on creation of conditions such that the members of the organization can achieve their own goals best by deriving their efforts towards the success of the enterprise. Theory Y expounds that work is as natural as play, if the conditions are favorable. It further states that the average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility. It recognizes that the capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed in the population. Self-control is often indispensable in achieving organization goals. Motivation occurs at the social, esteem, and self-actualization levels, as well as physiological and security levels. People can be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated. The assumptions of theory Y point out the fact that the limits on the human collaborations in the organizational setting are not limits of human nature but of management's ingenuity in discovering how to realize the potential represented by its human resources. If employees are lazy, indifferent, unwilling to take responsibility, intransigent, uncreative, uncooperative, theory Y implies that the causes lie in management's methods of organization and control (McGregor, 1960). The principle of integration demands that the organization's and the individual's needs be recognized. Theory Y implies that unless integration is achieved the organization will suffer.

Ouchi's theory Z. Ouchi's theory Z dealt with the worker's life as a whole (Ouchi, 1981). Theory Z is an attempt to adapt features characteristics of Japanese management to American business management. Theory Z suggests that humanized working conditions not only increase productivity and profit to the company, but also increase the self-esteem of employees. The ideal type Z combines a basic cultural commitment to individualistic values with a highly collective, non-individual pattern of interaction. It simultaneously satisfies old norms of independence and present needs for affiliations. Employment is effectively (although not officially) for lifetime, and turnover is low. Decision-making is consensual, and there is a highly self-conscious attempt to preserve the consensual mode.

The 9,9 Theory. Nine-nine is the location of high concern for production coupled with high concern for people on the Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton 1994) identifying the managerial style. It fulfills the basic need of people to be involved and committed to productive work. The key is involvement and participation of those responsible for it in work, planning and execution. The focus of 9,9 for improvement is the organization; that is, the unit of development is seen to be organization, not the individuals, one-by-one. The 9-9 orientation views the integration of people into work from a different perspective than other approaches. It couples high concern for task with a high concern for people. Unlike other basic approaches, it is assumed in the 9,9 leadership style that there is no necessary and inherent conflict between organization purpose of production and the needs of people. Effective integration of people with production is achieved by involving them and their ideas in determining the conditions and strategies of work. The basic aim is to promote the conditions that integrate

creativity, high productivity, and high morale through concerted team effort. In these settings, effective leadership arouses sound participation which increases the probability that the solutions achieved will be sound and fundamental, not needing constant review and revision (Blake, & Mouton 1994).

### Contingency Theory

Contingency theorists have put forth specific ways in which styles of leadership should be related directly to situational requirements. According to this approach, leadership behavior is related to leader's personality, needs and expectations of subordinates and the work environment. Basically, it postulates that different situations require different approaches.

Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale (LPC). Fiedler (1967) introduced Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) instrument. It consists of an eight-point scale anchored at either end by a set of opposites. The questionnaire contained sixteen contrasting adjectives to which respondents were asked to respond on the basis of describing co-workers, past and present, that they least preferred working with. He suggested that leaders who describe their LPCs in relatively unfavorable terms are said to be task motivated, while leaders who describe their LPCs in relatively favorable terms are said to be relationship motivated. This theory implies that leadership style is rather fixed, which may necessitate a leader looking for the right situation rather than being responsive to the needs of several situations. To improve effectiveness may require either to change the leader to fit the situation, or change the situation to fit the leader. Where the former may provide a clue to the high turnover in management ranks, the latter may indicate the compulsive desire of leaders to change the situation(s) to fit his/her style (Goll, 1998).

**Path-Goal theory.** Path-Goal theory of leadership (House, 1971), holds that a leader's most vital role is to motivate followers. Path-Goal theorists advocate a system of clarifying paths to desired goals, enhanced by rewards. The behavior is introduced as path to be followed in order to achieve goals. This theory proposes that effective leaders are able to enhance motivation of subordinates by clarifying their perceptions of work objectives, linking meaningful rewards to achievements, and explaining how these objective and rewards may be achieved. The motivational functions of the leader consists of increasing personal pay-offs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the path to these pay-offs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route (House, 1973). This belief is based on the assumption that individuals are capable of changing their leadership behavior. This theory arbitrarily addresses four leadership styles: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement oriented. House suggests that participation is most appropriate when the follower's task is blurred or indefinite, and when followers require independence or tend to evince authoritarian traits. He also identified the task, characteristics of subordinates, and the nature of the subordinate group as three contingencies facing the leader. This theory emphasizes the leader's behavior as a source of satisfaction of subordinates.

#### **Normative Contingency Approach**

Like the works of Fiedler and House, it dealt with situational differences, focused on leader's actions rather than their personalities, and embraced both follower qualities and task considerations. This approach focused on the amount and form of group participation, and it precisely defined the term situation, to mean just exactly the problem

confronting the leader. Vroom & Yetton (1973) specified seven attributes through which a leader may evaluate and select the most effective decision making process to follow:

1. The importance of decision quality
2. The leader's information relevant to the problem
3. Extent to which the problem is structured
4. Importance of acceptance of decisions by subordinates to effective implementation
5. Probability that the leader's decision will be accepted by subordinates
6. Congruence of organizational and subordinate goals
7. Conflicts or disagreements among subordinates.

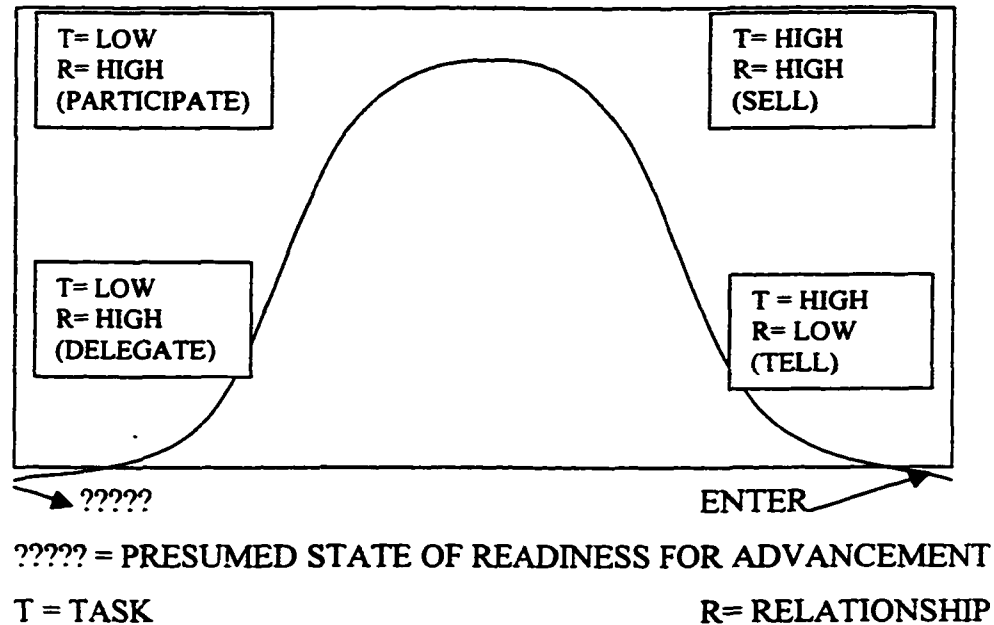
#### Hersey-Blanchard Approach

The Hersey-Blanchard approach to situational leadership singled out the follower's readiness, in terms of psychological maturity and job experience, as a prime contingency affecting leader's decision to be either predominantly task oriented or more relations oriented. This theory indicates that a low level of maturity among subordinates requires a telling mode. As the level of the followers' maturity rise, a transition should be made by the leader to selling, participating, and finally to delegating. In other words, the leader's style evolves from directive to less directive reflecting the maturity of followers. A leader may adopt a delegating style with one group of followers and a selling or telling style with another, depending upon where they fall on the readiness continuum. The four stages of maturity to which the management styles will be most responsive reflect the employee's development. Goll (1998) presented an altered version of this model as employee maturity curve, as depicted in the figure 1, to illustrate changes of needs of employees as they mature in the job. He also pointed out that effective leadership is

responsive to need.

Figure 1

Employee Maturity Curve (Adapted from Goll, 1998)



Hersey & Blanchard Situational Leadership Model describe the leadership style as follows: -

- Directive Style** - A leadership style characterized by the giving of clear instructions and specific direction to immature employees.
- Coaching Style** - A leadership style characterized by expanding two-way communication and helping maturing employees build confidence and motivation.
- Supporting Style** - A leadership style characterized by active two-way communication and support of mature employees' efforts to use their skills.

**(d) Delegation Style-** A hands-off leadership style characterized by giving responsibilities for carrying out plans and making task decisions to the highly mature employees.

Various theorists have maintained that the situation is not in itself sufficient to account for leadership. They have observed that both great man theorists and the situational theorists overlooked the combining effect of individual and situational factors. They state that the theories of leadership can not be constructed for behavior in vacuum. Leadership theories must contain elements about persons as well as elements about situations. Barnard (1938) had earlier attempted to resolve the situation-personality controversy by suggesting that leadership behavior is a less consistent attribute of individuals than such traits as non-suggestibility, energy, and maturity, which are empirically associated and theoretically linked with overt leadership. Such a trait as consistency results in some consistency in the behavior of individual leaders that transcends situations (Bass, 1990)

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) suggested that each manager has a range of possible leadership behaviors available to his/her use, and that appropriate behavior depended upon three sets of forces: those in the manager, those in the subordinates, and those in the situation. They recognized that different leadership styles were appropriate for different situations. They suggested that the personality traits and the different characteristics of a situation influence the leadership style of a manager, and different subordinates would desire and expect varying leadership behaviors. Tannenbaum and Schmidt suggested that a leader is capable of exhibiting a wide range of behaviors:

The successful leader is one who is able to behave appropriately in light of these perceptions. If direction is in order, he is able to direct; if considerable participative freedom is called for he is able to provide such freedom..... Thus, the successful manager of men can be primarily characterized neither as a strong leader nor as a permissive one. Rather, he is one who maintains a high batting average in accurately assessing the forces that determine what his most appropriate behavior at any given time should be and in actually being able to behave accordingly (p. 301).

Fiedler (1965) voiced his disagreement:

Fitting the man to the leadership job by selection and training has not been spectacularly successful. It is surely easier to change almost anything in the job situation than a man's personality and his leadership style (p. 115).

He did not believe that a leader is capable of varying his behavior to a large degree.

### Leadership Styles

The leadership style has been defined as an "action disposition, or a set of behaviors displayed by a leader in a leadership situation" (Immegart, 1988). Interest in the empirical investigations of leadership styles date back to the classical studies by Lewin and Leavitt (1938) on the effect of democratic, autocratic, and laissez-fair styles on boys' clubs. The most extensively discussed leadership style in the literature may be grouped and summarized as below:

Socio-Emotional versus Task. These two styles of leadership represent extreme forms. Most leaders tend to exhibit behaviors from both styles. Some leaders are actually high on both Task leadership and Socio-emotional leadership. However most leaders tend



to favor one of these types. Task leaders are generally concerned with completion of tasks, accomplishment of goals, and the general effectiveness of the work group. They use conditional reinforcement as a management tool. This means they tend to base rewards on performance of tasks, and they differentiate among workers based on their relative contribution to the group. They also tend to show more support for given employees when they achieve goals. Task leaders also emphasize deadlines, structure tasks, set and maintain definition standards for performance, enforce standardized procedures and generally insure that subordinates work up to capacity.

Socio-emotional leaders are generally more supportive and accepting of subordinates. They tend to show concern for the welfare of their subordinates. They use unconditional reinforcement, by acceptance of employees and recognition of their worth independent of task performance and goal attainment. They work to build up and affirm the self-concept of their subordinates.

Autocratic versus Participative Leaders. The seven basic levels of participation are discussed below. While leaders may use any number of these approaches to problem solving, they tend to have a dominant approach, which they use with the greatest frequency.

1. Autocratic or directive style of problem solving. The leader defines problem, diagnoses problem, generates, evaluates and choose among alternative solutions.
2. All Autocratic with group information input. The leader defines the problem.

Although the leader diagnoses the cause of the problem, the leader may use the group as an information source in obtaining data to determine cause. Using his or her list of

potential solutions, the leader may once again obtain data from the group in evaluation of these alternatives and make a choice among them.

3. All Autocratic with group's review and feedback. The leader defines the problem, diagnoses its causes, and selects a solution. The leader then presents his or her plan to the group for understanding, review, and feedback
4. Individual Consultative Style. The leader defines the problem and share this definition with individual members of the work group. The leader solicits ideas regarding problem causes and potential solutions. The leader may also use these individuals expertise in evaluation of alternative solutions. Once this information is obtained, the leader makes the choice of which alternative solution to implement.
5. Group Consultative Style. Same as Individual Consultative Style , except the leader shares his or her definition of the problem with the group as a whole.
6. Group Decision Style. Leader shares his or her definition of the problem with the work group. The group then proceeds to diagnose the causes of the problem. Following diagnosis, the group generates, evaluates, and chooses among solutions.
7. Participative Style. The group as a whole proceeds through the entire decision making process. The group defines the problem and performs all other functions as a group. The role of the leader is that of process facilitator.

Transactional Versus Transformational Leadership. Burns (1978) stated that “the relations of most leaders and followers are transactional wherein leaders approach followers with an eye to exchange one thing for another” (p.4). Transactional leaders view the leader-follower relationship as a process of exchange. They tend to gain compliance by offering rewards performance and compliance or threatening punishment

for non-performance and non-compliance. The transactional leader tends to use compliance approaches to tap the intrinsic process and instrumental sources of motivation. The leader attempts to convince the target of the enjoyment he or she will experience along with compliance. S/he uses or implies threats, frequent checking as coercion. The leader offers favors, benefits, or future rewards for compliance and seeks to establish legitimacy of request by claiming the authority or the right to make it, or by verifying that it is consistent with organizational policies, rules or practices. The leader appeals based on feeling of debt to the leader.

Transformational leaders, in contrast, are more visionary and inspirational in approach. They are concerned with gaining cooperation from organizational members. They tend to communicate a clear and acceptable vision and goals, with which employees can identify and tend to engender intense emotion in their followers. Rather than exchanging rewards for performance, transformational leaders attempt to build ownership on the part of group members, by involving the group in the decision process. The leader appeal is based on expertise and identification with leader. The leader appeals to the individual's traits such as team player, hard worker, or risk taker to gain compliance, and individuals values such as concern for co-workers, or concern for the environment. The leader appeals based on affirmation of the individual's value skills, such as good leader, or best negotiator. The leader attempts to show that the request is in the best interests of the group and its goals. This approach focuses on the identification and examination of those leader behaviors that influence followers' values and aspirations, activate their higher-order needs, and arouse them to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the organization (Bass, 1985). Burns (1978) exemplified Mahatma Gandhi a

transformational leader as he “aroused and elevated the hopes and demands of millions of Indians”(p 20).

Bryman (1992) cites a variety of organizational studies demonstrating that transformational leader behaviors are positively related to employees' satisfaction, and job performance. Similar results have been reported in several field studies (cf. Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass, Avolio & Goodheim, 1987; Bass, Waldman, Avolio & Bebb, 1987; House, Spangler & Woycke, 1991), from a variety of samples and organizational settings.

In a laboratory study, Howell and Frost (1989) found that charismatic leader behavior produced higher performance, greater satisfaction, and greater role clarity, than directive leader behavior. Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) reviewed more than 20 studies that found charismatic or transformational leadership to be positively associated with follower's performance, attitudes and perceptions. Another set of 15 studies, reviewed by Bass and Avolio (1993), reported equally positive findings.

Fleishman (1960) developed a self-report inventory to assess an individual's leadership style. Fleishman theorized that a person's leadership can be defined along two independent dimensions- consideration, and structure. Consideration concerns the degree to which a leader is supportive, friendly, and considerate of subordinates; consults with them; represent their interests; has open communication with them; and recognize their contributions. Consideration, therefore, is evidenced by relationship-oriented behavior (Yukl, 1989). It reflects the extent that an individual is likely to have co-workers relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for ideas of others, friendliness and warmth. He postulated that an individual with high need for consideration will be friendly and supportive of co-workers, listen to their opinions, and praise good job performance.

Structure on the other hand reflects the degree to which a person defines and structures his/her work role and the roles of co-workers towards goal attainment. Initiating structure concerns the degree to which a leader directs subordinates; clarifies their roles; and plans, coordinates, problem solves, criticizes, and pressures them to perform better. Thus, initiating structure is manifested by task-oriented behavior (Yukl, 1989). A person with high need for structure will usually direct group activities through planning, communicating, scheduling, and criticizing. Fleishman developed the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) as a self-report measure of consideration and structure.

Seltzer and Bass (1990) suggest that transformational leadership augments consideration and initiating structure. Beatty and Lee (1992) found that a transformational leadership approach is likely to be more effective in overcoming barriers to change than transactional style that concentrates on technical problem solving to the neglect of people and organizational issues.

Kerr and Jermier (1978) introduced Substitutes for Leadership Model. According to this approach, the key to improving leadership effectiveness is to identify the situational variables that can either substitute for, neutralize, or enhance the effects of a leader's behavior. Unlike the transformational approach to leadership, which assumes that it is the leader's transformational behavior that is the key to improving leadership effectiveness, the substitutes for leadership approach assumes that the real key to leadership effectiveness is to identify those important situational or contextual variables that may "substitute" for the leader's behavior, so that the leader can adapt his or her behavior accordingly.

Consistent with other situational approaches to leadership, the basic assumption was made in this approach that the substitutes for leadership variables have their primary effects on subordinate criterion variables through their interactions with the leader behaviors of interest. However, recent research by Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer (1996) designed to test these predictions showed only a few substitute variables moderated the effect of the transformational leader behavior on followers' attitudes and citizenship behavior.

### Leadership Practices

Leadership is an observable, learnable set of practices (Kouzes and Posner, 1997). After an extensive research of 3000 cases and 15000 surveys involving ordinary people whose daily lives consisted of such activities as leading projects, managing departments, starting small businesses, etc. Kouzes and Posner (1995) came up with a set of thirty behaviors common to all the leaders when they are at their personal best. A comprehensive analysis of the most prevalent behaviors of leaders led to the development leadership model. They found that when leaders were at their personal best, they were:

Challenging the Process. Leaders are the agent of change. Leaders search for opportunities to change the status quo. They accept the challenge. They look for innovative ways to improve the organizations. They arouse intrinsic motivation by searching for opportunities for people to excel in their careers. They have a keen sense to detect demands for change. In doing so, they experiment and take risks. And because leaders know that risk taking involves mistakes and failures, they accept the inevitable disappointments as learning opportunities.

Inspiring a Shared Vision. Leaders have visions; visions about possibilities, about

desired future. They see what others do not see. They passionately believe that they can make a difference. They use past knowledge, mine the present as potential opportunity and apply vision to the future. They envision the future, creating an ideal and unique image of what the organization can become. Through their magnetism and quite persuasion, leaders enlists others in their dreams. They breathe life into their visions and get people to see exciting possibilities for the future.

Enabling Others to Act. Leaders build trusted relationships by fostering collaboration and building spirited teams. They actively involve others to seek integrative solutions. They develop cooperative goals. They promote cooperation by emphasizing long-term payoffs. Leaders understand that mutual respect is what sustains extraordinary efforts; they thrive to create an atmosphere of trust and human dignity. They strengthen others, making each person feel capable and powerful.

Modeling the Way. Leaders do what they say they will do. They manifest the consistency among their values, goals, and norms. They demonstrate their intense commitment to the values they espouse by setting an example. They establish principles concerning the way people should be treated and the way goals should be pursued. They create standards of excellence and then set an example for others to follow. They set interim goals and guide along the path to achieve those goals. They create opportunities for victory.

Encouraging the Heart. Successful leaders have high expectations, both of themselves and of their constituents. To keep hope and determination alive, leaders recognize contributions that individuals make. They make others feel good. They use a blend of

intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. In every winning team, the members need to share in the rewards of their efforts, so leaders celebrate accomplishments.

The Kouzes-Posner leadership framework stresses that leadership is not a mystical quality that only a select few are born with ; it is a set of behaviors that both experienced and prospective leaders can use to turn challenging opportunities into remarkable successes. This model may represent a significant step towards understanding of leadership process and the development of leadership capabilities.

### Application of Leadership Behavior in the Hospitality Industry

In recent years, the hospitality industry has undergone major changes both within the industry and in its operating environment. The number of qualified hotel managers appears to be on the decline, because the manager of today is being called on to handle new jobs resulting from the recent shift in the pattern of transient-lodging demand (Brener. 1989). Researchers have posited that in an environment of change, a visionary, or leadership style, would be most appropriate (Hinkin & Tracey 1994). Managers must know the abilities of their staff and have clearly defined job descriptions and goals. Managers must allow staff members to have input on decisions that deal with their jobs. Managers are responsible for helping staff members develop their capabilities. In order to help with staff development managers must first identify their own leadership style and recognize that staff usually follow the style of their manager (Durst, 1990)

Atkinson (1988) emphasized the importance for employees to feel that their jobs have purpose and to understand more about the over-all operations of a hotel, especially in the age of high employee turnover and labor shortages. He emphasized on the importance to develop and improve leadership skills. Hazard (1988) recognizes



leadership as one of the ten key trends that will shape the future of the hospitality industry. Similarly, Brewton (1988) accounts for the necessity of leadership skills for the managers in the hospitality industry. However, it must be noted that they both, as well as many other researchers, considered leadership as only one of the key skills, not the most important skill. Weinstein (1989), however, considers leadership as the most fundamental to the success of an organization. He concedes to the desire of the trainers in the hospitality industry that managers need more time to develop leadership skills. Seelhoff (1991) postulates that availability, concern, consistency, honesty, reliability, support, and style are characteristics of supervisors who have the respect of their employees. Supervisors who develop this respect can increase employee productivity and improve harmony in the workplace.

Kraemer (1995) proposed the value driven ethical leadership in the hotel industry, especially the housekeeping field that employs a diverse work force. He has reiterated that managers must develop and empower workers to attain organization goals. Managers must understand and develop their personal value structures that affect their decision-making. He reviewed Lawrence Kohlberg's study of moral behavior and how those stages are relevant to ethical management practices. He postulated ways to overcome some obstacles in understanding and dealing with personal values that may threaten moral and ethical practices. He also hypothesized that mature ethical principles and good communication are the foundation for and foster strong leadership for the future. Upchurch & Ruhland (1995) focused on measuring the interrelationship of types of ethical decision-making (i.e., Egoism, Benevolence, and Principle) and the leadership style of general managers in the lodging industry. They indicated that the workplace

norms and values were determinant of ethical decisions in the organization, while benevolence was the primarily dimension of ethical climate within the organization and the primary leadership style was the high-task and high-relationship orientation.

Sherr (1994) emphasized the importance of communication, of knowing who you are leading (understanding their strengths and weaknesses), and of expanding and developing the positive traits of employees and not dwelling on the negative. He discussed different personal management styles and how to evaluate and change them. He looked at evaluating and working with teams. Hinkin & Tracey (1994) compared the use of transformational leadership style with the more traditional transactional style, and examined the effects of transformational leadership on individual and organizational outcomes in a hotel management organization. They postulated that transformational leadership both impacts perceptions of leadership effectiveness and subordinate satisfaction, and clarifies the direction and mission of the organization. Blanchard (1989) suggests that a manager must learn to act according to the situation or the person involved.

### Conclusion

Leadership theories have constantly evolved under different schools of thought, yet conceptual consensus has eluded the managerial framework. However, in the setting of the Management By Values (MBV) model, the answer may lie in balanced management. Goll (1998) states that to be an effective leader, a manager must be responsive to the needs of employees. A manager must view and understand the situation empathetically. All actions of management should be based on the potential of a situation. To be truly

effective, a person should possess a fine balance of managerial and leadership attributes. And, leadership simply stated is helping others to help themselves.

## MOTIVATION

This part of the chapter presents motivational theories as related to leadership behavior, and job satisfaction. It begins with an overview of the underlying concepts of motivation in the literature followed by the foundation of motivation. Subsequent to the foundation of motivation, previous research leading to the development of various theories is discussed. At the end of this section, applications of motivation in current hospitality literature along with a brief summation is provided.

### Overview

The concept of human need is one of the most pervasive and powerful notions available for study in the literature on leadership. Over the years numerous theories have come into being explaining ‘why’ (content theories) someone is motivated to undertake some activity, and ‘how’ (process theories) the individual becomes motivated. Most motivation theorists have proposed that there are two major sources of motivation: extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsic motivation is that which derives from external forces and the intrinsic motivation behaviors occur in the absence of external control. According to Cognitive Evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), factors that influence people's feelings of self-determination and competence also influence their intrinsic motivation. Leadership style has been found to be one such factor. The motivation induces commitment which affects the performance to achieve the goals.

### Foundation of Motivation

It may be argued that the origin of motivation theory dates back to Karl Marx's (1847) *Communist Manifesto*, in which he provided a sociological assessment of the impact of industrial revolution on the workers. Marx expressed his concerns that the "proletariats" (workers) suffering from alienation and displacement due to industrial revolution will resent "bourgeoisie" (owners and managers) and overthrow the system of "capitalism." The worker's frustration will impact the productivity. His observations stressed the need for managerial understanding to facilitate motivational environment (Marx & Engels 1964). It was inferred that management must be responsive to the needs of employees.

Fredrick W. Talyor (1911) indicated the importance of rewards in motivation. His findings were based on the study of the job and the monetary aspects of it. While attempting to come up with "one best way" of doing a job he discovered that money motivates people in different ways. The major motivational assumption of the approach was that the individual workers valued economic incentive and would be willing to work hard for monetary rewards. It was assumed that all workers value money more than any other reward.

Elton Mayo, in the late 1920s, recognized the need for special attention in work motivation. His studies, popularly known as 'Hawthorne Effect' helped to establish that employees have needs that go beyond simple remuneration. It also indicated that informal groups may have a powerful influence on the organization. It pointed out that employees meet some of their social needs through interaction with their colleagues.

### Research in Motivational Theories

Research and theory building in the areas of goal setting, reward systems, leadership and job-design have advanced our understanding of organizational behavior. Relevant concepts and theories are discussed in this section to discern their impact on the leadership behavior and job satisfaction.

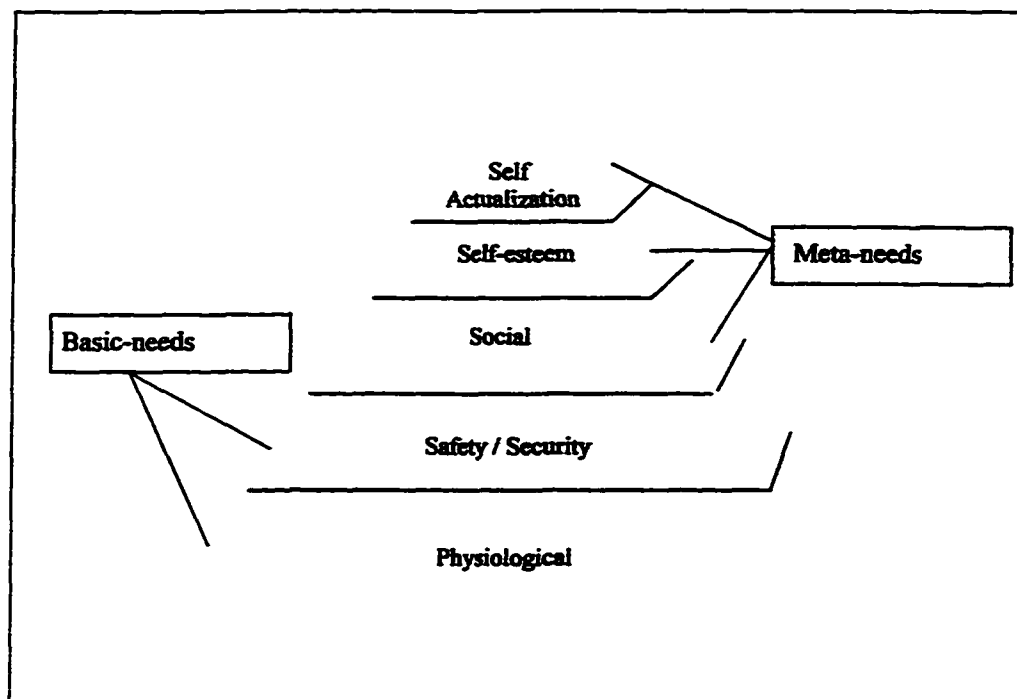
#### Content Theory

Content theory focused on determining what derives a certain behavior. The works of A. H. Maslow enhanced by F. Herzberg, and C. P. Alderfer provide the underlying philosophical concepts.

Hierarchy of Needs Theory. Maslow (1943) determined that individuals are motivated when they are in pursuit of an unsatisfied need, which range from physiological (food) to psychological (self-realization). He listed the human needs in a hierarchy starting with the most basic needs at the bottom, and the most equivocal ones at the top. He further categorized these needs into basic needs (lower level needs- physiological and safety/security) and meta needs (upper level needs- social, self-esteem and self-actualization).

Maslow's theory is based on the concept that individuals have a desire to understand, to systemize, to analyze, to organize, to look for relations and meanings. He also states that an individual' hierarchy of need may also be reordered based on the priority placed on the unsatisfied need.

Figure 2

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Adapted from Maslow, 1943)

Maslow recognized the individual cognitive capacities as central to facilitate the satisfaction of one's needs. Goll (1998) has emphasized the need to understand the situation in which a person may find motivation, before applying Maslow's theory of hierarchical needs.

Two Factor Theory (Herzberg, 1959) expanded upon Maslow's idea, suggesting that there were two sets of factors, not one, that influenced work behavior: motivators (upper level needs), which produced satisfaction or no satisfaction, and hygiene factors (lower level needs), which produced dissatisfaction or no dissatisfaction. In his original work in the early 1950s, Herzberg discussed people at work, more precisely their attitudes toward work (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Herzberg and his

colleagues interviewed more than 200 accountants and engineers to investigate a puzzling phenomenon that emerged from a large literature search on job satisfaction. The phenomenon related to differences noted in the importance of elements of job satisfaction depending upon whether the researcher was evaluating what a worker liked about a job or what a worker disliked about a job. Herzberg (1959) found out that growth, satisfaction, or motivator factors are intrinsic to the job; dissatisfaction, avoidance, or hygiene factors are extrinsic to the job. Dissatisfaction factors will move workers temporarily but not motivate them. For motivation to occur, satisfaction factors must come into play. The results of the Herzberg et al. (1959) research led to the creation of the "dual-factor" theory of motivation .

ERG Theory (Alderfer, 1972) observed that more than one need may be operative at any one time. He also observed that the repression of upper level needs lead to frustration and a tendency to regress lower level needs with greater emphasis and intensity. He concluded that there are three factors that lead to motivation: Existence (physiological and security needs), Relationships (satisfaction of social needs), and Growth (personal development consistent with self-esteem and self-actualization). His theory of motivation (ERG) further extended the views held by Maslow and Herzberg.

Theory X and Theory Y. McGregor (1960), as previously discussed in the context of situation theory, presented a contrast in attitudes about people. Theory X suggested that people by nature are passive and resistant to organizational needs. Hence, management must control employees through the use of persuasion, rewards, and punishment. However, he recognized the lack of motivational factors in theory X. He proposed Theory Y to invoke management understanding of the worker and the

environment. He postulated that through motivational environment satisfaction of employee needs can be achieved, while still staying focused on the organizational goals. Goll (1998) warned against extreme views of either Theory X or Theory Y. He felt that an extreme Theory X view could lead to highly restrictive environment, and an extreme Theory Y view had the potential to lead to highly gullible management.

### Process Theory

Process theory focuses on why an individual behaves in a certain way. Victor Vroom's Expectancy Theory, and J. Stacy Adams and R. M. Steer's Equity Theory are the significant concepts among a number of other concepts explained in this section.

Expectancy Theory . Vroom (1964) observed that motivation is determined by outcomes on job. He postulated that performance is a multiplicative function of expectancy (the belief that effort will lead to performance), instrumentality (the belief that performance will lead to rewards), and valence (the perceived values of the rewards or outcomes of performance). Pool (1997) cites Nadler, Cammann, Jenkins, & Lawler (1975) that an individual in a work situation perceives two levels of outcomes: first-level outcomes result from behaviors that are associated with job; second-level outcomes include rewards that are associated with the first level outcomes. These outcomes influence the employee job performance. The expectancy theory concludes that the best performers in organizations tend to see a strong relationship between performing their jobs well and receiving rewards that they value. Locke & Latham (1990), Summers & Hendrix (1991), and Berry (1993) found a strong relationship between work motivation and job satisfaction. Locke & Latham (1990) explained the motivation to work by integrating elements of three theories, namely goal setting theory, expectancy theory and



social cognitive theory. They indicated that high challenges or difficult goals accompanied by high expectancy or self-efficacy leads to high performance, which in turn results in job satisfaction and commitment to the organization and its goal. Mill (1985) states that management must find each employee's unsatisfied need and recognize when that need has been satisfied. Samuels (1984) states that management must not discount employee needs as misperceived needs, even when the need may seem ambiguous or unimportant. Management must strive to reduce those misperceptions.

Equity theory evolved out of the works of J. Stacey Adams in 1965. This theory is based on the idea that people are motivated by fairness. Equity theory is based upon the idea that an individual's perception of economic well being is determined by external comparisons with other 'similar' individuals and groups. For example, a skilled worker who is currently earning a wage  $X$  can be expected to experience feelings of deprivation or privilege if it is revealed to him/her that all other similarly skilled workers in the firm/industry are earning a wage of  $X + [\text{Alpha}]$ . If  $[\text{Alpha}]$  is positive, and no obvious reason for the underpayment is apparent, the worker currently receiving  $X$  can be expected to feel relatively deprived. Similarly, if  $[\text{Alpha}]$  is negative, the worker who is currently earning  $X$  will feel relatively privileged vis-a-vis his/her peers (reference group). If s/he perceives an inequity, s/he will be motivated to change her/his behavior to create an equitable situation. If an employee feels equitably rewarded, s/he will be motivated to continue her/his current behavior. However, using this theory involves using employee perceptions rather than facts.

Manifest theory, developed by David McClelland in the 1950s, is based on the idea that needs are driven from personality. This theory suggests that needs are developed, and thus motivators are acquired, as people interact with their environment. According to McClelland, all people possess, in varying degree, the need for: achievement, power, and affiliation. He observed that people with high need for achievement tend to take personal responsibility for solving problems, are goal oriented and take calculated risks. They also desire concrete feedback on their performance. People with high need for power want to control the situation, want to influence others, enjoy competition in which they can win and like to confront others. People with high need for affiliation seek close relationships with others. They want to be liked by others. They seek to belong and they like social activities. Management need to respond according to their individual needs.

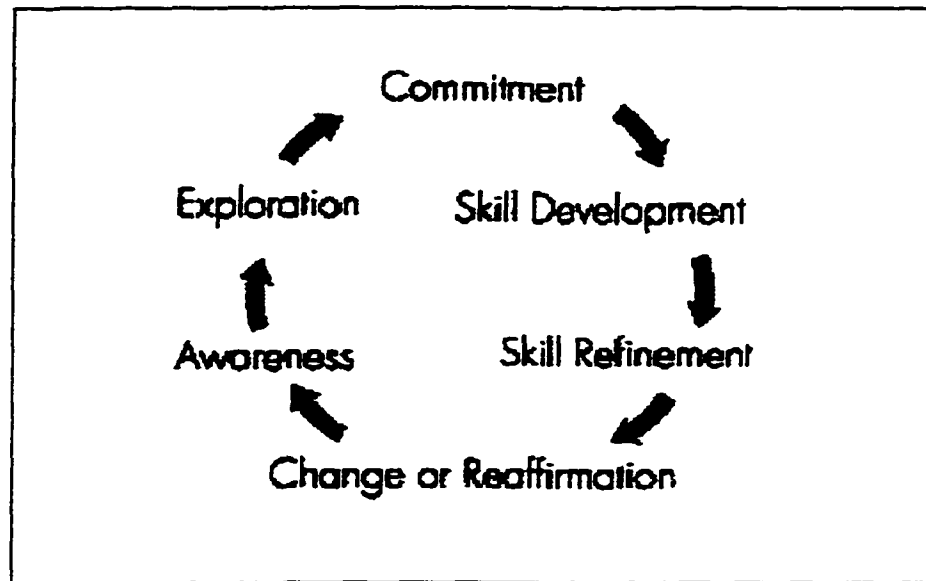
Reinforcement theory propagates that behavior can be controlled through the effective use of rewards. B. F. Skinner (1971) contended that behavior is learned and shaped by positive and negative consequences. The essence of this theory for motivational purposes is to promote desirable behavior by following up such behavior with positive consequences, and by following up any unwanted behavior with unpleasant consequences.

### Cycle of Motivation

Ross Mooney of Ohio State University explains motivation as a cycle. He states that to understand the 6-stages in the cycle one must learn to help one and others tap into intrinsic motivation (see figure 3).

Figure 3

The Cycle of Motivation (Adapted from Mooney, 1950).



Mooney states that people often become aware of their own motivation when they find that they lack the desire to continue doing what they have been doing in their careers. Typically, they enter the cycle at the "commitment" stage and move to the "skill development" stage, then to "skill refinement" until, finally, they master most of the challenges they face which finally leads them to experience boredom. It's at this point they will choose to "change" their career path or "reaffirm" the career path they have been pursuing- but to pursue it with a new twist. To accomplish "change" or "reaffirmation," they must become "aware" of other alternatives. At first glance, this seems overly simple to accomplish, but it is not because being aware of alternatives is often at odds with the narrow focus that is a part of gaining high levels of skill refinement and mastery. It requires an opening up. Awareness of a greater universe of options is

followed by "exploration" of the options. Exploration is typified by participating in activities that allow one to "try on" what other career options feel like. And finally, they move from "exploration" to a "commitment". Again, the commitment can take the form of a career change, or a reaffirmation of the desire to stay in the field in which they have been working.

### Developments in the Motivation Theory

Some additional research in the field of motivation includes *job enrichment theory*, which refers to vertical expansion of jobs, raising motivation by making work more interesting and challenging for employees. *Job redesign*, which is essentially the idea of doing it better by doing it differently involving employees devising new ways to the job, time and motion studies, and managerial input based on the noticed shortcomings. *Scanlon plan*, which is a gain sharing plan that works on the premise that employees have the best and the most workable suggestions for the company. Company motivates employees to contribute ideas by sharing with them the saving or earnings generated by their suggestions.

Lodahl (1964) observed a basic flaw in the motivational study techniques saying that "studies of motivation of workers have largely been limited to sources of satisfaction, which is relatively shallow level in the motivational hierarchy (p 483).

### What Employees Want From Their Work

Kovach (1987) discusses the results of his studies conducted over a span of fifty years to measure the consistency between what employees want from their jobs and the management perception of their wants and needs. Kovach not only established the existence of inconsistencies, but also observed that management's perceptions of what

employees want and need did not change despite the lapse in time. He concluded that the inconsistencies found are the result of management self-reference. Kovach points out that employees are more motivated by intrinsic factors than extrinsic rewards. He stated that the absence of extrinsic rewards leads to dissatisfaction, while the absence of extrinsic rewards does not lead to motivation.

Consistent with Kovach's studies, Goll (1989) indicated that supervisor's perceptions about the needs of their employees differed from what the employees actually wanted in the hospitality industry. He pointed out that hospitality supervisors perceived that their employees wanted extrinsic rewards such as good wages, job security, and good working conditions; whereas employees indicated gaining more satisfaction from intrinsic rewards such as appreciation, and interesting work (see table 1)

Table 1

**What Workers Want From Their Work (Adapted from Goll, 1989)**

<b>Employees</b>	<b>Supervisors</b>
1. Appreciation of work done	1. Good Wages
2. Interesting work	2. Job security
3. Good wages	3. Good working conditions
4. Promotion and growth in organization	4. Promotion and growth in organization
5. Job security	5. Appreciation of work done
6. Feeling of being in on things	6. Interesting work
7. Good working conditions	7. Personal loyalty to employees
8. Personal loyalty to employees	8. Feeling of being in on things
9. Sympathetic help with personal problems	9. Tactful discipline
10. Tactful discipline	10. Sympathetic help with personal problems

### Applications of Motivation in the Hospitality Industry

Liddle (1988) quotes Jack Miller, chairman of the Hotel, Restaurant Management School at St. Louis Community College, saying that managers are only as good as their employees and it is up to the manager to provide employees with the proper motivation. Atkinson (1988) points out the importance for employees to feel that their jobs have purpose and to understand more about the overall operations of a hotel. This is especially true in this age of high employee turnover and labor shortages. The growing labor shortage makes the question of motivating and retaining employees that much more critical (Anthony, 1989). Employees are often listed as an important asset to the hospitality industry, but are not always recognized publicly (Hogan 1992).

Sheehan (1989) stated that one of the best ways in which to motivate employees is by listening to what they have to say about their jobs—employees often prefer recognition over monetary rewards. Employees should also be told exactly what is expected of them in performing their jobs. Weaver (1988) proposed a program based on the simple assumption that hourly employees, unlike professionals, will be more loyal and will work harder if they are rewarded—in cash—for putting forth more effort. Biagini (1988) felt that employees should be rewarded for creative ideas, good work habits, sales, and employment longevity. Rewards can take the form of money, plaques, parking places, free lunches, or free vacations. This recognition should help to motivate and increase employee morale.

Chitiris (1990) examined the impact on work motivation of demographic characteristics. Data from 130 senior managers in Greek hotels revealed that age, education and length of employment with current organization have only a slight effect

on manager's work motivation, while length of time in current job, sex and marital status had no impact at all. A regression analysis revealed that these six demographic factors taken together account for 8 per cent of the variation in the work motivation if no other factors are examined. It was suggested that age and qualifications and time in present organization are an advantage, not a barrier for high work motivation. Motivation theory has found wide application in the context of employee behavior in the hospitality industry Balmer & Baum (1973). Frequently discussed theorists include Herzberg and Maslow. The area of employee motivation with respect to managerial leadership behavior and the impact on the employee commitment to the organization has received somewhat less consideration.

### Conclusion

The very nature of the hospitality industry would seem to indicate a greater need for higher motivation among employees, which then translates into customer satisfaction. It is not the management which makes the guests happy; it is the employees of the company who bring smiles to them. It may go without saying that a motivated productive workforce is crucial to a company's success. Employees who enjoy their work are likely to be more productive, to work faster, and to enjoy good health. They are also less likely to find fault with small things and attribute problems to other people. Ramsay (1995) has observed that de-motivated workers are not difficult to identify. They lack interest, generate very few ideas, and have a strong sense of negativity. Managers who do address this problem employ an approach to motivation that is either based on fear or focuses on the psychological importance of work. The first approach assumes that people are basically lazy and have to be compelled to work (McGregor's Theory X), the second

is based on the assumption that people need work for personal growth (McGregor's Theory Y).

## JOB SATISFACTION

This part of the chapter presents review of literature on job satisfaction as related to leadership behavior. It begins with an overview of the underlying concepts of job satisfaction, followed by the foundation of job satisfaction theories. Subsequent to the foundation of job satisfaction, research leading to the development of various theories is discussed. At the end of this section, applications of job satisfaction in current hospitality literature along with a brief summation is discussed.

### Overview

Job satisfaction is defined as the feeling a worker has about his or her job or job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives (Balzer, et al., 1997). Job satisfaction is an attitude that individuals maintain about their jobs. This attitude is developed from their perception of their jobs (Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). The research has shown that attitudes about one's job influence the way the tasks of the job are presented (Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman, 1959). In the past sixty years, a voluminous research has taken place to describe what causes it and how the causal process works. Locke (1976) reported more than 20 years ago that there were over 3,300 studies on the subject of job satisfaction. An examination of ERIC and SOCIOFILE revealed that over 4,000 additional studies on job satisfaction have been conducted since 1982. Most of the theories of job satisfaction are offshoots of the more general motivation theories discussed in the previous sections of this chapter.



### Foundation of the Concept of Job Satisfaction

Hawthorne studies was one of the first substantial research which endeavored to explore beyond the restricted view of the worker upheld by Fredrick W. Taylor and his followers in the early 1900s. Elton Mayo conducted a study of work design in which whatever changes were made to the method of working, productivity went up, and he concluded that the affect on the workers of being studied, and the concern and expectations that that implied, were having a bigger effect than changes to the method in themselves. Following the Hawthorne studies, Hoppock (1935) began to consider individual and group differences in job satisfaction. His approach to the phenomenon of job satisfaction suggested that certain variables outside of the individual worker affected levels of satisfaction- variables such as the occupational group. Later, Schaffer (1953) emphasized variables within the individual as contributing satisfaction and dissatisfaction. He felt that there was some psychological set or mechanism that operated to make people satisfied or dissatisfied. He stated that when certain needs of individuals were not fulfilled, tension was created, with the amount of tension being directly related to the unfulfilled need. Consequently, Schaffer proposed that individuals had twelve basic needs. These needs had same characteristics as the need hierarchy of Maslow. He further stated that if the two most important needs were being satisfied by the job, the individual will report overall job satisfaction. His work demonstrated that there are reliable individual differences in the importance of needs.

### Research in Job Satisfaction

Brayfield and Crockett (1955) concluded in their review of literature that there was no demonstrable relationship between job satisfaction and performance; whereas

Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) reached different conclusion. They found out that there was a systematic relationship between job satisfaction and certain work behavior, as well as between job dissatisfaction and other work behavior. Herzberg went on to say that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two completely different phenomena. They develop from quite different sources and had different initial and long term effect on behavior. Herzberg, Mausner, and Synderman (1959) proposed that every individual has two sets of needs: hygiene needs, and motivator needs. Hygiene needs, which relate to physical and psychological environment in which the work is done, and motivator needs, which relate to the nature and challenge of work itself. When hygiene needs are not met, the individual is dissatisfied. When the hygiene needs are met, the individual is no longer dissatisfied but may not be satisfied either. When motivator needs are met, the individual becomes satisfied. When motivator needs are not met, the individual is not satisfied but not dissatisfied either. However, two-factor theory has been criticized on the ground that face-to-face interviews may have influenced the response of the participants. The premise has been that people usually hesitate to admit to an interviewer that a bad experience was their own fault. They would attribute the cause of dissatisfying experience on someone or something other than themselves. On the other hand, they would be more willing to take personal responsibility for good events. In addition to the lack of empirical support, King (1970) found the lack of conceptual support to this theory even in many of Herzberg's own works.

Vroom (1964), and Lawler (1973) focused on the need fulfillment aspects of satisfaction. According to them, satisfaction is determined by the extent to which the individual's work or working situation affords him outcomes, which he holds as valuable.

In terms of expectancy theory, satisfaction is not only related to the already achieved outcomes, but also to those which are expected to be achieved or to be possibly avoided. In this approach it is assumed that the degree of satisfaction is reflected in the assessment of factual descriptions; in his/her description the individual at the same time indicates what s/he considers valuable and attractive, or unimportant. However, Locke (1976) points out that most researchers fail to adequately specify the concept of need.

The concept of discrepancy emerged through the writings of Morse (1953), Porter (1961), and Locke (1969) which state that satisfaction depends on the extent to which the outcomes, which an individual thinks he gets from his work, correspond with those pursued in his work. Satisfaction is seen as a degree of difference. The larger the difference between the pursued and the perceived outcomes of the work the less is the satisfaction. French, Rodger, Cobb (1974) and Kahn (1981) introduced another discrepancy theory (personality environment fit theory) relating satisfaction to the individual's degree of adjustment. They proposed that the individual adjustment depends on the extent to which the characteristics of himself as a person and those of his environment are attuned to each other. Schneider and Locke (1971) proposed that categorization can be made of the events that may give rise to more or less satisfaction, along two dimensions: event (relating to things that happen), and agent (relating to the cause of the event). Both need fulfillment and discrepancy theories are based on the notion that an individual balances his outcomes against what s/he pursues.

Lawler (1973) combined equity theory and discrepancy theory to explain that satisfaction is determined by the discrepancy in what should be received, according to the individual, and what s/he perceives s/he is actually getting. An individual's idea of what

s/he should receive depends on the inputs s/he claims to have on the job requirements as well as on the perceived relation between inputs and outcome of referent others. Lawler's model ( of Facet Satisfaction) is an extension of Lawler-Porter (1969) model of work motivation dealing with the relationships between actual rewards for performance and perceived equitable reward. The Lawler-Porter model predicted that when perceived equitable rewards exceeded actual rewards, dissatisfaction would result; if actual rewards exceeded or equaled perceived equitable rewards, satisfaction resulted. In the Lawler model of satisfaction, if actual rewards exceed perceived equitable rewards, guilt, discomfort, and presumably tension may be the result. If perceived equitable rewards exceed actual rewards, dissatisfaction results. This model describes the satisfaction an individual will experience with any particular aspect of his job. However, Wall and Payne(1973) showed that the amount of reward received had direct impact on the overall job satisfaction of individuals regardless of what was expected.

In the 1970s , the psychological factors were taken more seriously. Organizational dynamics was one of the most popular subjects of job satisfaction. Schneider and Snyder (1975), found:

- (a) climate and satisfaction measures were correlated for people in some positions but not for others;
- (b) people agreed more on the climate of their organization than they did on their satisfaction;
- (c) neither satisfaction nor climate were strongly correlated with production data;
- (d) and satisfaction, but not climate, was correlated with turnover data.

In the mid 1970s, leadership received some recognition. Mohr (1977) concluded that supervisory behavior was probably influenced significantly by affect between supervisors and subordinates; and when affect is not a factor, supervisory role was more rational. Greene (1975) found that

- (a) consideration caused subordinate satisfaction;
- (b) subordinate performance caused changes in leader emphasis on both consideration and structure; and
- (c) consideration moderated the initiating structure-performance relationship such that with highly considerate leaders, emphasis on structure caused higher subordinate performance.

#### Application of Job Satisfaction in the Hospitality Industry

Carper (1990) looked at why many hard-working young managers in the hotel industry are choosing to leave, and what the industry must do to retain them. Pavesic & Brymer (1990) reported that 28 percent of recent graduates of hospitality management programs were not employed in the field. One year after graduation, one-fifth of those employed in the field left, and this number increased to one-third after five years. Reasons for leaving included long hours, inconvenient scheduling, pay, personal reasons, and quality of life. Barrows (1993), in a similar quest in the hospitality education field, examined current satisfaction levels of faculty employed at four-year hospitality management programs in the United States and Canada. A principal component analysis of the satisfaction items was conducted from which 10 factors emerged that were shown to contribute to the educators' overall levels of satisfaction. The results indicated that

educators were most satisfied with a work achievement factor and were least satisfied with support/assistance and compensation factors.

Vallen (1993) examined the relationship of organizational structure and burnout in the hospitality industry, and found a high correlation between burnout and organizational characteristics. He indicated that employee job satisfaction is high in participative organizations, which generally exhibit low levels of withdrawal. In autocratic organizations the incidence of absenteeism and turnover is high. Employees of organizations characterized by supportive managerial relationships, group decision making, and organization-wide goals experienced less burnout. Organizations that exhibit little cooperative teamwork, employee mistrust, and tightly held control demonstrated significantly more burnout. Job satisfaction can be enhanced when positive, supportive relationships with subordinates are cultivated.

Lee-Ross (1993) studied high levels of labor turnover in the hotel industry. Management styles and their effect on hotel workers' perceptions of jobs was investigated. Interviews with managers revealed two supervisory styles; 'co-ordinative' whereby for most of the time managers did not work alongside their staff, and 'hands-on' whereby for most of the time they did. It was hypothesized that 'hands-on' managers would score jobs similarly to their workers and that 'co-ordinative' managers would not. Also, that workers experiencing 'hands-on' supervision would score 'core job dimensions' higher than their 'co-ordinative' counterparts. The former notion was supported by the results, the latter found partial support. The results indicate that management styles may be important in motivating workers.

Zohar (1994) points out that job stress in the hotel industry has been little investigated, despite indications of its prevalence. He investigated to identify stressors that affect role strain the most, using multiple-regression techniques, and derive a stressor profile in relation to each of the major aspects of role strain. Using a stratified sample of hotel employees (i.e. line employees, middle management, and upper management) it was shown that role ambiguity and low decision-latitude affect global symptoms the most, whereas ambiguity and workload affect specific symptoms of stress having to do with powerlessness. Role conflict, surprisingly, had no independent effect on symptoms. Both profiles were interpreted to form a coherent pattern pointing at employee empowerment at all three levels as the focal issue of the job stress in the hotel industry.

Kokko & Guerrier (1994) reported the results of their research investigating the relationship between over-education/underemployment and job satisfaction. Over-education was defined as an objective incongruence between an employee's responsibilities and education level. Underemployment was defined as the subjective incongruence between an employee's evaluation of his or her job skills and his or her job responsibilities. The research focused on the hospitality industry in Finland, where education levels and unemployment are both considered above average. Their study found an inverse relationship between objective over-education and job satisfaction when over education was defined in terms of vocational training. The International Hotel Association, Paris (1995) carried out the first International Careers and Choice Survey and studied alumni from hotel schools in Australia, Finland, France, Hong Kong, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The reason most frequently cited for not pursuing a career in hospitality was the lack of opportunity for career

development. Low pay and inadequate working conditions were also cited as areas of dissatisfaction. The success of management revolves around the employee. Once managers place emphasis on the employee and carry out this philosophy, guest satisfaction is assured. Five points compose this employer employee relationship: training, visibility, follow-through, listen, and praise (Jameson, 1990).

### Conclusion

Employees, like customers, can be value drivers or loss generators. Keeping "A" employee is a key to success, just as retaining the best customer (Bird, 1996). Companies are finding that it takes more than higher salaries to retain employees (Dolan, 1996). Evidently, the need to know as to what does it take to satisfy employees draws researchers to the basics of job satisfaction, discussed in the preceding sections. A synthesis of the concept of job satisfaction, along with the theories of leadership, motivation and organizational commitment is discussed at the end of this chapter.

## ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

This part of the chapter presents review of literature on organizational commitment as related to leadership behavior. It begins with an overview of the underlying concepts of organizational commitment, followed by the foundation of the concept of organizational commitment. Subsequent to the foundation of organizational commitment, research leading to the development of various theories is discussed. At the end of this section, applications of organizational commitment in current hospitality literature along with a brief summation is provided.



### Overview

Despite conceptual and methodological uncertainties and the controversial nature, the topic of organizational commitment has gained wide interest from and discussion among academicians and practitioners in both public and private sectors. This interest for the most part has been due to its central position in human resource policies (Coopey & Hartley, 1991). Promotion of organizational commitment has been generally considered as a promising mechanism of goal achievement, development, and part of the stability mechanism of an organization. Therefore, it has been assumed that management of an organization would try its best to increase employees' levels of commitment through creating an appropriate atmosphere to those ends. A number of personal characteristics recognized as important in the theoretical and empirical literature on organizational behavior have been found to influence employee commitment. Additional factors like employee demographic characteristics, work values and attitudes toward the job, job and organizational climate perceptions, and personality variables have been studied.

### Foundation of the Concept of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is defined as a measure of strength of the employee's identification with, and involvement in, the goals and values of the organization.

Mowday, Porter & Steers (1982) explained it as three components:

- (a) a strong belief in organizational goals and values;
- (b) willing to exert effort on behalf of their work organization, and
- (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

While some of definitions stress the attitudinal components of commitment suggesting a bond or allegiance between the individual and the organization, behavioral

aspects of commitment have also been identified. Bateman & Organ (1983) referred to these behaviors as "employee citizenship" behaviors. In particular, they pointed to indicators of performance which go beyond the normal requirements of the job, such as helping co-workers with job-related problems, tolerating temporary impositions without complaint, and cooperating in times of crisis.

### Research in Organizational Commitment

Research on organizational commitment has been examined primarily in relation to turnover (Ferris & Aranya, 1983; Hom, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Huselid & Day, 1991; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1980; Wiener & Vardi, 1980). Other research has established a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Angle & Para, 1981; Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981) and organizational commitment and job performance (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989). Individuals who are committed to the organization are less likely to leave their jobs than those who are uncommitted (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). People with high attitudinal commitment generally exhibit specific behaviors including higher attendance, lower job change rates, high involvement and increased job related effort. Individuals who are committed to the organization tend to perform at a higher level and also tend to stay with the organization, thus decreasing turnover and increasing organizational effectiveness. Porter, Crampon, and Smith (1976) investigated the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover. Using a 15-month longitudinal design with a sample of managerial trainees in a large merchandising company, they found that trainees who voluntarily left the company during the initial 15-month employment period had begun to show a definite decline in commitment prior to termination.

Morrow (1983) concluded that commitment is a function of personal characteristics and situational factors related to the job setting. Personal characteristics include factors such as age, tenure, and education, whereas situational factors involve areas such as role conflict, role ambiguity, and organizational climate. Morrow has also examined the types of interventions that could be employed to increase the level of commitment among employees.

Bruning and Snyder (1983) examined sex and position as predictors of organizational commitment in the social service organizations. His research concluded that neither sex nor position was a critical determinant of organizational commitment. Bateman and Strasser (1984) found that organizational commitment is an antecedent to job satisfaction rather than its outcome. Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller (1986), however, concluded on the contrary that there was no causal relationships between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Loscocco (1989) found that the strength of people's commitment to work is determined in response to the whole configuration of their work and non-work experiences. Work conditions strongly affect work commitment levels among many different groups of people. Romzek (1989) examined the effect of employee commitment on the individual's non-work and career satisfaction. He found that the consequences of employee commitment on the individual are positive, supporting the notion that psychological attachment to a work organization yields personal benefits for individuals. Tett and Meyer (1989) in their review of literature regarding organizational commitment focused on the relationship between staff commitment and a number of organizational outcomes. They discovered strong relationships between staff commitment and both job

satisfaction and job turnover. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) also found a relationship between organizational commitment and rates of absenteeism. The research suggests that employees who exhibit organizational commitment are happier at their work; spend less time away from their jobs; and are less likely to leave the organization.

Morris, Lydka, & O'Creevy (1992) discuss two dimensions of commitment: first, attitudinal commitment which establishes employees' identification with their employing organization; second, behavioral commitment which focuses on why employees choose to remain with an organization or to quit. In their longitudinal study of graduates, Morris et al. (1992) found that challenging and interesting work "was a significant predictor of attitudinal commitment." They also found that the issue of equity, the way in which the company was perceived to treat employees fairly, was linked to behavioral commitment in the form of decisions to quit. Intriguingly, the issue of equity was apparently not responsible for influencing decisions to stay. Porter, et al. (1974) found organizational commitment to be a better indicator of "leavers" and "stayers" than job satisfaction. Other researchers found job satisfaction to be related to the task environment while organizational commitment was related to attachment to the employing organization (Glisson and Durick 1988).

Awamleh (1996) states that an organization's level of commitment is a complex function of three broad factors: personal qualities of staff members, organizational dimensions, and socio-economic influences. Personal qualities include an individual's values, feelings, attitudes, education, experience and personality. Organizational dimensions of commitment may include managerial climate, philosophy, practices, motivation, communication style, controlling mechanisms and development

opportunities. Socio-economic influences stem from the surrounding organizational environment including social values, background, relationships and interactions and economic characteristics, problems and opportunities. He further explains that the relationship between an organization's level of commitment and such factors is not always linear. The literature is problematic because commitment has been conceptualized and operationalized in a variety of ways which makes comparisons across studies very difficult (Angle & Perry, 1986).

### Organizational Commitment in the Hospitality Industry

The first step in curing high turnover is discovering why employees leave (Woods & Macaulay, 1989). Hawkins & Lee (1990) examined how the employees in hospitality industry became committed to their organization. They found out that organizational commitment was mainly a function of work-related characteristics (job satisfaction and professional commitment). Murray, Gregoire, and Downey (1990) pointed to the results of research in industrial psychology that suggested that the concept of organizational commitment is comprised of two components: affective and continuance commitment. Affectively committed employees like their job and want to be there; continuance committed employees stay with their jobs out of fear of the loss of benefits or the difficulties associated with making a change. Their study of restaurant managers of pizza restaurants across the United States indicated that organizational commitment among managers was comprised of both affective and continuance commitment. Examination of several job service orientation, job security, job satisfaction, job involvement, intention to quit, unscheduled absences, and work schedule was hypothesized to be related to the degree of affective and/or continuance commitment. Barrows (1990) examined the

determinants and predictors of employee turnover, specifically the role of specific intentions, reasoned action, and job satisfaction. To retain an employee, hotels should pay them fairly, inform them of organizational activities, and allow them the freedom to make a real difference in the organization (Renard, 1988).

DeMicco & Reid (1988) observed that the older employees in the food-service industry demonstrate above-average job performance and organizational commitment. They also state that companies which recognize the potential of older workers and make efforts to recruit and retain them will experience fewer staffing problems as the shortage of younger workers matures.

Williams, DeMicco, daSilva, & Vannucci, (1995) illustrated the high costs that can result when an organization does not make control of turnover a high priority. They also state that high turnover can reflect a deeper problem that occurs when management does not practice quality service leadership. Organizations that adopt a serious approach to turnover provide for themselves a vast competitive advantage in the hospitality industry.

### Conclusion

Baker (1996) quotes Barbara Dewey, a human-resources-management-consultant stating " Nine times out of 10, when a highly valued person is leaving, it's not about money; it's about their role, stature or personal life being out of balance with the demand of job." It is believed that such a conflict emerges due to lack of proactive management, where leadership fails to respond to needs of the followers. Organizational commitment is relevant to the theories of leadership, motivation and job satisfaction, discussed in the preceding sections. A synthesis of the concept of organizational commitment, along with

the theories of leadership, motivation and job satisfaction is discussed in the following section. A synthesis of the concept of job satisfaction and leadership behavior, along with the theories of, motivation and organizational commitment is presented in the following section.

## SUMMARY

Any theory or concept discussed in the preceding sections may produce very little by itself without having anything to do with the other. The complexity of philosophical basis of a theory emerges when it leads to the perceived exclusive domain of other theories. For example, it is impossible to explain employee job satisfaction without introducing its relevance to employee motivation, and their commitment to an organization, without jeopardizing the integrity of the study. Realizing the profound implications, a comprehensive review of relevant literature in social and psychological sciences along with their applications in the hospitality industry was investigated.

Although the relationship among the above mentioned theories have been suggested in various reports in the hospitality literature, no empirical evidence relating specifically to the leadership practices of managers and their impact on the job satisfaction of employees, to the best of knowledge of the researcher, was found to substantiate the same. However, the research in other fields indicates that increased understanding of and attention to employee- subordinate relationship can lead to a significant improvement in leadership practices used by a manager and the consequent job satisfaction among employees.

Hotel organizational systems today are hierarchically arranged, and our understanding of a manager's leadership practices, and their impact on employee job satisfaction holds great significance in both theory and application. Interpersonal relationship between a superior and a role incumbent is one of the crucial elements that influence role taking in an organizational setting. When employees have a positive attitude, they are more likely to perform their jobs successfully. Employee attitudes on the job often depend directly on the supervisor's behavior (Dienhart,1988).



## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce and explain the research methodology used in this study. The first section describes the research objective. Next, the method of determining the sample of the study, questionnaire development, including the instruments used to identify the leadership practices used by the managers and to measure employee job satisfaction, and their reliability is discussed. Then, the data collection procedures are presented along with data analysis procedures.

#### **Research Process**

The methodology presented in this chapter was developed to empirically achieve the purpose and objectives of the present exploratory study, which is to identify the leadership practices being used by the hotel managers and to investigate the effect of leadership practices on the employee job satisfaction. Resulting outcomes of this study were intended to help managers to see themselves as others see them and realize the impact of their behavior on their subordinates' job satisfaction. It provides a starting point to improve management leadership practices, and develop and implement management strategies for continuing leadership development enhancing the employee job satisfaction. The methodology discussed in this chapter answered the research questions discussed in chapter I:

1. What leadership practices are displayed by managers of non-gaming lodging properties in Henderson, and Las Vegas, Nevada?

2. What do the employees at the non-gaming lodging properties in Henderson, and Las Vegas, Nevada perceive about the use of leadership practices by their managers?
3. What is the employee job satisfaction at the non-gaming lodging properties in Henderson, and Las Vegas, Nevada?
4. What is the impact of demographic information on an employee's overall job satisfaction level and their perception of leadership practices displayed by their managers.
5. What relationship exists between the inconsistency, if any determined in manager's leadership behaviors and employees' perceptions of those behaviors, and the employee job satisfaction?

#### Sample Size

J. C. Nunally (1978) suggested that to obtain data for item analysis, as a good rule of thumb, there should be at least ten times as many subjects as items, where possible; however, in any case five subjects per item should be considered the minimum that can be tolerated (p.279). Given these guidelines, an adequate sample size for the Leadership Practice Inventory (30 items) along with Job In General scale (18 items) would be between 240 and 480 subjects, while an adequate simple size for Leadership Practice Inventory (30 items) by itself would be between 150 and 300 subjects.

This research required two sampling frames- Managers, and Observers. A sampling frame can be described as a listing of members from which the actual sample is drawn. Due to the inherent inequality in the size of two sample frames available within the five participating properties all available participants (26 managers and 306 observers) constituted the subjects of this study.

Kouze & Posner (1997) suggest that LPI can be used with as few as six people or as many as several hundred. They recommend a group of twenty to twenty four to conduct a LPI workshop. This assertion by the authors of the scale indicates the validity of the instrument. However, to produce representative results, this study was highly dependent upon the response of the participating properties.

### Sampling Procedures

The population for this study consisted of all the managers and employees non-gaming participating properties in the geographic area of Henderson, and Las Vegas, Nevada. As mentioned in chapter one, due to time and financial constraints, the study was limited to the above mentioned geographic region only. Five properties comprising 28 managers and 321 employees took part in the study. Due to de-limited time period two managers and fifteen employees under their direct supervision could not participate in the study. So, the resulting sample size comprised of 26 managers and 306 observers. The five participating properties comprising the total sample size represented a significant market share in the limited pool of non-gaming nationally recognized hotels in the area of interest. Due to the explanatory nature of the study, and delimitation of participating-properties, it was presupposed to achieve census. Hence, the study was conducted as a census as opposed to sampling as the delimited participation culminated in a very defined population. Consequently, any generalizations based on the result of this study were forewarned in de-limitations listed in chapter I.

As nationally recognized high quality hotels, the participating properties were expected to have well-organized personnel systems. This factor was crucial to the study due to the nature of involvement both by the management and the employees in

determining the prevalent leadership behaviors and the level of job satisfaction among employees. To be included in the study, managers were required to meet the criteria of having had the supervisory and performance evaluation responsibilities for at least four employees. A management roster was provided by each participating property fulfilling this requirement. Due to the confidentiality agreement with the participants, the names of the respondents and the properties are not identified in this study.

A preliminary list of non-gaming hotel properties was developed from various sources- Las Vegas Chamber of Commerce, Las Vegas Visitors and Convention Authority, corporate headquarters of hotel companies, Internet and directory services. Five hotel properties agreed to participate in the study. In an initial meeting with the management, the research purpose, objectives, benefits to the properties, and the proposed completion of the study were discussed.

#### Questionnaire Development

Three survey-instruments were used to collect the necessary data to meet the purpose and objectives of the study. The first survey instrument, Leadership Practices Inventory [LPI]- Self (Appendix A), developed by Kouzes and Posner (1997), sought to identify leadership practices being used by a hotel manager. The second instrument, Leadership Practices Inventory [LPI] –Observer (Appendix B), also developed by Kouzes and Posner (1997) was used to quantify employee perceptions of leadership practices used by their managers. LPI-Self was answered by the managers; LPI-Observer was filled by manager's subordinates. Permission to use these instruments is attached as appendix G. The third survey instrument, Job-In-General [JIG], (Appendix C), developed by Ironson et al. (1989) was used to solicit information concerning employee job

satisfaction. Eighteen one to three word adjectives comprised of this questionnaire to ascertain employee job satisfaction. Permission to use JIG is attached as appendix H.

### Survey Instrument I and II (Leadership Practices Inventory)

Kouzes and Posner's (1997) LPI- Self, and LPI- Observer, both survey-instruments are identical except for the reference to "self" and "observer". The LPI is based upon responses to the Personal-Best Leadership Experience Questionnaire (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). More than 2500 of these surveys were collected. Additional 5000 respondents completed a short version Personal-Best Leadership Experience Questionnaire, as well as over 300 in-depth interviews were conducted to facilitate the development of the Kouzes-Posner leadership framework. Triangulation of qualitative and quantitative research methods were used to develop Leadership Practices Inventory consisting of five key leadership practices:

1. Challenging the process.
2. Inspiring a shared vision.
3. Enabling others to act.
4. Modeling the way.
5. Encouraging the heart.

Thirty behavioral statements translate into these practices- six statements for measuring each of the five leadership practices. The inventory uses a ten-point frequency scale, where "1" indicates "almost never" and "10" indicates "almost always". The original design of the LPI used a five point Likert scale to designate how often the leader demonstrated the behavior where "1" indicated "rarely or very seldom" and "5" indicated "very frequently or almost always". Kouzes and Posner (1997) indicated 10 point scale

provides a greater range of choices to the respondents and encourages more specific response. It can be used more effectively to check leaders' progress over time. It eliminates the need for a separate instrument to assess change. A number of tests conducted by Kouzes and Posner have demonstrated good psychometric properties. The LPI has proved to be internally reliable. Means and standard deviations for each LPI scale are presented in Table 2 below:

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliability Indexes for the LPI  
(Adapted from Kouzes & Posner, 1995)

Leadership Practice	Mean	Standard Deviation	LPI (N=43,899)	LPI	
				LPI-Self (N=6,651)	Observer (37,248)
Challenging the Process	22.38	4.17	.81	.71	.82
Inspiring a Shared Vision	20.48	4.90	.87	.81	.88
Enabling Others to Act	23.89	4.37	.85	.75	.86
Modeling the Way	22.18	4.16	.81	.72	.82
Encouraging the Heart	21.89	5.22	.91	.85	.92

Note: Scale is 1 - 5 with 5 as the highest

Internal reliability (Chronbach alphas) on the LPI range between .81 and .91. Reliabilities for LPI-Self (ranging between .71 and .85) are somewhat lower than those for the LPI-Observer (ranging between .82 and .92). Scores on the LPI have been relatively stable over time. The creators of LPI have compared the LPI scores every two years since 1987. It has shown high test-retest reliability (Kouzes and Posner, 1995).

Furthermore, the creators of LPI pointed out that the findings across a wide variety of business and non-business setting have suggested that no significant relationship exists between the LPI Scores and various demographic factors ( e.g. age,

gender, marital status, education level) or with organizational characteristics (e.g. size, functional area ). Studies, as pointed out by the authors of LPI, have shown no significant difference between male and female managers on the LPI-Self with regard to gender and leadership practices. However, female managers reported engaging in the leadership practice of encouraging the heart more than male managers. Comparison between male and female managers on the LPI-self is shown in table 3:

**Table 3**

**Comparison between male and female managers on the LPI-self  
(Adapted from Kouzes & Posner, 1995)**

Leadership Practice	<u>Males (N = 4,571)</u>		<u>Females (N = 1,267)</u>	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Challenging the Process	22.76	3.22	22.71	3.37
Inspiring a Shared Vision	20.70	3.95	20.51	4.13
Enabling Others to Act	24.81	2.91	24.88	2.88
Modeling the Way	22.21	3.25	22.39	3.18
Encouraging the Heart*	21.60	3.97	23.08	3.90

\* There were statistically significant differences ( $p < .001$ ) between male and female respondents on this leadership practice.

Note: Scale is 1 - 5 with 5 as the highest.

It has also been established that the five scales are statistically orthogonal. This means that the five scales are generally independent and do not all measure the same phenomenon. They measure five different practices, as desired. LPI has both face validity and predictive validity (Kouzes and Posner, 1995). The creators of the LPI scale point out that in two of the leadership practices (challenging the process and enabling others to act)

average frequency scores of LPI- Self are statistically significant than on the LPI- Observers ( Table 4).

Table 4

T-Tests of Differences Between Scores on the LPI-Self and LPI- Observer.  
Adapted from Kouzes and Posner (1995)

Leadership Practice	LPI-Self		LPI-Observer	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Challenging the Process	22.74	3.26	22.31	4.32
Inspiring a Shared Vision	20.62	3.96	20.46	5.05
Enabling Others to Act	24.81	2.91	23.72	4.56
Modeling the Way	22.26	3.24	22.17	4.30
Encouraging the Heart*	21.90	3.99	21.89	5.41

\* There were statistically significant differences ( $p < .001$ ) between LPI-Self and LPI-Observer response on this leadership practice.

Note: Scale used is 1 - 5 with 5 as the highest.

#### Survey Instrument II (Job In General)

The Job-in -General (JIG) scale (Appendix B- Part II) was developed by Ironson et al. (1989). JIG was developed to reflect the global, long-term evaluations of the job, as a sub-scale of Job Descriptive Index (JDI). JDI is comprised of five facets of satisfaction. The five facets are Work, Pay, Opportunities for Promotion, Supervision, Co-workers. From the beginning of the development of JDI, the need for overall evaluation of how people feel about their jobs was recognized, as the five scales of JDI did not provide the information necessary to assess overall satisfaction. JIG was developed to measure overall job satisfaction. It was intended to reflect not only the five principal facets and the importance of each to the individual, but also their interactions and their contributions of



long-term situational and individual factors that make a person satisfied or dissatisfied with the job.

JIG consists of 18 one-to-three word adjectives describing the employee's feelings about job in general, to which employees respond "yes", "no", or "?" if uncertain. Ten items are worded positively, such as "pleasant" and "worthwhile", whereas eight items are worded negatively such as "worse than most" and "inadequate". A negative response is scored 0, a positive response is scored 3, and "?" or a blank is scored 1. The higher the overall score or mean, the greater the indication of job satisfaction.

In each of the samples from Bowling Green State University (this university retains all the rights concerning the use and distribution of JIG) data pool with  $N > 100$ , coefficient alpha reliability estimates exceeded .90 (Total  $N = 3566$ ). Several studies by Bowling Green have demonstrated the information function a success in obtaining accurate measurement throughout the range. Convergent validity was also demonstrated by correlation with other global measures of satisfaction. The Baynard and Rothe (1951) is mentioned as classic example in the user's manual for JIG scale (1997) demonstrating convergent validity. Bowling Green State University also used a rating scale with pre-selected adjectives as anchors (Ironson & Smith, 1981), The "Faces" scale (Kunin, 1955) and a sample numerical rating scale (-100 to +100). Correlation with JIG ranged from .66 to .80. The studies also evidenced construct validity in the patterns of correlations (with 18 other test and a sample of 670 employees). The JIG has been shown consistently correlated with more highly with global measures including intention to leave, life satisfaction, identification with work organization, and trust in management.

This survey-instrument was answered by the observers (employees) only. A relationship between the global job satisfaction of employee and the perceived leadership practices of his/her manager as seen by him/her (employee) was studied to see if leadership behavior of a hotel manager influence the employee job satisfaction.

### Demographic Information

Both manager and employee questionnaires contained a section relating to demographic information. The demographic section was designed to collect the respondents' demographic data, including gender, age, marital status, level of education, years of service, current work position and department. The items regarding gender, age, education, marital status, and years in service were fixed-alternatives questions in which the responses were limited to the stated alternatives. The items regarding department and the current position were open-ended questions since the department name and position may vary hotel to hotel.

### Cover Letter

Both survey-questionnaires (employee and manager questionnaires) were provided with a cover letter each (Appendix C and D). The cover letters were designed to encourage participation as well as to explain the rights of respondents under human subjects protocol. The cover letter first identified the researcher and then the nature and purpose of the study, followed by a request to participate in the study. The statements regarding voluntary participation along with an assurance of confidentiality were addressed. To ensure confidentiality, respondents were reminded to enclose and seal the questionnaire in the attached envelope, upon completion. The approximate time to complete the survey along with the benefits to the industry was discussed. In the last

paragraph, contact information regarding the researcher, and his research advisor was provided for additional information or questions. Also, the contact information about the Office of Sponsored Programs at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas was provided for information regarding the right of respondents. This cover letter was designed in accordance with the human subjects protocol guidelines and format developed by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas.

#### Human Subjects Protocol

Under the common rule set by the Department of Health and Human Services in 1991, research approval (Appendix E) was obtained from the Office of Sponsored Programs at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. The purpose of this rule is to recognize the personal dignity and autonomy of individuals, to protect persons from harm by maximizing anticipated benefits and minimizing possible risk of harm, and to distribute the benefits and burdens of research evenly.

#### Data Collection Procedures

In the last week of May 1998, the author met with the coordinators at each of the participating properties to discuss the administration of the survey-instrument. Due to the inability of properties to facilitate on the spot administration of survey, the survey instrument was made available to each manager via his/her property coordinator. As mentioned earlier, each property provided a management roster with the number of employees under direct supervision of each managers. Based on the information provided, each packet containing survey questionnaires for managers and their subordinates were prepared and personally delivered to each property coordinator in the first week of June 1998. Each packet contained a minimum of one survey-questionnaire

for the manager, and maximum of twenty-two survey-questionnaires for employees, as the number of employees under each manager varied. Each packet also contained a minimum of three extra questionnaires than required by each manager as per the roster. Apart from the cover letters with each questionnaire, a letter was addressed to each manager detailing the instructions to administer the survey-instrument (Appendix F). Apart from the contact numbers listed on the cover letter, the researcher urged the coordinator at each property not to hesitate, should they need any assistance or clarification regarding the administration of the survey. An envelope stating "Please enclose and seal this questionnaire in this envelope, and return it to the survey administrator upon completion" was provided with each survey-questionnaire. On each envelope the word "Confidential" was clearly imprinted to further ensure the confidentiality of responses.

A week after the delivery of the survey-instrument, the researcher personally visited each property to check upon the progress and to remind coordinators of time constraints mentioned in chapter one.

### **Data Analysis Procedures**

The data analysis procedures in this study consisted of coding and entering the obtained data, transforming data, and statistical analysis. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences for Windows 8.0 (SPSS Release 8.0) along with Leadership Practices Inventory scoring software, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition was used for data analysis.

### **Coding and Entering**

Each item on all three survey instruments was coded to facilitate data entry and data analysis. As discussed earlier, LPI comprised of five leadership practices, each consisting of six leadership behaviors. Since both, LPI-Self, and LPI-Observer comprised

of similar statements, distinct letters- 'S' for self and 'O' for observer were suffixed to each corresponding code. Five leadership practices as addressed to the managers and coded for data analysis are as shown in table 5 below:

**Table 5**

**30 - Item Leadership Practices Inventory- Self**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Leadership Behavior</b>
	<b><u>Challenging the Process</u></b>
CTP1S	I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.
CTP2S	I challenge people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work.
CTP3S	I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
CTP4S	I ask "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected.
CTP5S	I experiment and take risks even when there is a chance of failure.
CTP6S	I take the initiative to overcome obstacles even when outcomes are uncertain.
	<b><u>Inspiring a Shared Vision</u></b>
IASV1S	I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.
IASV2S	I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.
IASV3S	I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.
IASV4S	I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.
IASV5S	I am contagiously enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities.
IASV6S	I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.

Table 5 continued

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<u>Enabling Others to Act</u>	
EOTA1S	I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.
EOTA2S	I actively listen to diverse points of view.
EOTA3S	I treat others with dignity and respect.
EOTA4S	I support the decisions that people make on their own.
EOTA5S	I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.
EOTA6S	I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.

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<u>Modeling the Way</u>	
MTW1S	I set a personal example of what I expect from others.
MTW2S	I spend time and energy on making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards that we have agreed on.
MTW3S	I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.
MTW4S	I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.
MTW5S	I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.
MTW6S	I make progress toward goals one step at a time.

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Table 5 continued

<u>Encouraging the Heart</u>	
ETH1S	I praise people for a job well done.
ETH2S	I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.
ETH3S	I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.
ETH4S	I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
ETH5S	I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.
ETH6S	I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

The same five leadership practices as addressed to the employees (Observers), and as coded for data analysis are as shown in table 6 on the next page:

Table 6

30 - Item Leadership Practices Inventory- Observer

Variable	Leadership Behavior
<u>Challenging the Process</u>	
CTP1O	Seeks out challenging opportunities that test his or her own skills and abilities.
CTP2O	Challenges people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work.
CTP3O	Searches outside the formal boundaries of his or her organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
CTP4O	Asks "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected.
CTP5O	Experiment and takes risks even when there is a chance of failure.
CTP6O	Takes the initiative to overcome obstacles even when outcomes are uncertain.

Table 6 continued

<u>Inspiring a Shared Vision</u>	
IASV10	Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.
IASV20	Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like.
IASV30	Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future.
IASV40	Shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.
IASV50	Is contagiously enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities.
IASV60	Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.
<u>Enabling Others to Act</u>	
EOTA10	Develops cooperative relationships among the people I work with.
EOTA20	Actively listens to diverse points of view.
EOTA30	Treats others with dignity and respect.
EOTA40	Supports the decisions that people make on their own.
EOTA50	Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.
EOTA60	Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.
<u>Modeling the Way</u>	
MTW10	Sets a personal example of what he or she expects from others.
MTW20	Spends time and energy on making certain that the people he or she works with adhere to the principles and standards that have been agreed on.
MTW30	Follow through on the promises and commitments that he or she make.
MTW40	Is clear about his or her philosophy of leadership.
MTW50	Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.
MTW60	Makes progress toward goals one step at a time.



Table 6 continued

	<u>Encouraging the Heart</u>
ETH1O	Praises people for a job well done.
ETH2O	Makes it a point to let people know about his or her confidence in their abilities.
ETH3O	Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.
ETH4O	Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
ETH5O	Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments.
ETH6O	Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

LPI-Self was answered by the managers; LPI-Observer was filled by manager's subordinates. The third survey instrument, Job-In-General [JIG], (Appendix B- Part II), developed by Ironson et al. (1989) was used to solicit information concerning employee job satisfaction. Eighteen one to three word adjective as addressed to the employees (Observers) to ascertain their overall job satisfaction. Eight of the eighteen items were reverse coded. The reverse coded items are indicated in table 7 below with "R".

Transformation of the same is discussed in the next section of this chapter. Letters "J" and "G" were assigned along with a distinct number to each variable to represent each construct in the JIG scale. All the item as coded for data analysis are as shown in table 7 on the next page:

Table 7

18 - Items Job In General Scale

Variable	Adjective describing the job in general
JG1	Pleasant
JG2	Bad [R]
JG3	Ideal
JG4	Waste of Time [R]
JG5	Good
JG6	Undesirable [R]
JG7	Worthwhile
JG8	Worse than Most [R]
JG9	Acceptable
JG10	Superior
JG11	Better than Most
JG12	Disagreeable [R]
JG13	Makes me Content
JG14	Inadequate [R]
JG15	Excellent
JG16	Rotten [R]
JG17	Enjoyable
JG18	Poor [R]

Note: [R] denotes reverse coded items

JIG was filled by the employees along with the survey-instrument II (LPI-Observer). Both managers and employees responded to a section soliciting demographic information about them.

Transformation of Data

Eight out of eighteen items in the JIG questionnaire were worded unfavorably (e.g. "bad") The remaining ten items were worded favorably (e.g. "good"). The

respondents circled 1 for "yes," 2 for "no," and 3 for "?". For favorable items "Y" response indicated satisfaction. For these items, "Y" received three points, "N" received zero points, and a "?" received one point. The unfavorable items were reverse coded, meaning "Y" response would indicate dissatisfaction. These unfavorable items were reversed scored with a "N" received three points, a "Y" received zero points, and a "?" received one point. A "?" response always received a score of one point, both before and after reverse-scoring.

Prior to reversing coding and computing scale scores, responses were converted from the 1-2-3 format to a 3-1-0 format. Each response entered as "1" was changed to "3," each response entered as "2" was changed to "0," and each response entered as "3" was changed to "1". A frequency distribution of scores was generated to ascertain that all responses fall under the categories of "3," "0," or "1". The absence of "2" or any other number was confirmed to verify proper data conversion process without any data entry errors.

### Response Rate

The response rate was calculated by dividing the number of completed surveys by the number of possible respondents. Respondents from all five participant properties who could not participate in this study were included in the possible number of respondents. However, response rate was calculated with and without non-participants to ascertain the impact of their absence on the methodology. This study was conducted as a census as opposed to sampling.

### Research Questions

In order to empirically achieve the objectives of this study, five research questions, as listed in chapter one, were examined based upon the information obtained from the survey instruments discussed in the previous sections of this chapter. The first and second question were investigated based upon the data acquired from the Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI) scale, which comprised of two questionnaires- LPI-Self, and LPI- Observers. The first question was explored using LPI-Self, which was administered to managers of the participating properties. The second question was based on the information acquired with LPI-Observer, which was administered to the employees at the participating properties. The information for the third question was acquired using the Job-In-General (JIG) scale to ascertain the overall job satisfaction of employees. The fourth question was examined using the information obtained from both instruments along with the demographic questions which were provided to each respondent with the questionnaires. The fifth question was based on the analysis of the information obtained from LPI and JIG.

### Statistical Analysis

Characteristics of sample. Frequencies for all demographic items were computed to construct an overview of the samples' demographic characteristics including gender, age, marital status, education, number of years in service at the property, department and position. Frequency analysis helped to group responses to open ended questions. Departments were regrouped under accounting, banquet, engineering, food and beverages, front office, general administration, housekeeping, human resources, sales and

marketing. Positions were regrouped as- entry level, supervisor, assistant manager, manager, director, assistant general manager, and general manager.

Normality. In order to ascertain that data are normally distributed i.e. approximately 68% of all the values fall within standard deviation of the mean and 95% of all values fall within two standard deviations of the mean, each instrument scale in this study was tested for normality with the use of histograms and box-plots.

Missing values. Both data sets ( Self, and Observers) were examined for patterns of missing data. All missing responses were identified. As per the guidelines provided by the authors of LPI and JIG missing responses were coded. For LPI, if the respondent had left more than three items blank, the respondent's assessment was discarded. If the respondent had left between one and three items blank, '5' replaced each blank response. LPI scales, both 'Self' and 'Observer' have a valid responses range from 1 to 10. One being 'Almost Never' and 10 corresponds to 'Almost Always'. Five on a range of 1 to 10 corresponds to 'Occasionally' indicating the neutrality of the response. In situations where three or fewer responses were left unmarked for JIG scale, omitted responses were treated as "?" and scored a 1. Responses with more than three items left unmarked were discarded to maintain the integrity of the study.

Mean scores, standard deviations and reliability. Mean scores, standard deviations and reliability were calculated on all the variables from each survey instrument to measure the central tendency, the variability within the data, and consistency correspondingly. Mean scores near to midpoint are considered good discriminators. Low standard deviations for items suggest low variability among responses to an item. When items do measure the same thing they are internally consistent. The Cronbach Alpha

Coefficient were calculated to examine internal consistency reliability for the leadership practices and employee job satisfaction constructs in this study.

Analysis of variance. Analysis of variance was performed separately for managers and for employees to determine if demographic differences were related to predictors or outcomes and should be included in the primary analyses as co-variables. Due to a small number of pairs of means, Bonferroni' significant difference test was used. It uses t tests to perform pair-wise comparisons between group means, but controls overall error rate by setting the error rate for each test to the experiment-wise error rate divided by the total number of tests. Hence, the observed significance level is adjusted for the fact that multiple comparisons are being made (SPSS, 1998).

Correlations. Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated for manager's use of leadership behaviors as perceived by the observers (employees), and employee job satisfaction. Correlation characterizes the existence of a relationship between variables, and it is expressed in term of correlation coefficient. Pearson's correlation is used on quantitative, normally distributed variables, and describes the strength of the linear association between the variables measured at the interval level.

Multiple regression. Multiple regression analysis was used to explore the joint predictive ability of leadership behaviors in relation to job satisfaction of employees. Where correlation analysis investigated the extent to which two variable were associated, multiple regression analysis, in contrast, predicted the value of the dependent variable on the basis of known values of two or more explanatory variables. In this study independent variables were five leadership practices, and the dependent variable was individual JIG score (0 - 54) of observers.

## CHAPTER 4

### DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In Chapter III, the methodology and procedures for data analysis were discussed. Data were analyzed using various statistical techniques. In this chapter, the findings of the data analysis are presented. The first part provides a discussion on the research process. The second part provides a discussion on the statistical analysis including distributions, means, standard deviations and coefficient alpha internal consistency reliabilities. The information obtained from these procedures was used to examine each research question.

#### The Research Process

##### Sample Size

The sample consisted of 28 managers and 321 employees working at the five participating properties. Although the number of participating employees satisfied the guidelines suggested by J. C Nunally (1978) for sample size for item analysis as discussed in chapter III, the number of managers, however, could not satisfy the same criteria (5 to 10 subjects per item) due to inherent inequality in number as compared employees at each participating property. This inequality in the sample sizes was deemed to have no adverse effect on the study as Kouzes and Posner (1997), the authors of the LPI scales, suggested that LPI can be used with as few as six people or as many as several hundred. They recommended a group of twenty to twenty four participants. This

study included all available managers and employees from the participating properties to maximize the variability in the measure.

### Response Rate

The sample consisted of 28 managers and 321 employees working at the five participating properties. Due to delimitation of time, two managers and fifteen employee under their direct supervision could not participate in the study. A total of 26 managers (92.8 percent), and 306 ( 95.3 percent) employees participated in the study, of which 10 responses could not be used due to missing information. A response with missing information on more than three variables was discarded. All 10 responses with missing information were part of employee responses. The usable number of responses comprised 26 managers and 294 employees (see table 8).

Table 8

### Response Rate

	Manager N=28	Percent	Employees N=321	Percent
Participated	26	92.8	306	95.3
Usable	26	92.8	294	91.6

The response rate was calculated by dividing the number of completed surveys by the number of possible respondents. Respondents from all five participant properties who could not participate in this study were included in the possible number of respondents.



### Characteristics of the Sample

Frequency analyses on both the data sets ( managers. and employees) were conducted to determine the underlying demographic patterns.

#### Managers

As indicated in Table 9, of the total 26 managers who participated in the study 69.2 percent were female and 30.8 percent were male. Over 88 percent of the managers were above the age of 26 years. More specifically, age group between 26 and 30 years had the highest frequency of 46.2 percent followed by the 36 to 40 years age group among all the participating managers. No manager was found in the age groups of between 41 to 45, between 46 to 50, and above 56 years of age. Fifty percent of all the participating managers were single. The second highest number (42.3 percent) comprised of married managers, followed by the widowed and divorced group with 3.8 percent each. Over forty-six percent of managers were 4 -year-college graduates or postgraduates. Nine managers (34.6 percent) had a minimum of 2-years college. Four managers were high school graduates and one manager had some high school education only. Over 83 percent of the positions were managers and above, while 26.9 percent were supervisors. Over forty-six percent of managers had been employed with the company less than one year, followed by the 1 to 3 years group comprising 26.9 percent of all the participating managers. Only one manager had been with the company 10 or more years. More than 80 percent of all participating managers came from general administration, food and beverages, front office, and housekeeping. Engineering, sales, and banquet had either one or two managers each. A detailed summary is displayed in the table on the following page:

Table 9

Characteristics of Managers

Sample Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	8	30.8
Female	18	69.2
<b>Age</b>		
Under 25	3	11.5
Between 26 - 30	12	46.2
Between 31 - 35	4	15.4
Between 36 - 40	5	19.2
Between 41 - 45	0	0.0
Between 46 - 50	0	0.0
Between 51 - 55	2	7.7
<b>Marital Status</b>		
Single	13	50.0
Married	11	42.3
Widowed	1	3.8
Divorced	1	3.8

Table 9 continued

<b>Education</b>		
Some High School	1	3.8
High School Graduate	4	15.4
2 - Year College	9	34.6
4 - Year College	9	34.6
Post Graduate	3	11.5
<b>Current Position</b>		
Assistant General Manager	1	3.8
Director	2	7.7
General Manager	3	11.5
Manager	13	50.0
Supervisor	7	26.9
<b>Length of Employment</b>		
Less than 1 Year	12	46.2
1 - 3 Years	7	26.9
4 - 6 Years	4	15.4
7 - 9 Years	2	7.7
10 or more Years	1	3.8

Table 9 continued

Department		
Banquet	1	3.8
Engineering	2	7.7
Food and Beverages	6	23.1
Front Office	5	19.2
General Administration	6	23.1
Housekeeping	4	15.4
Sales and Marketing	2	7.7

### Employees

As indicated in the Table 10 on the following page, of the total 294 observers, 56.5 percent were female as opposed to 43.5 percent of male respondents. Thirty-two percent of the respondents were within the age group of 26 to 30 years, followed by the age group below 25 years of age, which comprised 24.1 percent of all respondents. Over 87 percent of the respondents were age 40 years and below. Only 3.4 percent of the respondents were over 56 years age group. Over fifty percent of all the observers were single and 43.5 percent were married. Divorced and widowed were 4.4 percent and 1.7 percent correspondingly. Thirty-one percent of all the observers were high school graduates, followed by two-year college (30.3 percent) and four-year college (25.2 percent). Four observers were post graduates. Of the respondents, 71.1 percent were entry level employees, 15.6 percent were in supervisory positions, and 13.3 percent were assistant managers. Of all the observers, 59.2 percent had been with the property for less

than a year, followed by 1 to 3 years of employment group (19.7 percent). Only four observers had length of employment more than 10 years. Over seventy-five percent of the observers comprised of front office, food and beverages, and housekeeping (35.7 percent, 20.7 percent, and 19.4 percent respectively). The other, approximately 25 percent of the observers comprised of accounting (1.4 percent), banquet (3.1 percent), engineering (7.8 percent), general administration (3.1), human resources (2.4), and sales and marketing (6.5). A detailed summary is displayed in the following table:

Table 10

Characteristics of Employees

<u>Sample Characteristics</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	128	43.5
Female	166	56.5
<b>Age</b>		
Under 25	71	24.1
Between 26 - 30	94	32.0
Between 31 - 35	47	16.0
Between 36 - 40	44	15.0
Between 41 - 45	8	2.7
Between 46 - 50	13	4.4
Between 51 - 55	7	2.4
Over 56	10	3.4

Table 10 continued

<b>Marital Status</b>		
Single	148	50.3
Married	128	43.5
Widowed	5	1.7
Divorced	13	4.4
<b>Education</b>		
Some High School	36	12.2
High School Graduate	91	31.0
2 - Year College	89	30.3
4 - Year College	74	25.2
Post Graduate	4	1.4
<b>Current Position</b>		
Entry Level	209	71.1
Supervisor	46	15.6
Assistant Manager	39	13.3
<b>Length of Employment</b>		
Less than 1 Year	174	59.2
1 - 3 Years	58	19.7
4 - 6 Years	29	9.9
7 - 9 Years	29	9.9
10 or more Years	4	1.4

Table 10 continued

Department		
Accounting	4	1.4
Banquet	9	3.1
Engineering	23	7.8
Food and Beverages	61	20.7
Front Office	105	35.7
General Administration	9	3.1
Housekeeping	57	19.4
Human Resource	7	2.4
Sales and Marketing	19	6.5

### Statistical Analysis

Keeping in line with the objectives of the study, a statistical procedure involving an investigation of missing values and outliers, an analysis of frequency statistics, means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency reliabilities of all the variables were employed. Means and standard deviation for each behavioral statement comprising each leadership practice was tabulated for both the data sets (Managers, and Observers). Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to ascertain the validity of the instrument in relevance to this study. All the above mentioned statistical procedures were employed to answer the research questions mentioned in chapter one. Each leadership practice comprised of six statements. Cronbach's Alpha was calculated to measure the

internal consistency for each set of six statements, as well as eighteen one-to-three word adjectives constituting Job-In-General scale.

### Normality

All the variables constituting three questionnaires were tested for normal distribution with the use of histograms and boxplots. Kurtosis- a measure of the extent to which observations cluster around a central point, indicated that the value scales were slightly skewed towards higher figures. For a normal distribution, the value of the Kurtosis statistic would have been 0. Most of the variables had Kurtosis values lying at both ends with relatively small negative and small positive values. Positive kurtosis indicates that the observations cluster more and have longer tails than those in the normal distribution and negative kurtosis indicates the observations cluster less and have shorter tails. The Kurtosis statistic indicated that approximately half of the behavioral statements constituting five leadership practices had positive kurtosis, meaning that the observations cluster more and have longer tails than those in the normal distribution. The other half of the statements had negative kurtosis indicating the observations cluster less and have shorter tails. The Kurtosis statistic indicates that although the standard deviations range from 1.05 to 2.11 from the mean, data may be skewed. Similarly for JIG, Kurtosis statistic indicated that at least two-third of the observations had positive Kurtosis.

An effort was made to transform data to see if that would affect the distribution of the variables in the data sets. Transformation functions- natural log, square root, and cube were used separately and then tested for each variable in both the data set for normal distribution. The spread of data values along with standard deviations had very little or no impact on the normal distribution of data. Consequently, statistical procedures requiring



natural distribution of data were appraised in terms of their impact on the data analysis. Consistent with these findings, a caution regarding the applicability of results was addressed in the limitations of this study in chapter one.

### Missing Values and Outliers

Initial data analyses involving frequencies, descriptive, and exploratory statistics indicated some data entry errors, which were corrected by tracking back to the individual responses. Less than three valid missing values in any response were replaced by the neutral numbers (5 for LPI, 1 for JIG) as proposed by the authors of the instruments. Responses with more than three missing values were excluded to maintain the integrity of the study. As mentioned in the previous section, most respondents answered on the higher end of the scale except for a few on the lower end of the scale. Consequently, boxplots indicated the presence of lowest and the highest numbers as outliers and extreme values. A visual inspection of both the data sets indicated that none of the data values were other than the expected values of the scales being used. An analysis of these outliers and extreme values indicated that their exclusion would compromise the purpose of the study as most of the values lying on the higher end would constitute extreme values in one or the other variable. An exclusion of these cases would reduce the already small sample significantly, and the results obtained would not be representative of the subjects under study- the constructs in each instruments reflects the perception of each respondent.

### **Means and Standard Deviations**

This section discusses the means and standard deviations for LPI-Self, LPI-Observers, and JIG along with the its composite job-satisfaction score used to explore research questions mentioned in chapter one. LPI-Self and LPI-Observers, both comprised of 30 similar behavioral statements, were used to explore research question one and two. JIG comprised of 18 one-to-three word adjectives was used to investigate the level of overall job-satisfaction of employees. All the variables constituting these scales were used to answer fourth and fifth research questions.

#### **First Research Question**

To ascertain the leadership practices being used by the hotel managers, LPI-Self presented 30 behavioral statements constituting five leadership practices. Managers responded the frequency of those behaviors on a ten point frequency scale. Mean score for each of the variable range from 7.73 to 9.27 with a standard deviation ranging from 1.05 to 2.11. Table 11 lists a summary of means and standard deviations of each leadership behavior. Although the variability indicated in the table is not large, the means of the values corroborates the skewness in data, as discussed in the previous section. Most respondents rated themselves on the higher end of the scale. However, a narrow dispersion of responses indicate that these items adequately differentiate along respective leadership practice construct. This was further evidenced through an analysis of correlation matrixes and alpha coefficients for each scale.

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations (Managers)

	Mean	Standard Deviation
<b>CHALLENGING THE PROCESS</b>		
CTP1S	8.35	1.38
CTP2S	8.27	1.48
CTP3S	8.27	1.48
CTP4S	8.73	1.22
CTP5S	8.19	1.79
CTP6S	8.65	1.35
<b>ENABLING OTHERS TO ACT</b>		
EOTA1S	8.96	1.28
EOTA2S	8.77	1.50
EOTA3S	9.27	1.31
EOTA4S	8.96	1.15
EOTA5S	9.00	1.57
EOTA6S	8.69	1.44
<b>ENCOURAGING THE HEART</b>		
ETH1S	8.77	1.53
ETH2S	8.58	1.30
ETH3S	8.46	1.24
ETH4S	8.77	1.24
ETH5S	8.42	1.36
ETH6S	8.85	1.22

Table 11 continued

INSPIRING A SHARED VISION		
IASV1S	8.34	1.13
IASV2S	8.00	1.62
IASV3S	7.73	1.85
IASV4S	7.96	1.54
IASV5S	8.15	2.11
IASV6S	8.80	1.36
MODELING THE WAY		
MTW1S	9.07	1.05
MTW2S	8.65	1.47
MTW3S	9.11	1.11
MTW4S	8.77	1.43
MTW5S	8.50	1.53
MTW6S	8.69	1.57

A set of six statements constitute a leadership practice. The table above categorically lists the behavioral statements under each leadership practice. Statistics as displayed in table 11 above, and table 12 on the following page indicates that most managers tend to agree that the leadership practice 'Enabling Others to Act' is most common to their behavior , followed by the second most frequently used leadership practice- 'Modeling the Way'. Although all the five leadership practices scored high, 'Inspiring a Shared Vision' was the least favorite among five leadership practices.

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations for the Leadership Practices Inventory- Self (N=26)

Leadership Practice	Mean	Standard Deviation
Challenging the Process	8.41	1.12
Inspiring a Shared Vision	8.17	1.32
Enabling Others to Act	8.94	1.01
Modeling the Way	8.80	1.13
Encouraging the Heart	8.64	1.04

Second Research Question

Information regarding what do employees think about their manager's leadership behavior was obtained by using LPI-Observer questionnaire. This instrument rephrased the questions asked to managers in LPI-Self. A set of thirty statements constituting five leadership practices acquired the necessary information. Table 13 indicates the range of mean values and standard deviations for each statement. Mean values range from 7.82 to 8.90, indicating that the observations cluster more and have longer tails than those in the normal distribution. This is attributable to skewed observations as most observers responded on the higher end of the scale. However, the standard deviations range from 1.70 to 2.26 indicating that approximately 95 percent or more of all the cases fall within 2.26 standard deviation of the mean. A detailed summary of each leadership behavior (as evidenced by the observers) mean and standard deviation is displayed in the following table.

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations LPI-Observer

	Mean	Standard Deviation
<b>CHALLENGING THE PROCESS</b>		
CTP10	8.47	1.85
CTP20	8.09	2.14
CTP30	8.14	2.02
CTP40	8.04	2.16
CTP50	8.26	2.05
CTP60	8.40	1.90
<b>ENABLING OTHERS TO ACT</b>		
EOTA10	8.64	1.85
EOTA20	8.46	1.95
EOTA30	8.90	1.86
EOTA40	8.55	1.84
EOTA50	8.50	1.90
EOTA60	8.42	2.17
<b>ENCOURAGING THE HEART</b>		
ETH10	8.56	1.92
ETH20	8.37	1.99
ETH30	8.23	2.05
ETH40	8.36	1.97
ETH50	8.25	2.04
ETH60	8.61	2.01

Table 13 continued

INSPIRING A SHARED VISION		
IASV1O	8.19	2.10
IASV2O	7.90	2.19
IASV3O	7.82	2.26
IASV4O	7.86	2.22
IASV5O	8.38	1.93
IASV6O	8.24	2.10
MODELING THE WAY		
MTW1O	8.55	1.96
MTW2O	8.68	1.71
MTW3O	8.63	1.83
MTW4O	8.53	2.04
MTW5O	8.21	2.06
MTW6O	8.44	1.88

Based on the Kouze-Posner leadership model each set of six statements constituting a leadership practice as displayed in table 13 above, and table 14 on the following page indicates that most observers (employees) tend to agree with the information acquired in first research question- that the leadership practice 'Enabling Others to Act' is most common to their managers' behavior , followed by the second most frequently used leadership practice- 'Modeling the Way'. Although all the five leadership practices scored high, 'Inspiring a Shared Vision' was the least favorite among five leadership practices.

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations for the Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer

<u>Leadership Practice</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
Challenging the Process	8.41	1.12
Inspiring a Shared Vision	8.17	1.32
Enabling Others to Act	8.94	1.01
Modeling the Way	8.80	1.13
Encouraging the Heart	8.64	1.04

Third Research Question

Similar to LPI instrument discussed in the previous section, means, standard deviations and Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability was measured for Job-In-General scale used to measure the overall job satisfaction of employees. Cronbach Alpha internal reliability was .90, which indicated a strong consistency within items. As mentioned earlier this scale comprised of 18 one to three words adjective. Each adjectives could score minimum 0 to maximum 3 points creating a possible composite score of 54 points. Means and standard deviation for each adjectives were calculated. Mean statistic for each construct range from 1.61 to 2.72 with a varying standard deviation of .77 to 1.39. This indicates that some constructs of job satisfaction were graded lower than others. Items with lower means indicated a larger variability, suggesting that in some cases the level of satisfaction, as measured on these items, was higher than others. However, the range of standard deviations indicated that approximately 95 percent of all the cases were within this range. Means and standard deviations for each construct of the scale as presented in Table 15 below.



**Table 15**  
**Means and Standard Deviations (Job-In-General)**

	Mean	Standard Deviation
JIG1	2.57	.98
JIG2	2.72	.77
JIG3	1.84	1.31
JIG4	2.69	.80
JIG5	2.63	.92
JIG6	2.58	.88
JIG7	2.44	1.04
JIG8	2.58	.95
JIG9	2.64	.90
JIG10	1.61	1.39
JIG11	2.28	1.19
JIG12	2.55	.93
JIG13	1.94	1.29
JIG14	2.33	1.12
JIG15	1.84	1.37
JIG16	2.66	.82
JIG17	2.45	1.09
JIG18	2.68	.84

A composite score calculated by each response indicated a higher degree of variability. Mean score of all the respondent was 43.03 with a standard deviation of

11.49. The minimum value of the composite score was 6, and maximum value was 54. Median, the value above and below which half the cases fall (the 50th percentile), of all the responses was 46. The median is a measure of central tendency not sensitive to outlying values -- unlike the mean, which can be affected by a few extremely high or low values. Due to even number of cases, the median was the average of the two middle cases when they were sorted in ascending order. Mode, the most frequently occurring value was found to be 54, the highest possible point for JIG scale. If several values share the greatest frequency of occurrence, each of them is a mode. The frequencies procedure in statistical analysis reports only the smallest of such multiple modes. Means, mode and median, all three measures of central tendency indicated that most respondent indicated satisfaction with their jobs. This scale uses the overall score as a measure of satisfaction. The higher the overall score, the greater the indication of job satisfaction. Although, in theory there is no such neutral point below or above of which this score can indicate the level of satisfaction, yet in practice there is a limited range that would characterize persons who feel neither good or bad about particular aspects of their jobs. Without attempting to pinpoint the exact neutral point, Balzer et, al., (1997) proposed this neutral point to be the middle range of possible score (0 - 54) or around a score of 27. They suggested that score well above 27 ( i. e., 32 or above) indicate satisfaction , while those below 27 (i. e., 22 or below) indicate dissatisfaction. A frequency analysis of the total score of each response indicated that 14.3 percent of respondents scored 27 points or less on the JIG scale. Almost fifty percent of the respondents scored 47 points or above, indicating a higher degree of satisfaction.

#### **Fourth Research Question**

In order to determine the impact of demographic variables mean score of LPI-Self, LPI-Observer, and JIG relative to gender, age, marital status, education, length of employment, department, and current position were calculated. Table 16 and 17 on the following pages display the information relative to each leadership practice and job satisfaction constructs. A comparative analysis of these tables indicates that females graded higher on all the constructs of LPI scale than males. Managers under 25 graded themselves highest on LPI score. Observers age group between the age of 41 -45 graded the lowest LPI score. Married managers had high scores as opposed to widowed observers who graded their manager's highest. Managers with the minimum education scored high, as opposed to observers who had 2-years college education. Manager with 7 to 9 years employment showed high LPI score, while employees with 10 or more years graded high. Managers in banquet, housekeeping and engineering graded on the higher end of the scale, whereas observers in engineering, general administration, and accounting graded their managers higher. People in supervisory position graded higher in LPI-Self and LPI-Observers. An analysis of information displayed in the following tables may indicate some differences among factors of demographic variables in terms of grading constructs of LPI-Self and LPI-Observer, their statistical significance was derived using analysis of variance, discussed in the later part of this chapter.

Table 16

**Demographic Differences on Mean Scores for Leadership Practices - LPI- Self (N=26).**

<b>Demographic Variable</b>	<b>Total #</b>	<b>CTP</b>	<b>IASV</b>	<b>EOTA</b>	<b>MTW</b>	<b>ETH</b>	<b>LPI Score</b>
<b>Gender</b>							
Male	8	49.38	48.63	51.75	49.88	49.13	248.75
Female	18	50.94	49.17	54.50	54.11	53.06	261.78
<b>Age</b>							
Under 25	3	55.33	53.33	56.00	57.00	56.00	277.67
Between 26-30	12	48.00	46.33	52.08	50.25	48.42	245.08
Between 31-35	4	56.25	55.50	53.50	53.50	54.00	272.75
Between 36-40	5	50.80	48.40	56.20	55.60	56.20	267.20
Between 51-55	2	45.50	47.00	53.50	53.50	51.00	250.50
<b>Marital Status</b>							
Single	13	47.46	43.92	51.77	50.08	49.15	242.38
Married	11	54.91	55.36	55.91	55.91	55.18	277.27
Widowed	1	51.00	52.00	54.00	58.00	53.00	268.00
Divorced	1	40.00	42.00	53.00	49.00	49.00	233.00
<b>Education</b>							
Some High School	1	46.00	51.00	58.00	57.00	58.00	270.00
High School Grad.	4	50.50	47.50	57.00	56.00	54.50	265.50
2 - Year College	9	51.78	50.11	54.22	53.11	51.78	261.00
4 - Year College	9	48.78	47.00	51.00	49.78	49.22	245.78
Post Graduate	3	53.00	53.00	54.00	55.33	54.33	269.67

Table 16 continued

Length of Employment							
Less Than 1 Year	12	50.75	47.42	51.25	50.17	49.58	249.17
1 - 3 Years	7	52.14	50.43	55.57	55.71	52.43	266.29
4 - 6 Years	4	48.50	51.00	55.25	53.75	55.00	263.50
7 - 9 Years	2	52.00	53.00	58.50	58.50	58.50	280.50
10 or More Years	1	40.00	42.00	53.00	49.00	49.00	233.00
Department							
Banquet	1	50.00	54.00	59.00	58.00	54.00	275.00
Engineering	2	50.00	54.00	58.00	55.50	56.50	274.00
F. & B.	6	48.50	42.50	50.67	50.17	47.83	239.67
Front Office	5	51.40	51.60	53.60	51.80	50.80	259.20
General Adm.	6	49.50	49.50	52.33	51.33	52.67	255.33
Housekeeping	4	53.00	52.50	56.00	56.25	56.50	274.25
Sales & Mktg.	2	52.50	46.00	55.00	55.50	49.00	258.00
Current Position							
General Manager	3	48.33	49.67	54.00	54.00	55.00	261.00
Asst. G. M.	1	40.00	42.00	53.00	49.00	49.00	233.00
Director	2	55.50	55.50	49.50	47.50	49.00	257.00
Manager	13	49.77	48.62	53.70	52.00	51.31	255.38
Supervisor	7	52.71	48.57	54.71	55.86	52.71	264.57

Table 17

**Demographic Differences on Mean Scores for Leadership Practices - LPI- Observers**

(N=294).

<b>Demographic Variable</b>	<b>Total #</b>	<b>CTP</b>	<b>IASV</b>	<b>EOTA</b>	<b>MTW</b>	<b>ETH</b>	<b>LPI Score</b>
<b>Gender</b>							
Male	128	48.25	46.84	50.27	50.27	50.04	246.02
Female	166	50.29	49.60	52.10	51.61	50.64	254.24
<b>Age</b>							
Under 25	71	48.94	48.20	51.55	50.53	49.62	248.85
Between 26-30	94	49.54	47.04	50.81	50.64	49.42	247.44
Between 31-35	47	50.30	49.51	51.89	52.15	52.06	255.91
Between 36-40	44	49.77	49.27	51.98	50.41	51.48	252.91
Between 41-45	8	43.63	46.00	47.00	48.75	46.00	231.37
Between 46-50	13	52.77	52.46	53.54	52.77	54.92	266.46
Between 51-55	7	51.00	52.29	56.29	55.71	54.43	269.71
Over 56	10	44.60	47.30	50.10	51.90	46.90	240.80
<b>Marital Status</b>							
Single	148	49.39	48.17	50.99	50.81	49.89	249.26
Married	128	49.49	48.58	51.78	51.18	50.87	251.90
Widowed	5	49.40	51.80	52.60	52.40	51.40	257.60
Divorced	13	48.62	47.84	53.16	51.46	50.77	251.85

Table 17 continued

<b>Education</b>							
Some High School	36	47.28	48.00	50.11	49.97	49.39	244.75
High School Grad.	91	49.48	48.00	52.40	51.70	51.00	253.69
2 - Year College	89	50.42	49.18	51.76	51.33	51.46	254.15
4 - Year College	74	48.68	46.30	50.19	50.00	48.41	243.57
Post Graduate	4	57.50	48.39	51.46	51.03	50.38	250.66
<b>Length of Employment</b>							
Less Than 1 Year	174	49.35	48.81	51.51	50.91	50.54	251.12
1 - 3 Years	58	48.43	46.31	49.33	49.17	48.66	241.95
4 - 6 Years	29	52.24	50.93	54.24	53.83	52.86	264.10
7 - 9 Years	29	48.21	46.76	52.21	52.17	49.86	249.21
10 or More Years	4	53.75	53.25	54.50	54.50	54.25	270.25
<b>Department</b>							
Accounting	4	53.50	52.25	52.75	53.25	53.5	265.25
Banquet	9	49.67	46.11	52.67	51.22	50.22	247.89
Engineering	23	53.65	54.39	54.74	54.78	56.43	274.00
F & B	61	46.00	44.44	47.46	47.66	47.16	232.72
Front Office	105	49.70	49.06	52.00	51.13	49.69	251.56
General Adm.	9	52.67	50.89	54.56	54.00	56.11	268.22
Housekeeping	57	49.07	49.91	51.95	51.12	51.35	254.40
Human Resource	7	50.86	49.71	51.00	50.29	53.71	255.57
Sales & Mktg.	19	51.53	45.16	53.74	51.74	49.79	251.95

Table 17 continued

Current Position							
Entry Level	209	48.78	48.55	51.22	50.78	50.08	249.42
Supervisor	46	50.59	49.09	51.87	52.06	51.43	255.04
Asst. Manager	39	51.31	46.72	52.26	51.13	50.77	252.18

In response to JIG scale no demographic group distinctly graded below a score of 27 points, an arbitrary point proposed by the authors of scale below or above which respondents can be categorized as not satisfied or satisfied respectively. Most of the scores range high except in the variable categories of widowed, some high school education and food and beverages. Even the lowest graded mean score in each factor of each variable is well above the satisfaction point. The variances among groups, however, indicate that although all groups tend to convey that they are satisfied, some groups are more satisfied than others. The statistical significance of these variables is analyzed in the analysis of variance section of this chapter. Table 18 displays the means of JIG constructs in relevance to demographic variables:

Table 18

Demographic Differences on Mean Scores Job Satisfaction - Job-In-General (N=294).

Demographic Variable	Total #	JIG Score
Gender		
Male	128	43.37
Female	166	42.76



Table 18 continued

<b>Age</b>		
Under 25	71	42.97
Between 26-30	94	44.89
Between 31-35	47	40.89
Between 36-40	44	40.18
Between 41-45	8	44.75
Between 46-50	13	49.08
Between 51-55	7	43.43
Over 56	10	38.90
<b>Marital Status</b>		
Single	148	43.51
Married	128	43.18
Widowed	5	32.40
Divorced	13	40.08
<b>Education</b>		
Some High School	36	37.72
High School Grad.	91	42.46
2 - Year College	89	45.13
4 - Year College	74	43.72
Post Graduate	4	44.00

Table 18 continued

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**Length of Employment**

Less Than 1 Year	174	42.93
1 - 3 Years	58	42.47
4 - 6 Years	29	46.90
7 - 9 Years	29	40.58
10 or More Years	4	45.00

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**Department**

Accounting	4	47.25
Banquet	9	49.56
Engineering	23	42.65
F & B	61	36.29
Front Office	105	45.93
General Adm.	9	47.00
Housekeeping	57	40.04
Human Resource	7	51.71
Sales & Mktg.	19	48.95

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**Current Position**

Entry Level	209	42.21
Supervisor	46	40.43
Asst. Manager	39	50.49

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### Fifth Research Question

Means and standard deviation calculated in research questions one, two and three were analyzed to see any relationship exists among them. As mentioned earlier, all the managers and the respective employees under their supervision were grouped so as to distinguish the differences, if any, as a result of direct observations as opposed to a coincident. To compare the two unequal samples (managers = 26, and employees = 294 ), the means of the employees observations for each leadership practice for their respective manager were calculated and then matched against each manager. The correlations among them are discussed in the succeeding section as part of the validity and reliability measures. Pearson correlation was used to reveal statistically significant relationships.

### Validity

To ensure that variables in each questionnaire measured what they were supposed to measure, this research used a construct validity procedure. Pearson correlation, a measure of linear association between two variables, was used to assess the validity of the scales with respect to this study. Values of the correlation coefficient range from -1 to 1. The sign of the coefficient indicates the direction of the relationship, and its absolute value indicates the strength, with larger absolute values indicating stronger relationships (SPSS, 1997). For LPI-Self and LPI-Others, Pearson correlation for each leadership practice involving the respective six behavioral statements was calculated. For Job-In-General scale all 18 constructs were tested for Pearson correlation. Both, LPI-Observers and JIG scales were tested for correlation for each leadership practice and job satisfaction. Although it was expected that all variables would positively associate with each other, a two-tailed test was preferred to eliminate the possibility of negative

association. Correlation matrices displayed in the following sections identify significant correlation at the 0.05 level with a single asterisk and at 0.01 level with double asterisks.

#### First Research Question

Challenging the Process as viewed by the managers, and as perceived by their observers were tested for correlation separately. Table 19 shows the Pearson correlation between the each item of the leadership practice. It indicates a significant correlation among most variables except CTP4, which seems to have a correlated only with CTP3 at the level of 0.05 of significance. Although CTP4 did not correlate with CTP3, at least it did not have a negative correlation .

TABLE 19

#### Challenging the Process Correlation Matrix ( LPI-Self).

Pearson Correlation	CTP1	CTP2	CTP3	CTP4	CTP5	CTP6
CTP1	1.000	.576**	.595**	.342	.570**	.578**
CTP2	.576*	1.000	.619**	.285	.401**	.565**
CTP3	.595**	.619**	1.000	.550**	.567**	.744**
CTP4	.342	.285	.550*	1.000	.353	.006
CTP5	.570**	.401*	.567**	.190	1.000	.573**
CTP6	.578**	.565**	.744**	.523**	.573**	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Inspiring a shared vision as indicated by the managers showed a significant correlation for most items at the level of 0.05, with an exception of IASV4 as related to IASV1 and IASV6. A strong correlation was evidenced among most items, as shown by

double asterisks in table 20. Statistically significant correlation ranged from .444 to .894 indicating the strong construct validity of the leadership practice sub-scale. There is a significant correlation at the level of 0.01 and 0.05. None of the constructs in this leadership practice evidenced a negative correlation. Since these variables show high correlation with one another, it can be safely concluded that they all measure the same thing

TABLE 20

Inspiring a Shared Vision Correlation Matrix ( LPI-Self).

Pearson Correlation	IASV1	IASV2	IASV3	IASV4	IASV5	IASV6
IASV1	1.000	.741**	.546**	.308	.631**	.489**
IASV2	.741**	1.000	.894**	.577**	.828**	.653**
IASV3	.546**	.894**	1.000	.561**	.771**	.665**
IASV4	.308	.577**	.561**	1.000	.446*	.303
IASV5	.631**	.828**	.771**	.446*	1.000	.444*
IASV6	.489*	.653**	.665**	.303	.444*	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Enabling others to act. Correlation matrices for this leadership practice, as shown in table 21, indicated that most variables in LPI-Self, except EOTA6 have significant correlation among them at the level of 0.05. EOTA6 appears to be correlated to only EOTA4 at the level of 0.01. A strong correlation exists among most variables at the level of 0.01. Although, EOTA6 does not correlate with other variables except EOTA4, it did

not have any negative correlation. EOTA 2 also did not correlate EOTA5 and EOTA6.

Since most of the variables showed high correlation with one another, it can be concluded that they all measure the same leadership practice.

TABLE 21

Enabling Others to Act Correlation Matrix ( LPI-Self).

Pearson Correlation	EOTA1	EOTA2	EOTA3	EOTA4	EOTA5	EOTA6
EOTA1	1.000	.784**	.673**	.407*	.575**	.102
EOTA2	.784**	1.000	.620**	.481*	.270	.225
EOTA3	.673**	.620**	1.000	.485*	.542**	.343
EOTA4	.407*	.481*	.485*	1.000	.376	.502**
EOTA5	.575**	.270	.542**	.376	1.000	.301
EOTA6	.102	.225	.343	.502**	.301	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Modeling the way. The leadership practice variables as portrayed by the managers demonstrated a strong correlation at the level of 0.01 except MTW5 as related to MTW1. MTW5 and MTW1, however had a significant correlation at the level of 0.05 in both LPI-Self and LPI-Observer. Table 22 shows the correlations for each of the six constructs in LPI-Self . Apparent high correlation with one another indicates that they all measure the same construct.

TABLE 22

Modeling the Way Correlation Matrix ( LPI-Self).

Pearson Correlation	MTW1	MTW2	MTW3	MTW4	MTW5	MTW6
MTW1	1.000	.586**	.779**	.518**	.496*	.522**
MTW2	.586**	1.000	.665**	.573**	.739**	.716**
MTW3	.779**	.665**	1.000	.601**	.673**	.804**
MTW4	.518**	.573**	.601**	1.000	.570**	.522**
MTW5	.496*	.739**	.673**	.570**	1.000	.600**
MTW6	.522**	.716**	.804**	.522**	.600**	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Encouraging the heart. Most items in the leadership practices showed a significant correlation at 0.01 level in LPI-Self, except ETH1 as related to ETH2 and ETH3, ETH2 to ETH5. Although these items were not significantly correlated, they did not have negative correlation, either. ETH4 and ETH2 were found to be correlated at the level of 0.05 significance. The strong correlation among all the variables indicates the validity of the measure. Table 23 on the following page shows the correlation matrix measured for each item as presented by managers.

Table 23

Encouraging the Heart Correlation Matrix ( LPI-Self).

Pearson Correlation	ETH1	ETH2	ETH3	ETH4	ETH5	ETH6
ETH1	1.000	.290	.374	.538**	.663**	.600**
ETH2	.290	1.000	.522**	.481*	.218	.636**
ETH3	.374	.522**	1.000	.721**	.567**	.682**
ETH4	.538**	.481*	.721**	1.000	.722**	.686**
ETH5	.663**	.218	.567**	.722**	1.000	.521**
ETH6	.600**	.636**	.682**	.686**	.521**	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Second Research Question

The second research question focused on the employee perception of leadership behaviors as displayed by their managers. LPI-Observer comprising 30 leadership behavior statements as part of five leadership practices was tested for Pearson correlation. Pearson correlation indicated a high construct validity for each leadership practice as observed by the employees. Pearson product ranged from .534 to .824. Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level and at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Detailed correlation matrices are presented in the table 24, 25, 26, 27, and 28 on the following pages.



TABLE 24

Challenging the Process Correlation Matrix (LPI-Observer)

Pearson Correlation	CTP1	CTP2	CTP3	CTP4	CTP5	CTP6
CTP1	1.000	.743**	.750**	.674**	.575**	.671**
CTP2	.743**	1.000	.805**	.684**	.555**	.646**
CTP3	.750**	.805**	1.000	.670**	.632**	.656**
CTP4	.674**	.684**	.670**	1.000	.534**	.712**
CTP5	.575**	.555**	.632**	.534**	1.000	.683**
CTP6	.671**	.646**	.656**	.712**	.683**	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 25

Inspiring a Shared Vision Correlation Matrix (LPI-Observer).

Pearson Correlation	IASV1	IASV2	IASV3	IASV4	IASV5	IASV6
IASV1	1.000	.780**	.755**	.700**	.686**	.729**
IASV2	.780**	1.000	.821**	.724**	.708**	.748**
IASV3	.755**	.821**	1.000	.751**	.719**	.728**
IASV4	.700**	.724**	.751**	1.000	.650**	.747**
IASV5	.686**	.708**	.719**	.650**	1.000	.772**
IASV6	.729**	.748**	.728**	.747**	.772**	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 26

Enabling Others to Act Correlation Matrix (LPI-Observer).

Pearson Correlation	EOTA1	EOTA2	EOTA3	EOTA4	EOTA5	EOTA6
EOTA1	1.000	.734**	.824**	.651**	.597**	.657**
EOTA2	.734**	1.000	.704**	.707**	.663**	.687**
EOTA3	.824**	.704**	1.000	.707**	.613**	.646**
EOTA4	.651**	.707**	.707**	1.000	.744**	.719**
EOTA5	.597**	.663**	.613**	.744**	1.000	.678**
EOTA6	.657**	.687**	.646**	.719**	.678**	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 27

Modeling the Way Correlation Matrix ( LPI-Observer).

Pearson Correlation	MTW1	MTW2	MTW3	MTW4	MTW5	MTW6
MTW1	1.000	.645**	.720**	.675**	.665*	.743**
MTW2	.645**	1.000	.700**	.691**	.627**	.589**
MTW3	.720**	.700**	1.000	.695**	.667**	.667**
MTW4	.675**	.691**	.695**	1.000	.720**	.697**
MTW5	.665*	.627**	.667**	.720**	1.000	.740**
MTW6	.743**	.589**	.667**	.697**	.740**	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 28

Encouraging the Heart Correlation Matrix ( LPI-Observer).

Pearson Correlation	ETH1	ETH2	ETH3	ETH4	ETH5	ETH6
ETH1	1.000	.724**	.722**	.709**	.708**	.735**
ETH2	.724**	1.000	.711**	.694**	.653**	.720**
ETH3	.722**	.711**	1.000	.759**	.819**	.731**
ETH4	.709**	.694**	.759**	1.000	.712**	.755**
ETH5	.708**	.653**	.819**	.712**	1.000	.738**
ETH6	.735**	.720**	.731**	.755**	.738**	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Third Research Question

As with Leadership Practices Inventory, a correlation matrix was developed to ascertain the validity of JIG scale as it related to this study. Although Pearson correlation matrix presented in table 29 indicates a high correlation among 18 items of the scale at 0.01 level of significance, few of them had no or negative correlation between them. JIG3 and JIG8 indicated a significant correlation at 0.05 level of significance. There was no correlation between JIG6 and JIG3, and JIG11; or between JIG13 and JIG11. Also, there was no correlation between JIG10 and JIG2, JIG9, JIG14 , and JIG16. JIG6, JIG10 and JIG15 were negatively correlated ( see table 29).

Table 29

Job-In-General (JIG) Correlation Matrix

Pearson Correlation	JIG1	JIG2	JIG3	JIG4	JIG5	JIG6	JIG7	JIG8	JIG9
JIG1	1.000	.314**	.394**	.418**	.559**	.187**	.465**	.246**	.363**
JIG2	.314**	1.000	.150**	.540**	.412**	.439**	.236**	.376**	.372**
JIG3	.394**	.150**	1.000	.212**	.244**	.082	.429**	.145*	.218**
JIG4	.418**	.540**	.212**	1.000	.514**	.378**	.368**	.491**	.369**
JIG5	.559**	.412**	.244**	.514**	1.000	.335**	.360**	.350**	.517**
JIG6	.187**	.439**	.082	.378**	.335**	1.000	.285**	.222**	.220**
JIG7	.465**	.236**	.429**	.368**	.360**	.285**	1.000	.282**	.243**
JIG8	.246**	.376**	.145*	.491**	.350**	.222**	.282**	1.000	.312**
JIG9	.363**	.372**	.218**	.369**	.517**	.220**	.243**	.312**	1.000
JIG10	.319**	.106	.459**	.169**	.198**	-.102	.285**	.156**	.095
JIG11	.530**	.191**	.426**	.420**	.348**	.074	.462**	.363**	.285**
JIG12	.403**	.486**	.233**	.530**	.461**	.437**	.367**	.510**	.286**
JIG13	.320**	.233**	.406**	.296**	.300**	.171**	.428**	.246**	.270**
JIG14	.341**	.372**	.300**	.458**	.405**	.393**	.358**	.426**	.313**
JIG15	.427**	.202**	.556**	.205**	.301**	-.036	.374**	.185**	.169**
JIG16	.426**	.541**	.215**	.481**	.345**	.484**	.348**	.339**	.318**
JIG17	.592**	.327**	.404**	.485**	.501**	.156**	.537**	.386**	.312**
JIG18	.468**	.514**	.246**	.606**	.586**	.438**	.349**	.497**	.446**

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Continued

<u>Job-In-General (JIG) Correlation Matrix (Continued)</u>									
Pearson Correlation	JIG10	JIG11	JIG12	JIG13	JIG14	JIG15	JIG16	JIG17	JIG18
JIG1	.319**	.530**	.403**	.320**	.341**	.427**	.426**	.592**	.468**
JIG2	.106	.191**	.486**	.233**	.372**	.202**	.541**	.327**	.514**
JIG3	.459**	.426**	.233**	.406**	.300**	.556**	.215**	.404**	.246**
JIG4	.169**	.420**	.530**	.296**	.458**	.205**	.481**	.485**	.606**
JIG5	.198**	.348**	.461**	.300**	.405**	.301**	.345**	.501**	.586**
JIG6	-.102	.074	.437**	.171**	.393**	-.036	.484**	.156**	.438**
JIG7	.285**	.462**	.367**	.428**	.358**	.374**	.348**	.537**	.349**
JIG8	.156**	.363**	.510**	.246**	.426**	.185**	.339**	.386**	.497**
JIG9	.095	.285**	.286**	.270**	.313**	.169**	.318**	.312**	.446**
JIG10	1.000	.453**	.219**	.256**	.089	.656**	.095	.372**	.231**
JIG11	.453**	1.000	.361**	.360**	.265**	.498**	.286**	.553**	.374**
JIG12	.219**	.361**	1.000	.353**	.570**	.263**	.494**	.456**	.633**
JIG13	.256**	.360**	.353**	1.000	.425**	.449**	.102	.485**	.286**
JIG14	.089	.265**	.570**	.425**	1.000	.197**	.399**	.423**	.516**
JIG15	.656**	.498**	.263**	.449**	.197**	1.000	.156**	.544**	.264**
JIG16	.095	.286**	.494**	.102	.399**	.156**	1.000	.359**	.503**
JIG17	.372**	.553**	.456**	.485**	.423**	.544**	.359**	1.000	.442**
JIG18	.231**	.374**	.633**	.286**	.516**	.264**	.503**	.442**	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

#### **Fourth Research Question**

This question used the information explored in second and third research questions in relation to the demographic factors. A detailed analysis is discussed in the analysis of variance section. Using analysis of variance, the impact of each demographic variable was studied to see if demographic differences were related to predictors (leadership practices) or outcome (job-satisfaction)

#### **Fifth Research Question**

To further analyze the impact of leadership practices as evidenced by managers and their employees, a Pearson correlation was measured using the total score of each leadership practice as perceived by managers and observers, and the total job satisfaction score of employees. Table 30 presents the correlation matrix for LPI-self relative to JIG score of the employees. Although leadership practices were found to be significantly correlated with each other at the level of 0.01 significance, none of them showed any significant correlation with the job satisfaction score. However, none of the LPI-Self correlation with JIG were negative. Table 31 presents the results of the analysis LPI-Observer and JIG. All five leadership practices and job satisfaction were found to be significantly correlated at 0.01 level of significance. Correlation between the five leadership practices and the job satisfaction range from .332 to .378 at 0.01 level of significance. Since all the variables displayed in this matrix are significantly correlated, it can be concluded that both scales converge and measure what they were supposed to measure. The difference in LPI-Self scores and LPI-Observers were analyzed relative to JIG score to see if they were statistically correlated. The correlation were found to be statistically insignificant among them.

Table 30

LPI-Self and JIG Correlation Matrix.

Pearson Correlation	JG	CTP	IASV	EOTA	MTW	ETH
JG	1.000	.234	.320	.285	.353	.344
CTP	.234	1.000	.771**	.560**	.660**	.591**
IASV	.320	.771**	1.000	.583**	.575**	.626**
EOTA	.285	.560**	.583**	1.000	.872**	.862**
MTW	.353	.660**	.575**	.872**	1.000	.860**
ETH	.344	.591**	.626**	.862**	.860**	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 31

LPI-Observer and JIG Correlation Matrix.

Pearson Correlation	JG	CTP	IASV	EOTA	MTW	ETH
JG	1.000	.378**	.342**	.360**	.332**	.348**
CTP	.378**	1.000	.882**	.869**	.890**	.873**
IASV	.342**	.882**	1.000	.827**	.860**	.875**
EOTA	.360**	.869**	.827**	1.000	.904**	.889**
MTW	.332**	.890**	.860**	.904**	1.000	.876**
ETH	.348**	.873**	.875**	.889**	.876**	1.000

Note. \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

### Reliability

To determine that instruments used measured leadership practices and job satisfaction in a useful way, Cronbach Alpha (a model of internal consistency based on the average inter-item correlation) was calculated as a measure of reliability. Using reliability analysis, the extent to which the items in the questionnaire are related to each other was determined. Overall internal consistency between the 18 items on the JIG scale were found to be .90. Overall internal consistency of the five leadership practices, as shown in Table 32, were calculated. Internal reliabilities on LPI range between .92 to .94. Reliabilities for the LPI-Self range between .82 to .90, and reliabilities for LPI-Observers range from .92 to .94. Reliabilities for the LPI-Self were found somewhat lower than reliabilities for LPI-Observers.

Table 32

#### Reliability Index for the Leadership Practices Inventory

Leadership Practice	<u>Cronbach Alphas</u>	
	<u>LPI-Self</u> N=26	<u>LPI-Observer</u> N=294
Challenging the Process	.86	.92
Inspiring a Shared Vision	.89	.94
Enabling Others to Act	.82	.93
Modeling the Way	.90	.93
Encouraging the Heart	.87	.94



### Analysis of Variance

Analyses of variance were performed separately for managers and employees to determine if any demographic differences were related to leadership practices and job satisfaction. Demographic variables were analyzed against the summative score of each leadership practice as well as the total score of job satisfaction for each individual respondent.

Three assumptions of analysis of variance were addressed before the data were analyzed using this statistical measure. The assumption of independence was met as all the variables obtained were from independent samples. Second assumption of normality was addressed in view of the skewed data as mentioned in the previous sections of this chapter. Since the data were not extremely non-normal despite skewed values, normality was deemed as not a major concern. Third assumption- equality of variance was checked by computing the Levene test for equality of variance. It tests for violations of the equal variance assumption. Levene homogeneity-of-variance test is less dependent on the assumption of normality than most tests. For each case, it computes the absolute difference between the value of that case and its cell mean and performs a one-way analysis of variance on those differences (SPSS, 1997).

#### First Research Question

Analysis of variance for the first research question was performed to see if any of the leadership practices were related to certain demographic factors. It involved using summative score for five leadership practices. Levene homogeneity-of-variance test indicated the presence of no significant variation among means between-groups and within-groups. The leadership practices inventory sub-scales were not statistically

significant along any of the demographic factors tested in this study. Multiple comparisons (Post-hoc test) could not be performed as at least one group had fewer than two cases.

### Second Research Question

The second research question was analyzed for variance using methods similar to the ones applied in first research question. Analysis of variance was performed to see if any of the leadership practices was related to certain demographic factors. It involved using summative score for five leadership practices as observed by the employees. Levene homogeneity-of-variance test indicated the presence of no significant variation among means between-groups and within-groups. Multiple comparisons (Post-hoc test) could not be performed for gender as at least one group had fewer than two cases. Post-hoc test for rest of the demographic variables showed that three leadership practices (Challenging the Process, Enabling Others to Act, & Modeling the Way) were not statistically significant. Inspiring a Shared Vision and Encouraging the Heart, however indicated statistically significant differences at 0.05 level as they related to department of engineering, and food & beverages. These finding suggest that although most demographic factors did not differ on the leadership practices of their managers, the departments of food and beverages, and engineering differed in their response to leadership practices- Inspiring a Shared Vision and Encouraging the Heart.

### Third Research Question

Analysis of variance for the third research question was performed using summative score for JIG scale for each respondent against the demographic variables used in the study. Levene's homogeneity-of-variance test for violations of the equal

variance assumption indicated the presence of no significant variation among means between-groups and within-groups. Consequently, equal variations were assumed to use Bonferroni analysis of variance for multiple comparisons. It uses t tests to perform pair-wise comparisons and adjust the observed significance level for the fact that multiple comparisons are being made. Most demographic variables indicated the presence of no statistically significant variance, except assistant managers differed with the entry level employees and supervisors. In departments, food & beverages significantly differed with human resources, sales and marketing, front office, and banquet. Also, front office differed with sales marketing. Departmental difference in terms of job-satisfaction was significant at the level of 0.05. Employees with 2 years of college education differed with employees who had some high school education in term of their response to job satisfaction. Their differences were significant at the level of 0.05.

#### Fourth Research Question

This research question was answered using the analysis of variance computed in research question # 1, #2, #3. The related information was compared with the mean and standard deviations calculated in the previous section of this chapter. Statistically significant demographics were analyzed for further analyses.

#### Fifth Research Question

Analysis of variance for this question was not calculated regarding the inconsistency between leadership practice as portrayed by the managers and those leadership practices as perceived by their employees relative to their job satisfaction. T-test statistics were calculated in the succeeding sections of this chapter, as part of hypothesis I, to analyze this question.

### Test of Hypotheses

As mentioned in chapter one, exploratory studies like this do not necessarily require a hypothesis. However, to further analyze the research questions and to meet the objectives of the study hypotheses regarding the mean differences between the LPI-Self score and LPI-Observers, and the predictive ability of leadership practices in terms of employee job-satisfaction were tested.

#### Hypothesis I

First hypothesis tested the data analyzed in the first, second and fifth research questions in the previous sections. It focused on the five leadership practices as displayed by the managers and the perception of those leadership practices by their employees. For statistical purposes and to maintain the integrity of the study managers' responses were linked to their employees so as to distinguish differences, if any. Null hypothesis was devised stating that there was no significant differences between managers' leadership practices and the perception of those leadership practices by their employees. T-tests were calculated at the significance level of 0.05 to see if any of the observed differences were statistically significant. Two of the leadership practices- enabling others to act, and modeling the way were found to have statistically significant difference at the level of 0.05, leading to the rejection of null hypothesis.

Mean scores for the five behaviors as displayed in table 33 indicate that managers rated themselves higher in all the leadership practices than their employees rated them. However, only two of the leadership practices (Enabling Others to Act, and Modeling the Way) indicated statistically significant differences.

Table 33

**Leadership Practices as Measured by Managers and Employees**

Leadership Practice	Manager (n=26) Mean	Employee (n=294) Mean	t value
Challenging the Process	8.41	8.17	1.09
Inspiring a Shared Vision	8.17	8.05	.47
Enabling Others to Act	8.94	8.54	2.23*
Modeling the Way	8.80	8.44	2.09*
Encouraging the Heart	8.64	8.39	1.51

Note. \* Significant at the point .05 level (two tailed)

**Hypothesis II**

Second hypothesis involved using multiple regression analysis to assess predictive capability of the leadership practice as independent variables. Employee job-satisfaction score was used as dependent variable. Regression analysis is an estimation of the linear relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables or covariates. To assess the predictive ability of all the variables simultaneous entry - a procedure for variable selection in which all variables in a block are entered in a single step was used. The resulting F value (10.21) indicated statistical significance at  $p < 0.0001$  level. In terms of explained variation, five leadership practices explain a little over 15 percent of variation in the likelihood of increase in job satisfaction. Although  $R^2$  statistic at .15 may seem to explain not a very high level of variation, it is good to remember that hypothesis is one of no relationship between the dependent variable (job-satisfaction), and the five independent variables (leadership practices as observed by the

employees). Table 34 below presents the results obtained in regression analysis using leadership practices as perceived by employees and job-satisfaction

Table 34

Regression analysis- leadership practices as perceived by employees and job-satisfaction

Leadership Practice	Beta	t	Significance
Challenging the process	.31	2.10	.03
Inspiring a shared vision	.03	.21	.84
Enabling others to act	.20	1.37	.17
Modeling the way	-.17	-1.10	.27
Encouraging the heart	.02	1.50	.88

Challenging the process emerged as a significant predictor of job satisfaction among all the other leadership practices with a beta of .31 at a  $R^2$  of .15 followed by the leadership practice of enabling others to act. Modeling the way seemed to have negative impact when other variables were held constant. The findings of this analysis along with the others mentioned in this chapter are discussed in detail in chapter five.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

**Generalized findings of this study are presented in this chapter. Conclusions drawn upon the data analysis in previous chapters are summarized along with the implications of this study. In addition, suggestions for future research directions are presented.**

#### **Summary**

**The primary purpose of this exploratory study was to determine the differences, if any between the leadership practices used by the hotel managers and the perceptions of those leadership practices by employees relative to their job satisfaction. In regard to this purpose, three objectives were addressed:**

- 1. To distinguish the relationship between the manager's own leadership behavior, and the employees' perception of those leadership behaviors.**
- 2. To explore the impact of inconsistency, if any, between the manager's leadership behavior and the employees' perceptions of those behaviors relative to their level of job satisfaction.**
- 3. To identify leadership practices that have positive or functional effects on employee job satisfaction or vice versa.**

In order to accomplish the research purpose and objectives five research questions were studied. These include:

1. What leadership practices are displayed by managers of non-gaming lodging properties in Henderson, and Las Vegas, Nevada?
2. What do the employees at the non-gaming lodging properties in Henderson, and Las Vegas, Nevada perceive about the use of leadership practices by their managers?
3. What is the employee job satisfaction at the non-gaming lodging properties in Henderson, and Las Vegas, Nevada?
4. What is the impact of demographic information on an employee's overall job satisfaction level and their perception of leadership practices displayed by their managers.
5. What relationship exists between the inconsistency, if any determined in manager's leadership behaviors and employees' perceptions of those behaviors, and the employee job satisfaction?

In addition to the above mentioned five research questions, two hypotheses were tested. First hypothesis was tested for differences in mean scores for LPI-Self, and LPI-Observer. T-tests were used to test statistical significance of the differences. The result obtained were used to explore the fifth research question. Second hypothesis was tested using multiple regression to ascertain the predictive ability of leadership practices of managers as observed by their employees for dependent variable (job-satisfaction of employees). Second hypothesis was developed because, the fifth research question did not find any significant relationship between the differences in leadership practices and the job satisfaction of employees. Also, leadership practices as answered by managers did



not have any significant correlation with employee job satisfaction. Finding a significant correlation between leadership practices as observed by the employee and their job satisfaction, an effort was made to ascertain which of those leadership practices were predictive of the employee outcome (job satisfaction).

These research questions and hypotheses were examined by administering three separate instruments to two different samples. LPI-Self was administered to managers to elicit their response on their own leadership behaviors. LPI-Observer, a similar instrument to LPI-Self was administered to employees to enlist their perception of the leadership behavior displayed by their managers. As mentioned in chapter three, both instruments measure the same thing, the only difference is in the way questions are worded to suit the respondents. Third instrument- JIG was also responded by employees indicating their job-satisfaction. A detailed description of these instruments was discussed in chapter three. This research intended to determine the relationship that a leadership practice as employed by the managers, and as perceived by the employees has with the job satisfaction of employees. This research was based on the premise that the greater variation between the manager and employee response, the lower will be the overall job satisfaction of that employee. Theoretical foundations for the use of these instruments to explore research questions was based upon an extensive literature review discussed in chapter two. Statistical analyses involving descriptive statistics, reliability and validity measure, analysis of variances, and regression analysis were conducted. These statistical measures are described in chapter three and their results are listed in chapter four as they relate to each research question.

## Conclusions

All research conclusions in this study are drawn upon the statistical analyses mentioned in chapter four. Five research questions were analyzed to accomplish the purpose and the objectives of the study. Conclusions drawn from these analyses are presented in this section in accordance with the research questions. Due to the lack of any other similar study within the hotel industry settings, comparisons wherever possible are made with the data provided by the authors of the scales.

### First Research Question

The first research question addressed the leadership practices displayed by the managers. Enabling others to act was noticed as the most frequent leadership practice followed by modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. Challenging the process, and inspiring a shared vision was the least favorite leadership practices exercised by the managers. Most managers indicated that they treat their employees with dignity, and let them choose the way to do their work. Modeling the way managers indicated that they set personal examples of what was expected of their employees. In the same leadership practice, they indicated that they follow through with their promises and commitments. Although there was not a significant difference in mean scores from one leadership practice to the other, it could be seen that managers cared less to inspire a shared vision. Also, constructs constituting challenging the process leadership practice indicated relatively low scores. Although the findings in this study did not differ significantly with Kouzes and Posner (1997), a striking contrast was noticed in the challenging the process. Where Kouzes and Posner indicated it as the second most frequently used leadership

practice, hotel managers relegated it to the fourth position among five leadership practices.

### Second Research Question

The second research question involved asked employees as to what they thought about the leadership practice being used by their managers. They were furnished with the same questions as the ones asked to their managers. An analysis of the information provided by them indicated that leadership practice- enabling them to act was most frequently displayed by their managers followed by modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. Challenging the process, and inspiring a shared vision was the least favorite leadership practices exercised by the managers. The most frequent variable constituting the leadership practice of enabling others to act involved treating people with respect, and developing cooperative relationships. Employees graded the frequency of leadership practice consistent with the answers of their manager, however the mean scores of the responses were different. Employee responses also differed with the finding by Kouze and Posner (1997) in term of leadership practice- challenging the process. Unlike Kouze-Posner findings, employees indicated challenging the process as the second-last frequently used leadership practice.

### Third Research Question

Third research question attempted to measure the job-satisfaction of employee using JIG scores discussed in chapter 4. A little over 14 percent of the employees indicated overall dissatisfaction with their job, while approximately 40 percent of employees graded their job-satisfaction well above the arbitrary number 27 (proposed by the authors of the JIG scale). Their score ranged from 48 to 54, indicating higher level of

satisfaction with the job. Almost 86 percent of the employees indicated satisfaction with their job.

#### Fourth Research Question

The fourth research question endeavored to ascertain the influence of demographic variables relative to leadership practice inventory and job in general scale variables. Analysis of variance as mentioned in chapter four was performed to determine the impact of demographic information. Post-hoc test in the analysis of variance indicated that most variables in the leadership practice inventory were not statistically related to demographic factors, except for departmental factors- food & beverages in relation to leadership practices- challenging the process, and encouraging the heart. These finding are somewhat similar to the ones reported by Kouze and Posner (1997). They reported differences across functional disciplines (departments) for inspiring a shared vision, and encouraging the heart. Also, they found gender differences for leadership practice- challenging the process. Their analyses indicated that female respondents graded significantly higher than men for challenging the process. Although the similar trend was visible in this study for the same leadership practice, it was not statistically significant. From the analysis in chapter four it can be concluded that demographic variables had no impact on the study, except for food and beverage, and engineering department. These factors were controlled for multiple regression in testing for the second hypothesis.

#### Fifth Research Question

The data analyzed for research question 1, 2, and 3 were further explored to see if the difference between LPI-self and LPI-Observer score had any relationship with the overall job-satisfaction of the employees. Although analyses in chapter 4 indicated the

presence of differences in mean score for all leadership practices, only enabling others to act, and modeling the way were found to be significant at 0.05 level in the test of first hypothesis. Pearson correlation was measured to ascertain the pattern of association between JIG score and differences in LPI-Self and LPI-Observer. The variance between the managers' rating of their own leadership practices and the employee rating of their manager's leadership practices were negatively correlated for all the leadership practices.

### Hypotheses

To further define the fifth research question two hypotheses were developed. At first only hypothesis one was designed to see some differences between LPI-Self and LPI-Observers mean scores at a significance level. As the analysis in chapter 4 indicated, only two leadership practices- enabling others to act, and modeling the way were found to be significant at 0.05 level in the test of first hypothesis. These finding were used to answer the fifth research question. These differences were found be negatively correlated. LPI-Self, and LPI-Observer as shown in chapter 4 were measured for correlation with JIG score. LPI-Self was found to have no correlation with JIG score, as opposed to LPI-Observer leadership practices. Consequently, hypothesis two was developed to ascertain the predictive ability of the leadership practices of managers as perceived by employees. A multiple regression as discussed in chapter 3 and chapter 4 was used. The finding of the analysis indicated that leadership practices- challenging the process, and enabling others to act have predictive impact on the job satisfaction of employees.

### Implications

This study was designed on the premise that differences in perceptions not only creates misunderstandings but also impacts the level of satisfaction. In that regard, five

research questions were explored, and two hypotheses were tested. The implications of the findings suggested that although differences existed in perceptions and the display of leadership practices, the resulting impact on the job satisfaction of the employees was not significant. This may be attributed to statistically insignificant differences. However, it can be deduced that although the differences are not large, employees and managers differed on each construct of each leadership practice. In most cases managers graded themselves higher than the employees graded them, with almost 1/3 of the employees grading their managers higher than managers graded themselves. Employee who graded their managers higher than managers themselves reported higher overall job satisfaction. Conversely, employees who gave lower scores to their manager indicated relatively lower score of overall job satisfaction. However, due to a reduction in the sample size (as employees were matched against their managers), correlations were not found significant. A linear association can still be seen between a composite leadership score and the job satisfaction with the use of regression analysis ( $R^2 = .23$ , and  $\beta = .48$ ). The connotation here is that given a larger sample size, this leadership model will show statistically significant results.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions drawn on this study indicated that sample size should be larger than used in this study to find statistically significant results. In that regard it is suggested that a larger sample for managers also be obtained for comparative analyses. A greater number of observations are important to reduce variability in responses. It is

recommended that the present research be conducted again with a larger sample size for managers.

This study was limited to one brand of properties within the geographic region of Henderson, and Las Vegas, Nevada. It is proposed that this study should include other brand type properties, as well as other regions if possible. It is researcher's belief that leadership behaviors may vary brand to brand and at different locations.

Although this study was limited to the employee outcome of job satisfaction only, it could include other outcomes such as- employee productivity, and/or organizational commitment.

In conclusion, this study was conducted to explore certain research questions regarding management's leadership practices and the perceptions of those leadership practices by employee relative to their job satisfaction. Based on the research findings certain conclusions were drawn and recommendations were made.

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## **APPENDIX A**

---

# LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY [LPI]

---

## SELF

**Your Name:** \_\_\_\_\_

### INSTRUCTIONS

Write your name in the blank above. On the next two pages are thirty statements describing various leadership behaviors. Please read each statement carefully. Then look at the rating scale and decide *how frequently you engage in the behavior described*.

Here is the rating scale that you will be using:

- |                     |                     |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1 = Almost Never    | 6 = Sometimes       |
| 2 = Rarely          | 7 = Fairly Often    |
| 3 = Seldom          | 8 = Usually         |
| 4 = Once in a While | 9 = Very Frequently |
| 5 = Occasionally    | 10 = Almost Always  |

In selecting each response, please be realistic about the extent to which you *actually* engage in the behavior. Do not answer in terms of how you would like to see yourself or in terms of what you should be doing. Answer in terms of how you *typically* behave- on most days, on most projects, and with most people.

For each statement, decide on a rating and record it in the blank to the left of the statement. When you have responded all thirty questions in Part I, please turn to Part II to complete demographic information. Once again, you can be assured that all your responses will be kept confidential.

William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration  
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Las Vegas, NV 89154

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---

## LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY [LPI]

---

### SELF

To what extent do you typically engage in the following behaviors? Choose the number that best applies to each statement and *record it in the blank to the left of the statement.*

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
Almost Never	Rarely	Seldom	Once in a While	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Usually	Very Frequently	Almost Always

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. I set a personal example of what I expect from others.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. I praise people for a job well done.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. I challenge people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. I actively listen to diverse points of view.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. I spend time and energy on making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards that we have agreed on.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. I treat others with dignity and respect.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Almost Never</b>	<b>Rarely</b>	<b>Seldom</b>	<b>Once in a While</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Fairly Often</b>	<b>Usually</b>	<b>Very Frequently</b>	<b>Almost Always</b>

- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. I ask "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. I support the decisions that people make on their own.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. I experiment and take risks even when there is a chance of failure.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. I am contagiously enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 23. I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 24. I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 25. I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 26. I take the initiative to overcome obstacles even when outcomes are uncertain.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 27. I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 28. I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 29. I make progress toward goals one step at a time.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 30. I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

**Please continue to the next page**

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## Part II

### DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

The purpose of the following questions is to gather some basic information on you. Please indicate your response by placing X or filling the blank. All answers will be kept confidential.

1. Respondent's gender

☐ Male

☐ Female

2. Respondent's age in years

☐ Under 25

☐ Between 26 – 30

☐ Between 31 – 35

☐ Between 36 – 40

☐ Between 41 – 45

☐ Between 46- 50

☐ Between 51 – 55

☐ Over 56

3. Respondent's marital status

☐ Single

☐ Married

☐ Widowed

☐ Divorced

4. Respondent's education

☐ Some High School

☐ High School Graduate

☐ 2- Year College

☐ 4- Year College

☐ Post Graduate

5. How long have you been employed at this hotel?

☐ Less Than 1 Year

☐ 1 – 3 Years

☐ 4 – 6 Years

☐ 7 – 9 Years

☐ 10 or More Years

6. In which department do you work? [ \_\_\_\_\_ ]

7. What is your current position? [ \_\_\_\_\_ ]

**End of Questionnaire!**

*(Please, enclose this questionnaire in the attached envelope, and return it to the administrator)*

**THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND HELP**

## **APPENDIX B**

---

# LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY [LPI]

---

## OBSERVER

Name of Leader: \_\_\_\_\_

### INSTRUCTIONS

You are being asked by the leader whose name appears above to assess his or her leadership behaviors. On the next two pages are thirty statements describing various leadership behaviors. Please read each statement carefully. Then look at the rating scale and decide *how frequently this leader engages in the behavior described*.

Here is the rating scale that you will be using:

- |                     |                     |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1 = Almost Never    | 6 = Sometimes       |
| 2 = Rarely          | 7 = Fairly Often    |
| 3 = Seldom          | 8 = Usually         |
| 4 = Once in a While | 9 = Very Frequently |
| 5 = Occasionally    | 10 = Almost Always  |

In selecting each response, please be realistic about the extent to which the leader *actually* engages in the behavior. Do not answer in terms of how you would like to see this person behave or in terms of how you think he or she should behave. Answer in terms of how the leader *typically* behaves- on most days, on most projects, and with most people.

For each statement, decide on a rating and record it in the blank to the left of the statement. When you have responded to all thirty questions on Part I, turn to the Part II to complete a short questionnaire. In Part III, you are requested to provide some demographic information. Once again, you can be assured that all your responses will be kept confidential.

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---

# LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY [LPI]

---

## OBSERVER

To what extent does your leader typically engage in the following behaviors? Choose the number that best applies to each statement and record it in the blank to the left of the statement.

<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
Almost Never	Rarely	Seldom	Once in a While	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Usually	Very Frequently	Almost Always

**He or She:**

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Seeks out challenging opportunities that test his or her own skills and abilities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Develops cooperative relationships among the people he or she works with.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Sets a personal example of what he or she expects from others.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Praises people for a job well done.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Challenges people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. Actively listens to diverse points of view
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. Spends time and energy on making certain that the people he or she works with adhere to the principles and standards that have been agreed on.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Makes it a point to let people know about his or her confidence in their abilities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. Searches outside the formal boundaries of his or her organization for innovative ways to improve what we do
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. Treats others with dignity and respect.



<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Almost Never</b>	<b>Rarely</b>	<b>Seldom</b>	<b>Once in a While</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Fairly Often</b>	<b>Usually</b>	<b>Very Frequently</b>	<b>Almost Always</b>

- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. Follows through on the promises and commitments that he or she makes.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of projects.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. Asks "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. Shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. Supports the decisions that people make on their own.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. Is clear about his or her philosophy of leadership.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. Experiments and takes risks even when there is a chance of failure.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. Is contagiously enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 23. Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 24. Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 25. Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 26. Takes the initiative to overcome obstacles even when outcomes are uncertain.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 27. Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 28. Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 29. Makes progress toward goals one step at a time.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 30. Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

**(Please continue to the next page)**

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## Part II

### JOB IN GENERAL

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? How well does each of the following words or phrases below describe your job, circle:

- 1      for "Yes" if it describes your job  
2      for "No" if it does not describe it  
3      for "?" if you cannot decide

\*\*\*\*\*

	<u>Y</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>?</u>
1. Pleasant _____	1	2	3
2. Bad _____	1	2	3
3. Ideal _____	1	2	3
4. Waste of time _____	1	2	3
5. Good _____	1	2	3
6. Undesirable _____	1	2	3
7. Worthwhile _____	1	2	3
8. Worse than most _____	1	2	3
9. Acceptable _____	1	2	3
10. Superior _____	1	2	3
11. Better than most _____	1	2	3
12. Disagreeable _____	1	2	3
13. Makes me content _____	1	2	3
14. Inadequate _____	1	2	3
15. Excellent _____	1	2	3
16. Rotten _____	1	2	3
17. Enjoyable _____	1	2	3
18. Poor _____	1	2	3

**Please continue to the next page**

The Job in General Scale © Bowling Green State University 1982, 1985, 1997.

### Part III

## DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

The purpose of the following questions is to gather some basic information on you. Please indicate your response by placing X or filling the blank. All answers will be kept confidential.

1. Respondent's gender

☐ Male

☐ Female

2. Respondent's age in years

☐ Under 25

☐ Between 26 – 30

☐ Between 31 – 35

☐ Between 36 – 40

☐ Between 41 – 45

☐ Between 46– 50

☐ Between 51 – 55

☐ Over 56

3. Respondent's marital status

☐ Single

☐ Married

☐ Widowed

☐ Divorced

4. Respondent's education

☐ Some High School

☐ High School Graduate

☐ 2- Year College

☐ 4- Year College

☐ Post Graduate

5. How long have you been employed at this hotel?

☐ Less Than 1 Year

☐ 1 – 3 Years

☐ 4 – 6 Years

☐ 7 – 9 Years

☐ 10 or More Years

6. In which department do you work? [ \_\_\_\_\_ ]

7. What is your current position? [ \_\_\_\_\_ ]

**End of Questionnaire!**

*(Please, enclose this questionnaire in the attached envelope, and return it to the administrator)*

**THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME AND HELP**

## **APPENDIX C**



June x, 1998

Dear Manager:

I am a graduate student at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. I am currently working on a research paper involving leadership in the hotel industry. As you know, leadership in any organization is critical to its success; a manager's leadership practices may greatly influence the job satisfaction of his/her subordinates. The purpose of this study is to identify the fundamental leadership practices being used by the hotel managers and their impact on the overall job satisfaction of the employees. The purpose of this study will be achieved by both the review of literature and empirical survey. Your assistance is requested with this research conducted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of master in hotel management.

As a respondent of this survey, your responses on this issue are very valuable to this study. It is anticipated that it should take approximately 10 minutes to complete enclosed survey instrument. The attached questionnaire is directed towards gathering information about you, and the leadership practices you exercise. All your responses will be kept confidential and used for research purposes only. However, it is important that you and your subordinates are linked together to establish a relationship in the study. Therefore, you are requested to use your name, and your subordinates will write only your name. So it is requested that the same should be conveyed and ensured before the administration of the survey instrument. Once again, information regarding you and your subordinates will not be disclosed in anyway. To ensure that no one else see your responses, please enclose this questionnaire in the attached envelope after completion. Your participation in this study is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time. However, in order that the results will be truly representative, it is important that each instrument be completed and returned.

The result of this study will provide hotel industry with important human resources insights to develop the action plans for continuing leadership development. You may receive a summary of results by providing your name and address on the back of the return envelope.

I appreciate for your time and help. If you have any question(s) regarding this study, please feel free to call me at (702)-655-4163 or the research advisor Dr. Gerald Goll at (702)-895-3124. You may also contact the UNLV Office of Sponsored programs at (702)- 895-1357 regarding your rights as a research subject.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Jasvir Singh  
Master's Candidate

William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration  
Department of Hotel Management  
Box 456021 • 4505 Maryland Parkway • Las Vegas, Nevada 89154-6021  
(702) 895-3230 • FAX (702) 895-4872

## **APPENDIX D**



June x, 1998

Dear Employee:

I am a graduate student at the University of Nevada Las Vegas. I am currently working on a research paper involving leadership in hotel industry. As you know, leadership in any organization is critical to its success; a manager's leadership practices may greatly influence the job satisfaction of his/her subordinates. The purpose of this study is to identify the fundamental leadership practices being used by the hotel managers and their impact on the overall job satisfaction of the employees. The purpose of this study will be achieved by both the review of literature and empirical survey. Your assistance is requested with this research conducted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of master in hotel management.

As a respondent of this survey, your responses on this issue are very valuable to this study. It is anticipated that it should take approximately 15 minutes to complete enclosed survey instrument. The attached questionnaire is directed towards gathering information about you, your job satisfaction, and the leadership practices your manager exercises. All your responses will be kept confidential and used for research purposes only. However, it is important that you and your manager are linked together to establish a relationship in the study. Therefore, you are requested to use your manager's name on the questionnaire. Once again, information regarding you and your manager will not be disclosed in anyway. To ensure that no one else see your responses, please enclose this questionnaire in the attached envelope after completion. Your participation in this study is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time. However, in order that the results will be truly representative, it is important that each instrument be completed and returned.

The result of this study will provide hotel industry with important human resources insights to develop the action plans for continuing leadership development. You may receive a summary of results by providing your name and address on the back of the return envelope. Please do not write that information on the survey instrument itself.

I appreciate for your time and help. If you have any question(s) regarding this study, please feel free to call me at (702)-655-4163 or the research advisor Dr. Gerald Goll at (702)-895-3124. You may also contact the UNLV Office of Sponsored programs at (702)- 895-1357 regarding your rights as a research subject.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Jasvir Singh  
Master's Candidate

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Department of Hotel Management  
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## **APPENDIX E**



# UNLV

DATE: May 28, 1998

TO: Jasvir Singh  
M/S 6021 (HTLM)

FROM: *for* Dr. William E. Schulze, Director  
Office of Sponsored Programs (X1357)

RE: Status of Human Subject Protocol Entitled:  
"The Use of Leadership Practices in the Hotel  
Industry and Their Impact on the Job Satisfaction  
of Employees"

OSP #604s0598-041e

---

The protocol for the project referenced above has been reviewed by the Office of Sponsored Programs and it has been determined that it meets the criteria for exemption from full review by the UNLV human subjects Institutional Review Board. This protocol is approved for a period of one year from the date of this notification and work on the project may proceed.

Should the use of human subjects described in this protocol continue beyond a year from the date of this notification, it will be necessary to request an extension.

If you have any questions regarding this information, please contact Marsha Green in the Office of Sponsored Programs at 895-1357.

cc: G. Goll (HTLM-6021)  
OSP File

Office of Sponsored Programs  
4505 Maryland Parkway • Box 451037 • Las Vegas, Nevada 89154-1037  
(702) 895-1357 • FAX (702) 895-4242

## **APPENDIX F**



June x, 1998

Dear Sir or Madam:

Enclosed please find X number of copies of survey questionnaire along with the cover letters and instructions. One copy of the instrument [LPI-Self] is for your attention, and the rest of the copies of survey-instrument [LPI- Observer] are to be filled by your observers. Your observers may include managers, your co-workers, and your subordinates. The validity of the outcome greatly depends upon the number of observers. A greater number of observations reduce inconsistencies in feedback. Therefore, it is requested to enlist as much feedback as possible. The number of copies enclosed in each packet is based on the management and employee roster provided by your property. You may find some extra copies of survey-instrument in your packet than you may have required. However, if you need additional copies of the survey-instrument please contact me at (702)-655-4163, or (702)-470-2204.

The attached cover letter to the questionnaire provides some additional information. Should you need any other information, please feel free to call me anytime.

Thank you for your assistance,

Sincerely

Jasvir Singh  
Master's Candidate

William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration  
Department of Hotel Management  
Box 456021 • 4505 Maryland Parkway • Las Vegas, Nevada 89154-6021  
(702) 895-3230 • FAX (702) 895-4872

## **APPENDIX G**

**KOUZES POSNER INTERNATIONAL**

**15419 Banyan Lane**

**Monte Sereno, California 95030**

**Phone/FAX: (408) 354-9170**

May 21, 1998

Mr. Jasvir Singh  
3300 N. Tenny Way #1011  
Las Vegas, Nevada 89129


Dear Jasvir:

Thank you for your facsimile (dated 21 May 1998) requesting permission to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in your thesis. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your letter, at no charge, with the following understandings:

- (1) That the LPI is used only for research purposes and is not sold or used in conjunction with any compensated management development activities;
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- (3) That one (1) copy of your thesis, and one (1) copy of all papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data be sent promptly to our attention.

If the terms outlined above are acceptable, would you please so indicate by signing one (1) copy of this letter and returning it to us. Would you also please provide a telephone number and the anticipated completion of your research. Best wishes for every success with your research project. If we can be of any further assistance, please let us know.

Cordially,

  
Barry Z. Posner, Ph.D.  
Managing Partner

I understand and agree to abide by these conditions:

(Signed) \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Telephone Number:

Expected Date of Completion:

## **APPENDIX H**



**Bowling Green State University**

Department of Psychology  
Bowling Green, Ohio 43403-0228  
(419) 372-2301

Fax: (419) 372-6013

Web Page: <http://www.bgsu.edu/departments/psych/>

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89129

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## **VITA**

**Graduate College  
University of Nevada, Las Vegas**

**Jasvir Singh**

**Local Address:**

**3300 N. Tenaya Way #1011  
Las Vegas, NV 89129**

**Degree:**

**Bachelor of Arts, English Honors, 1985  
Guru Nanak Dev University, Punjab, India**

**Master of Arts, English Literature, 1987  
Guru Nanak Dev University, Punjab, India**

**Thesis Title:**

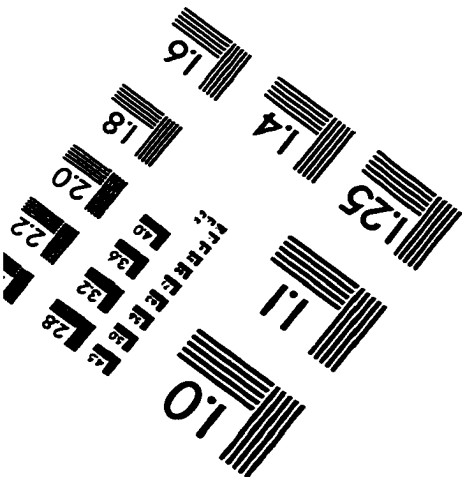
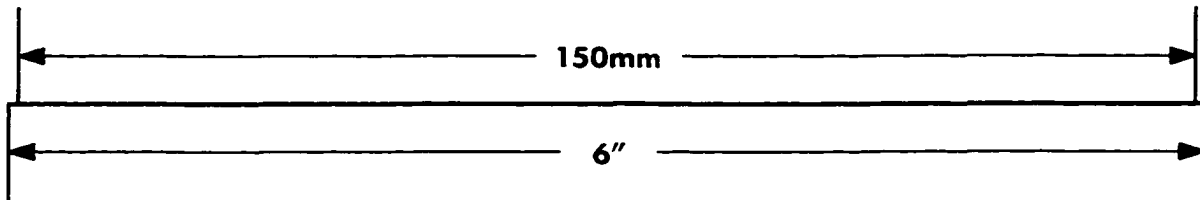
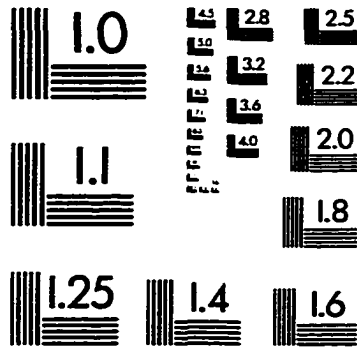
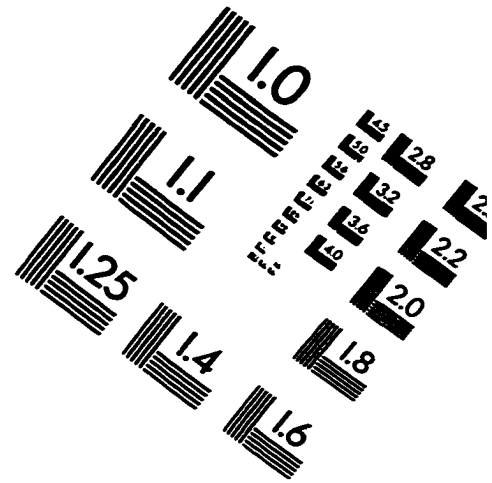
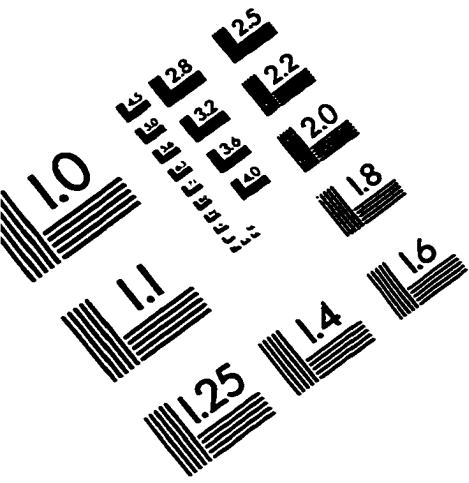
**Use of Leadership Practices by the Managers and Their Impact on the Job  
Satisfaction of employees in the Hotel Industry**

**Thesis Examination Committee:**

**Chairperson, Dr. Gerald Goll, D.B.A.  
Committee Member, Dr. Robert H. Bosselman, Ph.D.  
Committee Member, Dr. Gail Sammons, Ph.D  
Graduate Faculty Representative, Dr. Robert Moore, Ph.D**



# IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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