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**Empirical analysis of the situational variables and their impact on a manager's leadership in influencing employee organizational citizenship behaviors in Korean hotels**

Jung Hoon Lee  
*University of Nevada, Las Vegas*

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# **UMI**

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EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SITUATIONAL VARIABLES AND THEIR  
IMPACT ON A MANAGER'S LEADERSHIP IN INFLUENCING  
EMPLOYEE ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP  
BEHAVIORS IN KOREAN HOTELS

by

Jung Hoon Lee

Bachelor of Arts  
Hankook University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, Korea  
1992

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of

**Master of Science**

**in**

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**Department of Hotel Management**  
**University of Nevada, Las Vegas**  
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**Thesis Approval**  
The Graduate College  
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

October 14, 1997

The Thesis prepared by

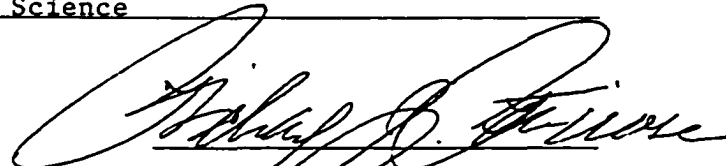
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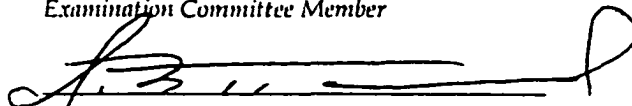
Master of Science

  
Philip B. Ferone  
Examination Committee Chair

  
Dean of the Graduate College

  
Examination Committee Member

  
Examination Committee Member

  
Graduate College Faculty Representative

## ABSTRACT

### **Empirical Analysis of the Situational Variables and Their Impact on a Manager's Leadership in Influencing Employee Organizational Citizenship Behaviors in Korean Hotels**

by

Jung Hoon Lee

Dr. Michael J. Petrillose, Examination Committee Chair  
Professor of Hotel Management  
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

The purpose of this study is to identify situational variables that may influence the effect of a manager's leadership on subordinate organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in the Korean hotel industry.

Data were collected from 107 managers and their 487 subordinates across a wide variety of different departments in the deluxe business hotels in Korea.

Thirteen hypotheses were tested using a partial correlation coefficient test in multiple regression to examine the correlation between thirteen situational variables and five employee OCB dimensions. The test generally showed that selected characteristics of a manager, task, and organization either substitute or enhance a manager's leadership in influencing employee OCB by having either positive or negative correlation with selected OCB dimensions.

The findings of this study suggested that employee OCB can be maximized when the positive situational variables operate in concert with a manager's leadership. The



findings also suggested that a manager's leadership should be enhanced when a negative situational variable influences employee OCB.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

In recent years, numerous demographers have been commenting on the increasing sophistication of today's consumer. Education, discretionary income, and leisure time have all risen (Kirwin, 1991). It is also widely acknowledged that contemporary consumers are more demanding, better informed, more assertive and have a substantially lower tolerance for poor quality products and services (Powers, 1992). This trend has been enhanced by increased competition in all areas of the economy. In addition to pursuing price value, customers have more selection choices.

Given these increasingly innovative and aggressive business trends, prudent business operators have realized the importance of providing quality service to ensure all their existing and new customers become loyal and satisfied repeat customers. As a result, a variety of creative strategies based on service excellence have been developed in order to create a competitive advantage for a company.

Among the various creative strategies are employee organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and managerial leadership (Bass, 1985; Katz and Kahn, 1966). Organizational citizenship behavior is constructive behavior that is spontaneously exhibited by organizational members and in aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization. It is not directly related to individual

productivity or specified in the enforceable or formal requirements of the individual's role (Organ, 1988). The employee personally chooses to go beyond formal job descriptions and performs extra-role behaviors on his or her own discretion and without expectation of explicit organizational reward. OCB has five categories: (a) altruism, or helping behaviors, which are voluntary actions that help another person with a work-related problem; (b) conscientiousness, discretionary behaviors that go well beyond the minimum role requirement; (c) sportsmanship, any behaviors that demonstrate tolerance in less than ideal situations without complaints; (d) courtesy, or efforts to prevent work-related problems with others from occurring; and (e) civic virtue, which are behaviors that indicate that an employee responsibly participates in and is concerned about the life of the organization (Graham, 1986; Organ, 1988).

Examples of OCB are; helping a new front desk clerk who has difficulties in handling a computerized reservation system (altruism), staying late to finish a project even though there is no overtime or direct payment (conscientiousness), refraining from complaining about the disruption elicited by renovation of a facility (sportsmanship), contacting shipping and delivery personnel before making a non-routine commitment to a customer (courtesy), and taking the initiative to recommend how company operations or procedures can be improved (civic virtue).

All these organizational citizenship behaviors have important relationships with service quality (George and Bettenhausen, 1990; Groonroos, 1985). Service quality is enhanced to the extent that employees view each other as customers and thus willingly assist each other to better serve the external customer (Albrecht and Zemke, 1985). For example, the new front desk clerk, as described above, will be able to efficiently serve

customers in a long line if a more experienced co-worker assists him or her with handling the computerized reservation system. Altruism behavior is directed towards the external customers and can take the form of helping a customer with a problem, even though doing so is not within one's specified job duties. A bellman within a hotel may help a visitor to find his or her way. These actions, while seemingly trivial, create an overall sense of goodwill and thus enhance the customer's experience of service quality. Additionally, through suggestions from front-line employees, who interact with customers on an ongoing basis, organizations can continually improve their level of customer service. Besides, employees who exhibit high levels of courtesy and sportsmanship are respectable and considerate to each other, have a positive attitude, and avoid unnecessary complaining. Therefore, the positive climate created among employees with high levels of courtesy and sportsmanship will directly or indirectly affect customers' perception of service quality through their cooperative and courteous interaction with customers (Schneider and Bowen, 1992). In practice, the employees in the companies noted for the quality of their service excellence have engaged in not only exceptional levels of in-role behaviors but also extra-role activities that are not formally required. Consequently, those companies enhance high levels of customer satisfaction and internal effectiveness and efficiencies through those employees' organizational citizenship behaviors (Morrison, 1996; and Zemke and Schaaf, 1989).

These organizational citizenship behaviors, however, cannot be either fully specified in advance by an organization (Bowen, 1990; Katz and Kahn, 1966) or easily ensured through traditional techniques such as training and job descriptions (Calzon, 1987; Goll, 1995; Morrison, 1996; and Zemke and Schaaf, 1989), or contractual

economic exchange with organizational immediate compensation (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994). Therefore, a manager's leadership has significant implications in fostering employee organizational citizenship behavior because leadership has been recognized through the ages as a primary means of influencing the behaviors of others (Bass, 1981 and 1985; Burns, 1978; Conger, 1989; Deluga, 1995; Fahr, Podsakoff, and Organ, 1990; Fleishman, 1973; Graham, 1988; Hinkin and Tracey, 1994; Howell, Bowen, Dorfman, Kerr, and Podsakoff, 1990; Schnake, Dumler, and Cochran, 1993; Seltzer and Bass, 1990; Smith, Organ and Near, 1983; and Stogdill, 1974).

Leadership is defined as the process of influencing people to change their attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs towards organizational goals (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993; Koontz, O'Donnell, and Wehrich, 1980; Stogdill, 1974; Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik, 1959; and Wexley and Yukl, 1984). Bass (1985) and Conger (1989) suggested that charismatic leaders have the ability to influence subordinates through their considerable self-confidence, strong convictions, and infectious enthusiasm. Admired subordinates then internalize the leader's attitudes and behaviors as guiding principles for their own behavior. Conger (1989), Deluga (1995), Fahr et al.(1990), Graham (1988), Schnake et al. (1993), and Smith et al. (1983) suggested that transformational leaders direct subordinates toward mutually desired results, and subordinates then reciprocate by providing increased status, esteem, and support for the leaders. As a result of this leadership style and its emulation by their subordinates, leadership can play a mediating role to change employee behaviors and produce higher levels of employee organizational citizenship behaviors.

The importance of delivering service excellence by leadership and employee OCB

is more important for the hotel industry than other manufacturing and non-service oriented industries. This is influenced by the hotel industry's two unique characteristics: service-oriented and labor-intensive (Brymer, 1995, Mullins, 1993; Powers, 1992). In the absence of machinery and other forms of technology that reduce the need for human labor, employee behavior plays a vital role for service excellence in the hotel industry. The hotel industry's product is the result of the interaction between its employees and customers. Therefore, employees' behaviors and attitudes can influence customers' perceptions of the service rendered and ultimately the overall perception of the quality of the hotel's product (Berry, 1980; Zeithaml and Bitner, 1996). The intangibility of service can be expressed in terms of the tangible behavior and attitude of employees. In addition, the successful performance of an employee's service work depends frequently upon the cooperation of other persons, including co-workers and supervisors (Eller, 1990). These interdependent relationships of the hotel industry place immense importance on employee OCB and manager's leadership.

#### Statement of the Problem

Many researchers like Bass (1985), Kerr and Jermier (1978), Stogdill (1974), and Yukl (1985) have hypothesized that some forms of hierarchical leadership are important in influencing subordinate behaviors. These hypotheses vary somewhat regarding the appropriateness of different leader behaviors in a given situation; however, all of the researchers have implied that the effective leader provides some type of guidance or positive feelings for subordinates as they perform their job task. Using House and Mitchell's path-goal theory (1974), one can suggest that a leader's behavior will motivate subordinates when the behavior clarifies a path to goal attainment, clarifies

contingent rewards, and increases subordinates' expected and actual attainment of goals and rewards. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) indicated that effective leaders change the basic values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors of subordinates by identifying and articulating a vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals, and having high performance expectations.

Many situational leadership researchers (i.e., Fiedler, 1967; Hersey and Blanchard, 1993; House and Mitchell, 1974; Kerr and Jermier, 1978; Vroom and Yetton, 1973) have argued, however, that the relationship between leader behaviors and subordinate criterion variables are influenced by a variety of situational variables. In other words, there may exist certain situational variables that may render hierarchical leadership both unnecessary and impossible in terms of the potential impact of leadership on employee behaviors. According to Kerr and Slocum (1981), an individual's extensive prior experience or expertise can reduce his or her need for the leader's task-related information. In addition, Barrow (1976), House (1971), and Lord (1976) suggested that the design of highly structured tasks for subordinates would tend to reduce the leader's task direction, while less leadership task direction on structure work tasks should have a positive motivational effect on subordinates. Miles and Petty (1977) implied that the degree of organizational formalization such as clear written job goals, objectives and responsibilities, and written performance appraisals and work schedules may have the potential to provide the necessary task guidance and direction for subordinates' behavior that is often provided by a hierarchical leader. In each of these cases, the characteristics of the individual, the task, and the organization may substitute for the hierarchical leader behaviors. On the other hand, in addition to the role as substitutes, those situational

variables may enhance the hierarchical leader behaviors in influencing the criterion variables. According to Howell, Dorfman, and Kerr (1986), a leader's control over organizational rewards can augment the leadership-criterion variable relationship. Substantial leader reward power can enhance the impact of a leader's behavior on subordinates, especially if the subordinates perceive rewards to be contingent upon their behavior or performance.

Thus, the present study was intended to identify those situational variables and investigate their effect on the leadership-employee OCB relationship.

#### Purpose and Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify the situational variables that may influence the effect of Korean hotel managers' leadership on employee organizational citizenship behaviors in the Korean hotel industry.

The following additional objectives were investigated.

- to identify what dimensions of the situational variables have positive or functional effects on employee OCB, substituting for managers' leadership on employee OCB.
- to identify what dimensions of the situational variables have negative or dysfunctional effects on the managers' leadership on employee OCB, enhancing managers' leadership on employee OCB.
- to identify what dimensions of employee OCB are positively or functionally affected by the situational variables.
- to identify what dimensions of employee OCB are negatively or dysfunctionally affected by the situational variables.



## Hypotheses

Based on the proposition in the statement of the problem, the following hypotheses were tested.

### Hypothesis 1

- Ho 1: Managers' ability, experience, training and knowledge will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).
- Ha 1: Managers' ability, experience, training and knowledge will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

### Hypothesis 2

- Ho 2: Managers' professional orientation will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).
- Ha 2: Managers' professional orientation will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

### Hypothesis 3

- Ho 3: Managers' indifference toward organizational reward will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).
- Ha 3: Managers' indifference toward organizational reward will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

#### Hypothesis 4

- Ho 4: Managers' need for independence will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).**
- Ha 4: Managers' need for independence will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).**

#### Hypothesis 5

- Ho 5: Routine tasks will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).**
- Ha 5: Routine tasks will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).**

#### Hypothesis 6

- Ho 6: Task feedback will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).**
- Ha 6: Task feedback will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).**

### Hypothesis 7

- Ho 7:** Intrinsically satisfying task will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).
- Ha 7:** Intrinsically satisfying task will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

### Hypothesis 8

- Ho 8:** Organizational formalization will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).
- Ha 8:** Organizational formalization will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

### Hypothesis 9

- Ho 9:** Organizational inflexibility will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).
- Ha 9:** Organizational inflexibility will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

### Hypothesis 10

**Ho 10: Amount of advisory/staff support will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).**

**Ha 10: Amount of advisory/staff support will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).**

### Hypothesis 11

**Ho 11: Group cohesiveness will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).**

**Ha 11: Group cohesiveness will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).**

### Hypothesis 12

**Ho 12: Organizational rewards outside leader's control will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).**

**Ha 12: Organizational rewards outside leader's control will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).**

### Hypothesis 13

**Ho 13: Spatial distance between supervisors and subordinates will not influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having no correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta = 0$ ).**

**Ha 13: Spatial distance between supervisors and subordinates will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).**

### **Justifications**

As today's hotel industry is striving for perfection in the delivery of its product, service, in an environment of immense competition and dynamic changes, there has been a growing interest in the area of leadership and employee organizational citizenship behavior. Many researchers and practitioners have tended to consider a manager's leadership and employee OCB a new human resource practice by which the hotel industry can cope with today's uncertain and turbulent industry conditions (Hinkin and Tracey, 1994; Powers, 1992; Walker, 1996).

However, in spite of such a tendency, prior studies have focused on finding ideal leader behaviors to enhance subordinate criterion variables, without considering situational variables that may influence the effect of a manager's leader behavior on employee criterion variables. Consequently, much of the research on the relationship between a manager's leadership and subordinate criterion variable has yielded either equivocal or biased results, due to the omission of the situational variables. Regarding this, Kerr and Jermier (1978) suggested;

one potential reason for our lack of ability to predict the effects of hierarchical leader behaviors may be that certain individual, task, and organizational characteristics may serve as substitutes for or neutralizers of hierarchical leader behaviors,

and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) suggested;

any structural model designed to examine the impact of a leader's behavior on subordinate behaviors, role perceptions, and performance, that does *not* include *both* the substitutes for leadership, *and* the leader behaviors, is *misspecified* and will produce biased estimates of the effects of the leader's behavior, since the substitute variables are significantly correlated with the leader behaviors, and with the criterion variable.

Therefore, through identifying those situational variables and investigating their effect on the relationship between a manager's leadership and employee OCB, this study provides empirical evidence on the role of the situational variables as substitutes or enhancers of a manager's leadership, provides a new lens through which to view the leadership literature and a framework to guide future research, and helps practitioners establish new human resource practices appropriate to today's industry environment.

#### Delimitations

1. This study was delimited to three categories of the situational variables -- the characteristics of the individual, the task, and the organization for the measurement of the situational variables.
2. This study was further delimited to four sub-categories of the individual variables -- individual's ability, experience, training, and knowledge, need for independence, professional orientation, and indifference to organizational rewards for the measurement of the individual situation variables.
3. This study was further delimited to three sub-categories of the task variables

- including task feedback, routine, methodologically invariant tasks, and intrinsically satisfying tasks for the measurement of the task situation variables.
4. This study was further delimited to six sub-categories of the organizational variables including organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility, group cohesiveness, amount of advisory/staff support, rewards outside the leader's control, and the degree of spatial distance between supervisors and subordinates for the measurement of the organizational situation variables.
  5. This study was delimited to five categories of employee organizational citizenship behavior including altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue for the measurement of employees' organizational citizenship behaviors.
  6. This study was spatially delimited to the managers and the employees working for the deluxe business hotels located in the area of Seoul, where approximately 69 percent of the deluxe business hotels are located and 85 percent of the deluxe business hotel employees are working.

### Definition of Terms

**Deluxe Business Hotel:** A full service hotel that provides mainly business travelers with rooms and a wide variety of facilities and amenities including food and beverage outlets, meeting and conference rooms, business centers, and recreational activities.

**Leadership:** Leadership is defined as either a process or a property (Jago, 1982). As a process, leadership is the use of noncoercive influence to shape the organization's or group's goals, motivate behavior toward the achievement of those goals, and help define group or organization culture. As a property, leadership is the set of characteristics

attributed to individuals who are perceived to be leaders. For the purpose of this study, definition as a process will be used.

**Situational Variables:** Individual, task, and organizational factors that can either substitute for, neutralize, or enhance the effects of a leader's behavior and ultimately affect criterion variables of the leader behavior. The individual variables include the individual's ability, experience, training, and knowledge, need for independence, professional orientation, and indifference to organizational rewards. The task variables include task feedback, routine, methodologically invariant tasks, and intrinsically satisfying tasks. The organizational variables include organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility, group cohesiveness, amount of advisory/staff support, rewards outside the leader's control, and the degree of spatial distance between supervisors and subordinates (Kerr and Jermier, 1978).

### Organization of the Study

This study was designed to identify the situational factors that may have effects on the hotel managers' leadership and to examine the effect of the situational factors on employee organizational citizenship behaviors. This study has five chapters. Chapter I provides an introduction to this study, including the statement of problem, the purpose and the objectives of the study, and delimitation of the study. Chapter II is the literature review. The literature review mainly covers the previous literature regarding leadership and situational variables, organizational citizenship behaviors, the impact of leadership and the situational variables on employee organizational citizenship behavior. Chapter III discusses research methodology employed in this study including surveys, questionnaire design, and sampling. Chapter IV presents the findings of the empirical



investigation and analyzes the result. Finally, Chapter V provides a summary of findings and conclusions in relation to the study purpose and objectives. With the limitations of the study, suggestions for future research are given in this chapter.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the literature related to the subject of organizational citizenship behavior, leadership, and the situational variables of leadership. The review of related literature is organized in five main parts: the concept of organizational citizenship behavior, organizational citizenship behavior in the hospitality industry, leadership theory, the impact of leader behaviors on organizational citizenship behavior, and the impact of the situational variables on leadership and criterion variables.

The first part begins with a review of definitions and specific concepts of organizational citizenship behavior including five dimensions: altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Next, three precursors of the organizational citizenship behavior construct and two synonymous concepts, prosocial organizational behavior and organizational spontaneity, are discussed to assist with an understanding of the concept.

The second part of this chapter provides a review of the related studies of organizational citizenship behavior in the hospitality industry. The importance of organizational citizenship behavior for service excellence in the hospitality industry is discussed in order to explain why such behavior is required for the hospitality industry.

The third part of this chapter begins with a definition of leadership. The definitions consist of both dictionary and researchers' interpretations. The third part provides previous research studies that have identified effective leadership styles, including trait, behavioral, and traditional theories. These theories are summarized to provide adequate background information on the leadership construct. This part also focuses on the concept of two situational approaches: House and Mitchell's path-goal theory (1974) and Kerr and Jermier's substitutes for leadership theory (1978).

The fourth part of this chapter reviews previous research that has examined the effects of leader behaviors on employee organizational citizenship behavior. This part discusses which leader behaviors are significantly related to an employee OCB, and what specific dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior are influenced by the leader behavior.

The final part of this chapter covers the impact of the situational variables on leadership behavior and the various subordinate criterion variables such as subordinate organizational citizenship behavior, satisfaction, and performance. This part provides an understanding of the situational variables and how these impact on leader behaviors and, ultimately, employee criterion variables.

### Organizational Citizenship Behavior Concepts

#### Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organ (1988) and other researchers (i.e., Bateman, 1983; Smith and Near, 1983; Graham, 1986; Podsakoff and Williams, 1986; Puffer, 1987) provided the most widely accepted formal definition of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB):

Organizational citizenship behavior represents individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization. The behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specificable terms of the person's employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable.

Organ (1988) and Graham (1986) suggested that organizational citizenship behavior consists of five categories: altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue.

Altruism. This category consists of discretionary behaviors that focus on helping specific persons with an organizationally pertinent task, obstacle, concern, or problem. Altruism is not necessarily limited to assisting colleagues, but also includes willfully helping the firm's customers, suppliers, and merchants.

Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness characterizes subordinate voluntary behaviors that surpass minimal requirements in carrying out assigned tasks. This category, for example, is exhibited when a subordinate arrives at work even though a socially permissible excuse is readily available, willingly follows rules and regulations, and does not abuse time allotted for work breaks. In contrast to altruism, where help is rendered to a specific person, the impact of conscientiousness is more global. The conscientious subordinate is operating on a personal code of appropriate conduct.

Sportsmanship. Sportsmanship refers to activities that employees avoid complaining and filing petty grievances, and cheerfully accept less than ideal employment circumstances. Sportsmanship describes the subordinate who agreeably tolerates those inconveniences that are an inevitable element of any employment condition. For example, sportsmanship is exhibited when a subordinate refrains from

complaining about the disruption caused by office renovations.

Courtesy. Courtesy describes subordinate volitional behaviors directed at circumventing work-related problems, particularly as the problems influence others. These behaviors occur in an attempt to avoid potentially unfavorable effects on others. Examples of this category include actions such as giving others advance notice concerning decisions or changes, issuing reminders to others, checking with others before taking action, consulting, briefing, and passing along information. While altruism refers to helping behaviors that assist a specific individual with a given problem, courtesy focuses on preventing future problems from emerging.

Civic Virtue. Graham (1986) has suggested the existence of another form of organizational citizenship behavior, civic virtue, which consists of responsible participation in the political life of the organization. Graham indicated that a good organizational citizen contributes to corporate governance not only by keeping abreast of the “issues of the day,” but also by expressing sentiments about those issues. Civic virtue takes such mundane forms as attending meetings, reading the intramural mail, discussing issues on personal time, intelligent voting after becoming well-informed and “speaking up” in the proper forum and in the appropriate tone.

#### Precursors of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior has three precursors: Barnard’s “associations of cooperative efforts,” Roethlisberger and Dickson’s “collaboration,” and Katz and Kahn’s “unspecified extra-role behavior (Organ, 1988).” Barnard (1938) suggested the importance of spontaneous contributions that goes beyond the content of contractual obligations, obedience to legitimate authority, or calculated striving for remuneration

from the formal organization. The author emphasized the indispensability of one's "willingness" to contribute efforts to the cooperative system. This is not the mere willingness to join an organization in a contractual sense, nor does it mean a neatly defined role performance. Instead, the author implied that human disposition prompts a generalized, spontaneous tendency to promote and maintain a stream of cooperative endeavors among a group of people. Barnard (1938) noted that this quality of "willingness" is something different from effectiveness, ability, or value of personal contributions, and eventually means self-abnegation (Organ, 1988).

Research conducted by Roethlisberger and Dickson (1964) indicated that collaboration, or cooperation, contains the essence of organizational citizenship behavior. Roethlisberger and Dickson (1964) suggested that collaboration refers to something other than productivity (Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983). According to Smith, Organ, and Near (1983), productivity is regarded as a function of the formal organization, which has the authority structure, role specifications, and technology, and the "logic of facts." On the other hand, collaboration refers to acts that serve more of a maintenance purpose, to "maintain internal equilibrium." Collaboration thus includes the day-to-day spontaneous prosocial gestures of individual accommodation to the work needs of others -- co-workers, supervisors, and clients in other departments; whereas, productivity is determined by the formal or economic structure of the organization. Roethlisberger and Dickson viewed collaboration as a product of the informal organization and the "logic of sentiment." A vast amount of collaboration exists at an informal level and sometimes facilitates the functioning of the formal organization.

Katz and Kahn's category of extra-role behavior is another precursor of

organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988). Katz (1964) and Kahn (1966) identified three categories of employee behavior essential for a functioning organization: (1) people must be induced to enter and remain with an organization; (2) as employees, they must carry out specific role requirements in a dependable fashion; and (3) they must engage in innovative and spontaneous activity that goes beyond role prescriptions.

Concerning the last category, Katz (1964) and Kahn (1966) argued that “an organization is dependent solely upon its blue-prints of prescribed behavior is a very fragile social system” and further argued that organizations must leave some things unspecified so that employees can deal appropriately with unexpected contingencies. The “innovative and spontaneous” activity, or unspecified extra-role behavior includes cooperative activities with fellow members, actions protective of the organizational system, self-training for additional contributions, and actions that promote a favorable organizational climate in the external environment, referred to as “organizational spontaneity” (George and Brief, 1992).

### Prosocial Organizational Behavior

In addition to the precursors of organizational citizenship behavior, Brief and Motowidlo (1986) have proposed “prosocial organizational behavior (POB)” as synonymous concepts of organizational citizenship behavior. According to Brief and Motowidlo (1986), prosocial organizational behavior is behaviors which are (1) performed by a member of an organization, (2) directed toward an individual, group, or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role, and (3) performed with the intention of performing for the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed. Brief and Motowidlo (1986) further

made distinctions between two types of prosocial organizational behavior: intra-role and extra-role prosocial organizational behavior. Intra-role prosocial organizational behaviors are prescribed by an organization and are assigned to individuals as part of their performance responsibilities. An example of intra-role prosocial organizational behavior is requiring a seasoned veteran to serve as a mentor to a new employee. On the other hand, extra-role prosocial organizational behaviors are not reinforced by an organization. Extra-role prosocial organizational behaviors are voluntary acts, undertaken by individuals, aimed at helping individuals, groups, or an organization. Examples of extra-role prosocial organizational behavior include protecting or conserving organizational resources and supplies, cooperating with others, suggesting improvements, and speaking favorably of an organization to outsiders (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986). In this sense, extra-role prosocial organizational behavior is very similar to organizational citizenship behavior (Schnake, 1991). Despite considerable overlap between organizational citizenship behavior and extra-role prosocial organizational behavior, extra-role prosocial organizational behavior is considered a broader, more inclusive concept than organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988). Prosocial organizational behavior encompasses not only organizational citizenship behavior but also numerous other behavioral patterns that make it more difficult for the organization to be effective. Some examples of prosocial organizational behaviors that generally tend to be dysfunctional for the organization include helping co-workers achieve personal goals inconsistent with organizational objectives, being lenient in personnel decisions, and delivering services or products to customers in an organizationally inconsistent manner.



### Organizational Spontaneity

As another synonymous concept of organizational citizenship behavior, George and Brief (1992) proposed “organizational spontaneity (OS).” They have completely succeeded Katz and Kahn’s concept of “unspecified extra-role behavior” and named “organizational spontaneity.” George and Brief proposed five forms of organizational spontaneity following Katz and Kahn’s five forms of unspecified extra-role behavior: “helping co-workers,” “protecting the organization,” “making constructive suggestions,” “developing oneself,” and “spreading goodwill.” Organizational spontaneity is important for the concept of organizational citizenship behavior in that today’s organizational citizenship behavior has its origin in Katz and Kahn’s concept.

Helping co-workers. This helping behavior is voluntary i.e., spontaneous, in that it appears in no job description. It is not planned or assigned as a requirement of the job. This act, if it occurs, often is taken for granted. However, its absence explains the process by which seemingly minor difficulties at work result in more serious organizational liabilities. Examples of this behavior are calling attention to a potential error, sharing supplies, and coming to the aid of someone behind in their work.

Protecting the organization. With very few exceptions, there is little in the role prescription of employees that requires that they be on watch to save life and organizational property from accidents that can threaten organizational functioning such as fire, theft, or vandalism. By reporting a fire hazard, by alerting building security to a door that should be locked and is not, or by disobeying an order that could lead to someone being injured, employees reduce the risks of damage, loss, or destruction.

Making constructive suggestions. The task assigned to an employee is rarely to

make creative suggestions for improving the functioning of the organization. An organization that can stimulate its employees to come up with good ideas for the organization and present them to management is likely to be more effective and can utilize its potential resources effectively.

Developing oneself. An often overlooked form of organizational spontaneity entails employees voluntarily seeking to enhance the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed to perform their current jobs better or to prepare themselves for more responsible positions within the organization. This self-development ranges from an aspiring manager subscribing to a business periodical to a production employee enrolling in a computer literacy course at a local community college.

Spreading goodwill. When employees tell their friends how happy they are to work for a company that treats its employee so well, and when they let their acquaintances know what a good product their firm sells, they are spreading the goodwill of their organization. Such acts can benefit organizations in a number of ways, including facilitating the recruitment of employees and the marketing of goods or services.

These various forms of organizational spontaneity are central to the survival and effectiveness of organizations (George and Brief, 1992). Moreover, the need for these behaviors arises from the fact that organizations cannot predict all contingencies in advance and face considerable uncertainty (Katz, 1964; Katz and Kahn, 1966). Hence, although an organization cannot specify which spontaneous behaviors will be required in any given situation and who should perform them, it is dependent on their occurrence (George and Brief, 1992).

After constructing five conceptual forms of organizational spontaneity, George

and Brief (1992) compared organizational citizenship behavior, prosocial organizational behavior, and organizational spontaneity along four behavioral dimensions as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Comparison of Three Concepts

DIMENSION	OCB	POB	OS
Organizationally functional vs. dysfunctional	Includes functional behaviors	Includes functional and dysfunctional behaviors	Includes functional behaviors
Role prescribed vs. extra-role	Includes role-prescribed and extra-role behaviors	Includes role-prescribed and extra-role behaviors	Includes extra-role behaviors
Possibility of financial remuneration	Behaviors cannot be recognized by formal reward system	Behaviors can be recognized by formal reward system	Behaviors can be recognized by formal reward system
Active vs. passive	Includes active and passive behaviors	Includes active and passive behaviors	Includes active behaviors

Source: Jennifer M. George and Arthur P. Brief. Feeling good-doing good: A conceptual analysis of the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. *Psychological Bulletin*. 1992. P. 310-329.

The first dimension is concerned with the functionality of the behavior for the organization. Whereas both organizational citizenship behavior and organizational spontaneity include only organizationally functional behaviors, prosocial organizational behavior includes behaviors that are dysfunctional for the employing organization. The second dimension is whether the behavior is role prescribed or extra-role. Whereas organizational spontaneity principally includes only extra-role behaviors that cannot be or usually are not prescribed in advance (Katz, 1964; Katz and Kahn, 1966), both prosocial organizational behavior and organizational citizenship behavior include some behaviors that would normally be considered role prescribed. The third dimension refers to whether the behavior can be recognized by the organization's reward system. While employees can receive financial remuneration for both prosocial organizational behavior and organizational spontaneity, organizational citizenship behavior excludes any behaviors that are recognized by an organization's formal reward system. The last dimension is concerned to the extent to which the concepts include both active and passive behaviors. While the organizational spontaneity concept includes only active behaviors, both organizational citizenship behavior and prosocial organizational behavior tend to include both active and passive behaviors. Therefore, George and Brief (1992) argued that although there is a certain degree of overlap among these three concepts, some of the forms of organizational spontaneity are not captured by organizational citizenship behavior, and both organizational citizenship behavior and prosocial organizational behavior include behaviors that are inconsistent with Katz and Kahn's (1964, 1966) notion of spontaneous behavior.

## Organizational Citizenship Behavior Studies in the Hospitality Industry

Although the topic of organizational citizenship behavior has received considerable attention during the past decade, few studies have been done in the hospitality industry. Only a few service marketing or service management studies have argued or implied the importance of organizational citizenship behavior in the service industry. Those studies commonly suggest that the five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior are very necessary to enhance the service company's level of service (Albrecht and Schaaf, 1989; Albrecht and Zemke, 1985; Bowen and Lawler, 1992; Davidow and Uttal, 1989; George and Bettenhausen, 1990; Groomroos, 1985; Morrison, 1996; Tansik, 1990; and Vroman and Luchsinger, 1994).

Research by Bowen and Lawler (1992), Davidow and Uttal (1989), and Tansik (1990) has indicated the importance of the "conscientiousness" dimension of organizational citizenship behavior. They have suggested that employees' role-specified behavior at exceptional levels is critical for high-quality service. According to Davidow and Uttal (1989), employees at Nordstrom department store and American Express not only engage in role-specified activities, but also go far above and beyond the call of duty in carrying out their responsibilities for customer service.

Albrecht and Zemke (1985), George and Bettenhausen (1990) and Groomroos (1985) have placed a stress on the "altruism" dimension of organizational citizenship behavior by suggesting that informal helping behaviors are critical for ensuring customer service quality. According to them, the informal helping can be directed at either external customers or at customers within the organization. By helping a customer with a problem, even though doing so is not strictly within one's job duties, the service

organization may create an overall sense of goodwill and thus enhance the customer's experience of service quality. Additionally, service quality is also enhanced to the extent that employees view each other as customers and thus willingly assist each other so that the external customer is better served.

Albrecht and Zemke (1985), Bowen and Lawler (1992), Vroman and Luchsinger (1994), and Albrecht and Schaaf (1989) have argued for the "civic virtue" behavior of organizational citizenship behavior. According to them, a service organization may figure out what their customers want through suggestions from front-line employees, who interact with customers on an ongoing basis. This "civic virtue" behavior consequently can improve the service organization's level of service quality.

Morrison (1996) has argued that the "sportsmanship" and "courtesy" dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior may also help to ensure service quality based on the assumption that employees who exhibit high levels of courtesy are respectful and considerate to one another, and that those who exhibit high levels of sportsmanship have a positive attitude and avoid unnecessary complaining. According to her, customers will experience greater service quality to the extent that each of these behaviors is exhibited. She used two reasons as the basis of her argument: (1) courtesy and sportsmanship will create employees' courteous and cooperative attitude or treatment toward customers; and (2) a positive work climate among employees will have an indirect effect on service quality by creating an overall environment that customers find more pleasant.

## Leadership Theory

### Leadership Definitions

The word “leadership” is one of the most frequently used words in ordinary daily life. However, the definition of leadership varies with the people who use the word. Because of the complexities of leadership, different types of leadership, and individual perceptions of leaders, leadership has several different definitions (Walker, 1996). The interests and needs of the definition developers have also contributed to different definitions (Bass, 1981).

The word “leadership” derives from the Old English word *leden* or *loedan* which means “to make go,” “to guide,” or “to show the way,” and the Latin word *ducere*, which means “to draw, drag, pull; to lead, guide, conduct (Roster, 1991).” In the Oxford English Dictionary (1989), leadership is defined as (1) the dignity, office, or position of a leader, (2) ability to lead, (3) the position of a group of people leading or influencing others within a given context, and (4) the action or influence necessary for the direction or organization of effort in a group undertaking. Also, in the Random House Dictionary of the English Language (1987), leadership is defined as (1) position or function of a leader, (2) ability to lead, (3) an act or instance of leading, guidance, direction, and (4) the leaders of a group. The American Heritage Illustrated Encyclopedic Dictionary (1987) defined leadership as (1) the position, office, or term of a leader, (2) a group of leaders, and (3) the capacity to be a leader and ability to lead. Dictionaries tend to view leadership as synonymous term for management, indicating that leadership involves little more than occupying a position of management or administration (Roster, 1991). Additionally, by defining leadership as “the ability to lead,” dictionaries have contributed

to the notion that leadership is a bundle of traits (Roster, 1991).

There are many definitions of leadership. Also, there is no general agreement on the best way to define leadership. Stogdill (1974) stated “there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are researchers who have attempted to define the concept.” However, most definitions imply that it is a process of exerting positive influence over other persons (Wexley and Yukl, 1984).

According to Koontz, O’Donnell and Wehrich (1980), “leadership is the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly toward the achievement of a group goal.” Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1959) defined leadership as “interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specialized goal or goals.” Wexley and Yukl (1984) defined leadership as “influencing people to exert more effort in some task or to change their behavior.” Additionally, Hersey and Blanchard (1993) defined leadership as “the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation.” According to them, the leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower, and the situation and can be expressed in a formula,  $L = f(l, f, s)$ , where  $l$  is the leader,  $f$  is the follower, and  $s$  is the situational variables (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993). Therefore, in this study, leadership is defined as “the process of influencing subordinates to change their behaviors in order to accomplish both individual and organizational goals.”

### Leadership Approaches

Since the early 1900s when Taylor and Mayo respectively initiated their scientific management and human relations, which later became basic approaches to leadership, a



number of different theories or approaches to studying leadership have been developed (Table 2), depending on the researchers' conception of leadership and methodological preference (Wexley and Yukl, 1984).

Table 2

Significant Theories in the Development of Motivation and Leadership

CONTRIBUTOR	THEORY	REFERENCE YEAR
Taylor	Scientific Management	1911
Mayo	Hawthorne Studies	1933
Barnard	Executive Functions	1938
Stogdill	Ohio State Studies	1948
Maslow	Hierarchy of Needs	1954
McGregor	Theory X-Y	1957
Tannenbaum-Schmidt	Continuum of Leader Behavior	1957
Blake-Mouton	Managerial Grid	1964
Herzberg	Motivation-Hygiene	1966
Likert	System 1-4	1967
Fiedler	Contingency Model	1967
Argyris	Maturity-Immaturity	1964
Hersey-Blanchard	Situational Leadership	1969
Vroom-Yetten	Contingency Model	1973
House-Mitchell	Path-Goal	1974
Vroom	Expectancy Theory	1976
House	Charismatic Leadership	1977
Burns	Transformational Leadership	1978
Kerr-Jermier	Substitutes for Leadership	1978
Tichy-Devanna	Transformational Leadership	1986
Manz	Super Leadership	1989
Yukl	Integrating Model	1989
Covey	Principle Centered Leadership	1991

Source: P. Hersey and K. Blanchard. *Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources*. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1993). P. 95.

Traditionally, leadership theories have been grouped according to their commonalities and discussed as the theory-bases of trait, behavioral, situational, and transformational (Table 3).

Table 3

Four Major Leadership Approaches

APPROACHES	PRIMARY FOCUS
Trait Approaches (1900 ~ 1945) Great Man Trait and Attributional	There exist some basic personal, physical, and psychological traits or set of traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders.
Behavioral Approaches (1930 ~ 1970) Ohio State Studies Michigan Studies Managerial Grid	The behaviors and/or activities of the effective leaders are somehow different from those of less effective leaders.
Situational Approaches (1970s ~ 1980s) Continuum Contingency Model Path-Goal Situational Leadership Vroom-Yetton Model Substitutes for Leadership	Appropriate leader behavior varies from one situation to another. Attempted to identify key situational factors and to specify how they interact to determine appropriate leader behavior. Attempted to identify aspects of the situation that make leadership behavior redundant or irrelevant (Substitutes for Leadership)
Transformational Approaches (1980s ~ ) Transformational/Transactional Charismatic Leadership Inspirational Leadership	Leaders transmit a sense of mission, stimulate learning experiences and inspire new ways of thinking.

Source: K. Wexley and G. Yukl, *Organizational Behavior and Personnel Psychology*, 1984. R. Griffin, *Management*, 1990.

This part begins with a review of leadership styles along with a brief summary of the development of the leadership theories. Next, two prominent situational leadership theories, House and Mitchell's path-goal theory (1974) and Kerr and Jermier's substitutes for leadership theory (1978) will be discussed for the purpose of this study.

### Trait Approach

One of the earliest approaches for studying leadership was the trait approach. Prior to 1945, the trait theory was the most common approach, which concentrated on effective leaders' personal, physical, and psychological traits. This approach was based on the assumption there were certain characteristics that were essential for effective leadership (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993). Accordingly, most trait theory research was designed to identify successful leaders' intellectual, emotional, physical, and other personal traits, such as intelligence, assertiveness, above-average height, good vocabulary, attractiveness, self-confidence and similar attitudes, that would separate those leaders from non-leaders or more effective from less effective leaders (Bass, 1981; Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn, 1988).

### Behavioral Approach

In the late 1940s, spurred on by their lack of success in identifying useful leadership traits, researchers soon began to turn their attention to other variables, especially the behaviors or actions of leaders, what the leader does, rather than his or her personal characteristics. A large number of studies have been made on the premise that the behaviors of effective leaders were somehow different from the behaviors of ineffective leaders or non-leaders (Griffin, 1990). Three pieces of research, the Michigan

Studies, the Ohio State Leadership Studies, and the Managerial Grid, provide useful insights into leadership behavior.

The Michigan Studies. In 1947, researchers at the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan, led by Rensis Likert, began to study the patterns and styles of leaders and managers. Based on extensive interviews with both managers and employees from a wide variety of organizations such as chemical, electronics, food, heavy machinery, insurance, petroleum, public utilities, hospitals, banks, and government agencies, the Michigan Studies identified two basic forms of leader behavior: job-centered leader behavior and employee-centered leader behavior (Likert, 1967).

Job-centered leaders emphasize production and technical aspects of the job. This type of leader pays close attention to subordinates' work, explains work procedures, shows a keen interest in performance and, thus, tends to see employees as tools to accomplish the goals of the organization. On the other hand, employee-centered leaders emphasize the relationship aspect of their job. Employee-centered leaders are interested in developing a cohesive work group and ensuring that employees are satisfied with their jobs. Thus, the leaders' primary concern is the welfare of subordinates (Griffin, 1990; Hersey and Blanchard, 1993).

Ohio State Studies. At about the same time that Likert was beginning his leadership work at the University of Michigan, Ralph Stogdill, Edwin Fleishman, and their associates at the Ohio State University also began to identify various dimensions of leader behavior.

After extensive questionnaire surveys, they suggested that there are two basic leader behaviors or styles: initiating structure and consideration (Fleishman, 1953). One

of the two basic leader behaviors, consideration, involves the extent to which the leader establishes mutual trust, respect, warmth, rapport, and communication with subordinates. A high consideration score indicates psychological closeness between the leader and subordinates; a low consideration score indicates a more psychologically distant and impersonal posture on the part of the leader. Some examples of consideration include being friendly and approachable, doing personal favors for subordinates, backing up or going to bat for subordinates, consulting with subordinates on important matters before going ahead, finding time to listen to subordinates' problem, being willing to accept subordinate suggestions, looking out for the welfare of individual subordinates, and treating a subordinate like an equal (Wexley and Yukl, 1984).

The second leader behavior, initiating structure, involves behavior in which the leader organizes and defines the relationships in the group, establishes well-defined patterns and channels of communication, sets goals and gives directions, in short, is concerned with the task or getting the work done. Examples of this are criticizing poor work, emphasizing the necessity of meeting deadlines, assigning subordinates to tasks, letting subordinates know what is expected of them, coordinating the activities of subordinates, offering new approaches to problems, maintaining definite standards of performance, asking subordinates to follow standard operating procedures, and seeing that subordinates are working up to capacity (Wexley and Yukl, 1984).

Managerial Grid by Blake and Mouton. According to Blake and Mouton (1964), there are five different types of leadership named "impoverished," "country-club," "task," "team," and "middle-of-the-road," which are based on concern for task (production) and concern for people (relationship), and the five different types are located

in the four quadrants similar to those identified by the Ohio State studies.

- **Impoverished:** Managers concern themselves very little with either people or production and have minimum involvement in their job. Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organizational membership.
- **Country-Club:** Managers have little or no concerns for production but are concerned only for people. Thoughtful attention to the needs of people for satisfying relationship leads to a comfortable, friendly organizational atmosphere and work tempo.
- **Task:** Managers are concerned only with developing an efficient operation, have little or no concern for people, and are quite autocratic in their style of leadership. Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.
- **Team:** Managers display in their actions the highest possible dedication both to people and to production. Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a “common stake” in organizational purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.
- **Middle-of-the-Road:** Managers have minimum concern for production and for people. They obtain adequate, but not outstanding, morale and production. They do not set goals too high, and they are likely to have a rather benevolently autocratic style of leadership. Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

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 individuals.

### Transformational Approach

For a half-century, the study of leadership has centered on autocratic versus democratic approaches: on questions about the locus of decision making — directive versus participative; on questions about the focus — tasks versus relationships; or on questions about the behavior—initiation versus consideration (Bass, 1985). Since the late 1970s, the cumulative effects of continuous and dynamic changes and turbulent conditions in operating environments have placed great demands on another new perspective on leadership (Tracey and Hinkin, 1996; Yukl, 1989). The new perspective on leadership has been called by a number of labels: charismatic leadership, inspirational leadership, symbolic leadership, and transformational leadership (Griffin, 1990).

Charismatic Leadership. House (1977) identified charismatic leadership qualities in an ideal form. House described charismatic leaders as those who, by force of their personalities and interpersonal skills, have an extraordinary influence over subordinates, without resorting to any formal authority. The charismatic leaders have great power and influence, and subordinates want to identify with them as well as having a high degree of trust and confidence in them. Endowed with determination, energy, self-confidence, and ability, charismatic leaders inspire and excite their subordinates with the idea that together, with extra effort, great things can be accomplished (House, 1977).

More recently, Conger and Kanungo (1987) proposed a three-stage charismatic leadership process: environmental assessment, vision formulation, and implementation.

Stage 1: Environmental Assessment. The leader recognizes subordinate skills and abilities and organizational limitations and opportunities (Environmental sensitivity). Also, the leader expresses concern for subordinates (Sensitivity to member needs). Additionally, the leader's vision of fundamental change falls within the subordinates' latitude of acceptance (does not maintain status quo).

Stage 2: Vision Formulation. The leader embodies inspirational and self-presentational skills. The leader excites subordinates through the use of assertive behavior, carefully selected rhetoric, and nonverbal forms of communication, including general appearance and effusive body language.

Stage 3: Implementation. This stage is distinguished by unconventional and personal risk behavior. Unconventional behavior involves the leader's creative means to achieve organizational objectives; personal risk is characterized by the leader's high personal costs and self-sacrifice for the benefit of the organization (Conger and Kanungo, 1987).

Transformational Leadership. Burns (1978), in his book *Leadership*, identified two types of leadership: transactional leadership and transformational leadership.

Transactional leadership is based on bureaucratic authority and legitimacy associated with one's position within the organization. This type of leadership occurs where the leadership enters into various transactions with subordinates. Transactional leadership tends to explain what is required of the subordinates in terms of contributions, and specifies the compensation or rewards the subordinates will receive if they fulfill these



requirements. Thus, transactional leaders emphasize the clarification of tasks, work standards, and outcomes, and rely quite heavily on organizational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance.

On the other hand, transformational leadership is based on more than the compliance of subordinates; it involves shifts in the beliefs, the needs, and the values of subordinates (Burns, 1978). Burns (1978) characterized transformational leadership as a process which motivates subordinates by appealing to higher ideals and moral values. Transformational leaders are able to define and articulate a vision for their organizations, and their leadership style can influence or “transform” such individual-level variables as increasing motivation, and such organization-level variables as mediating conflict among groups or teams.

More recently, Bass and Avolio (1994) developed a theory of transformational leadership that is a culmination of earlier work by Burns (1978) and House (1977), Conger and Kanungo (1987), and others (Tracey and Hinkin, 1994). According to them, there are four primary dimensions that comprise transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Idealized influence. Behavior that results in follower admiration, respect and trust such as risk-sharing on the part of leaders, a consideration of follower needs over personal needs, and ethical and moral conduct.

Inspirational motivation. Behaviors that provide meaning and challenge to followers’ work, such as behaviors that articulate clear expectations and demonstrate commitment to overall organizational goals and arouse a team spirit through enthusiasm

and optimism.

Intellectual stimulation. The leader provides followers with interesting and challenging tasks, solicits new ideas and approaches for performing work, and encourages them to solve problems in their own creative ways.

Individualized consideration. Behaviors that show that the leader shares the individual follower's concerns and developmental needs such as listening attentively and paying special attention.

### Studies on the Situational Variables

During the late 1960s, researchers recognized the limitations of the behavioral theories and began to refine and develop new approaches to the study of leadership. The work of the trait and behavioral style research provided a significant foundation for the study of leadership in organizations, because the result of these approaches strongly suggested that the most effective way to lead is a dynamic and flexible process that adapts to the particular situation (Ivancevich, Szilagyi, and Wallace, 1977). Thus, what has evolved after trait approach and behavioral theories were situational leadership theories that suggested that leadership effectiveness depends on the fit between personality, task, power, attitudes, and perceptions (Fleishman, 1973).

The basic assumption of situational approaches is that appropriate leader behavior varies from one situation to another, and the goal of the approaches is to identify key situational factors and to specify how they interact to determine appropriate leader behavior (Griffin, 1990). This approach to leadership was detected in the studies of Stogdill and his associates when it was discovered that 470 Navy officers' leadership ability was heavily affected by such situational factors as their jobs, the organizational

environment in which they operated, and the characteristics of the people they were assigned to lead (Stogdill and Shartle, 1956). Other researchers have shown that effective leadership depends on a response to such environmental factors as the history of the company, the community in which the organization operates, the psychological climate of the group being led, group member personalities and cultural influences, and the time required for making decisions (Filley and House, 1969).

House and Mitchell's (1974) path-goal approach and Kerr and Jermier's (1978) substitutes for leadership model have many similarities, including the fact that both models identify a variety of situational variables that potentially influence the impact of a leader's behavior on subordinate criterion variables, and both are theoretically grounded in the expectancy model of motivation, which argues that work motivation is determined by individual beliefs regarding effort-performance relationships and the desirabilities of various work outcomes that are associated with different performance levels (Vroom, 1964).

#### Path-Goal Theory by House and Mitchell

One of the most well known approaches to situational contingencies is the path-goal theory developed by Robert House. The path-goal theory rests on two assertions: (1) that leader behavior is satisfying to the extent that it meets the immediate wants or needs of subordinates or is seen as a measure of attaining future satisfaction; and (2) that leader behavior is motivational to the extent that it makes subordinates' satisfaction contingent on effective behavior (Evans, 1970). Thus, it is argued that a leader's key function is to make valued or desired reward available in the workplace and to clarify for the subordinate the kind of behavior that will lead to goal accomplishment and valued

rewards. That is, the leader should clarify the paths to goal attainment (Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly, 1985).

The path-goal theory led to the development of four specific styles of leader behavior: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented leader behavior.

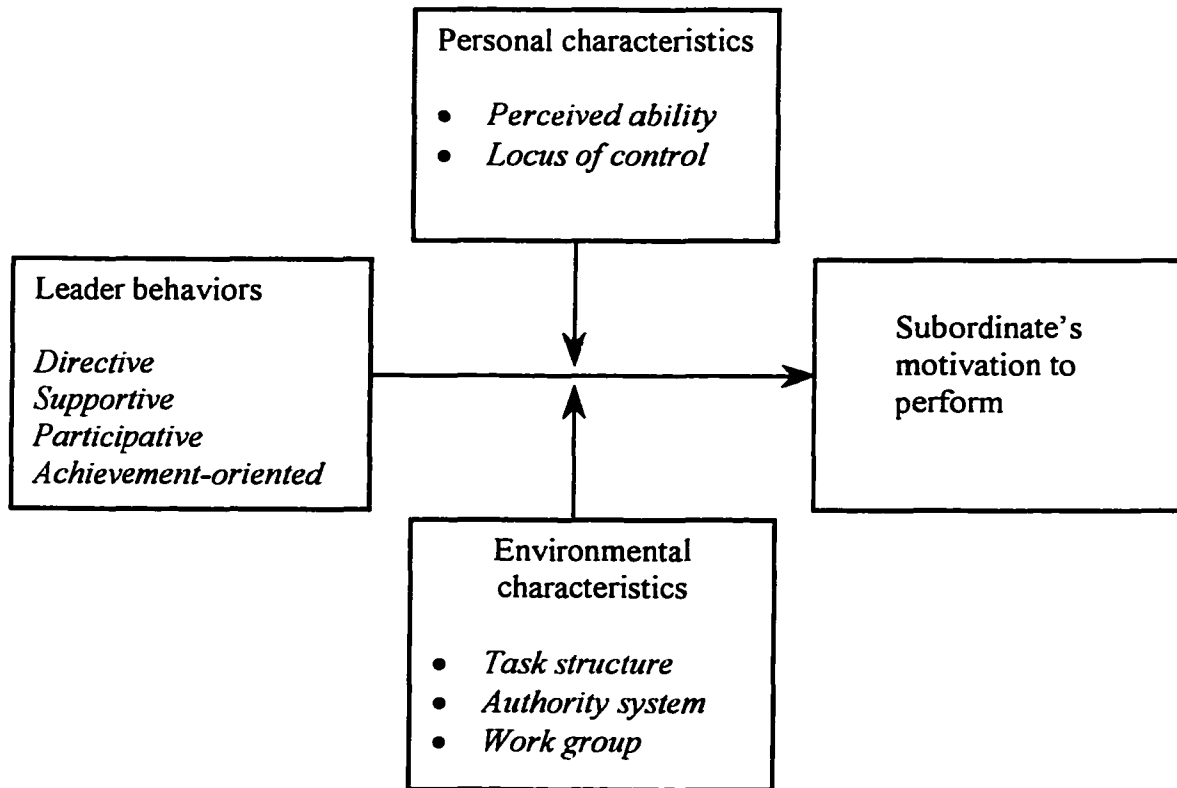
- **Directive leadership:** the leader lets subordinates know what is expected of them and provides specific guidelines, rules, regulations, standards, and schedules of the work to be done.
- **Supportive leadership:** the leader is concerned about the status, needs, and well being of subordinates, is friendly, and endeavors to make work more pleasant.
- **Participative leadership:** the leader goes through consultation processes with subordinates, seeking their suggestions and being considerate toward them in the decision-making process.
- **Achievement-oriented leadership:** the leader sets challenging goals for subordinates and shows confidence and trust in the way concern is expressed about their ability to meet exacting performance standards. The leader is also concerned with trying to improve performance.

The path-goal theory suggested that appropriate leader style depends on situational factors (Vroom, 1964). Two general categories of situational factors are the personal characteristics of subordinates and the characteristics of the work environment. Important subordinate characteristics are the subordinates' perception of their own ability and their locus of control. The higher the degree of perceived ability relative to the task demands, the less likely the subordinate is to accept a directive leader style because such

behavior will be viewed as unnecessary supervision. Also, people who have an internal locus of control believe that what happens to them is a function of their own efforts and behavior. Those who have an external locus of control assume that fate or luck determines what happens to them. A person with an internal locus of control may prefer participative leadership; whereas, a person with an external locus of control may prefer directive leadership (House and Mitchell, 1974).

The environmental characteristics include factors that are not within the control of the subordinate but are important to satisfaction or to the ability to perform effectively (House and Mitchell, 1974). These include the task structure, the formal authority system of the organization, and the work group. Where jobs are highly structured and the objectives or goals set for the subordinate are clear, a supportive and participative style is likely to lead to increased satisfaction because jobs are already routine and therefore little direction is necessary. Figure 1 summarizes the path-goal theory of leader effectiveness.

**Figure 1.** The Path-Goal Framework



Source: Ricky W. Griffin, *Management*, 1990. Malvern, PA: Houghton Mifflin CO.

In essence, the path-goal approach finds that the most effective leaders are those who help subordinates achieve both organizational goals and their personal goals, particularly achievement and reward goals such as money, promotion, interesting tasks, and opportunities for growth and development. Leaders do this by defining position and task roles clearly, by removing obstacles to performance, by enlisting the assistance of group members in setting goals, by promoting group cohesiveness and team effort, by increasing opportunities for personal satisfaction in work performance, by reducing

unnecessary stresses and external controls, by making reward expectations clear, and by doing other things that meet people's expectations.

### Substitutes for Leadership by Kerr and Jermier

The concept of substitutes for leadership was developed in response to the fact that existing leadership models and theories did not account for situations in which leadership was not needed (Kerr and Jermier, 1978). Kerr and Jermier (1978) have suggested that certain factors of the subordinate, of the task, and of the organization may serve as substitutes for leadership and thus moderate the relationship between leader-initiated structure or consideration behavior and subordinate attitudes and behaviors. Thus, the key to improving leadership effectiveness is to identify the situational or contextual variables that can either "neutralize," "substitute for," or "enhance" the effects of a leader's behavior, so that the leader can adopt his or her behavior accordingly.

According to Kerr and Jermier, neutralizers are variables in a leader's environment that can effectively eliminate the impact of a leader's behavior on subordinate criterion variables, but do not replace the impact of such behavior with an effect of their own. On the other hand, substitutes are viewed as special types of neutralizers that reduce a leader's ability to influence subordinates' attitudes, behaviors, perceptions, and performance, and effectively replace the impact of a leader's behavior with one of their own. In addition to neutralizers and substitutes, Howell, Dofman, and Kerr (1986) have also noted that some subordinate, task, and organizational characteristics may also serve to enhance the relationship between particular leader behaviors and subordinate criterion variables. As noted by the researchers, enhancers and neutralizers are two varieties of the same types of moderator; enhancers represent a

positive moderating influence while neutralizers represent a negative moderating influence. That is, when the enhancers become stronger, the predictor-criterion relationship also becomes stronger; whereas, when the neutralizers become stronger, the predictor-criterion relationship becomes weak (Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, and Williams, 1993).

Included among the variables that have been identified by Kerr and Jermier as potential substitutes and neutralizers of the effects of a leader's behavior are four subordinate characteristics (the individuals' ability, experience, training or knowledge; need for independence; professional orientation; and indifference toward organizational rewards); three task characteristics (routine, methodologically invariant tasks; task feedback; and intrinsically satisfying tasks); and six organizational characteristics (the degree of organizational formalization; work group cohesiveness; rule inflexibility; amount of staff and/or advisory support; organizational rewards outside the leader's control; and the degree of spatial distance between leader and their subordinates).

#### Impact of Leader Behaviors on Employee OCB

The potential impact of leadership on employees organizational citizenship behavior has been noted by several researchers (Bass, 1985; Bommer, 1996; Conger, 1989, Fahr et al., 1990; Graham, 1988, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter, 1990; Schnake, Cochran, and Dumler, 1993, 1995; Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983).

Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) found leader supportiveness to exert a positive and direct effect on the "conscientiousness" dimension of organizational citizenship behavior and also to have a positive but indirect effect on the "altruism" dimension. Leader supportiveness is similar to a leadership style known as "consideration" by Yukl (1989),



which is defined as “the degree to which a leader acts in a friendly and supportive manner, shows concern for subordinates, and looks out for their welfare. The researchers’ reasoning for expecting leader supportiveness to be related to the two dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior was based on reciprocity. Leader supportiveness may be perceived by subordinates as a kind of helping behavior. Subordinates may then be motivated to reciprocate with organizational citizenship behavior.

By including another type of leadership style, “initiating structure,” as a predictor, Schnake, Dumler, Cochran’s empirical study (1993, 1995) well supports Smith, Organ, and Near’s study that leader supportiveness, or consideration, is strongly related to organizational citizenship behavior. Schnake et al. (1993, 1995) found two types of traditional leadership style, “initiating structure” and “consideration” to contribute to predictive power for most dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. Their study showed that initiating structure has exert effects on all dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior except for the “sportsmanship” dimension; consideration affects all five dimensions. The Schnake et al.’s study (1993, 1995) suggested for practitioners that managers may be able to encourage employee organizational citizenship behavior by emphasizing both consideration and initiating structure in their interactions with subordinates.

Fahr, Podsakoff, and Organ (1990) provided evidence that leader fairness is an important predictor of organizational citizenship behavior while job satisfaction is not. Their study revealed that leader supportiveness, participativeness, and leader contingent reward behavior are means of establishing both procedural and distributive justice and

may be viewed by subordinates as leader fairness. Job satisfaction measures did not contribute to incremental explained variance beyond leadership on the altruism dimension of organizational citizenship behavior. After all, the result of their study suggested that job satisfaction is not a direct cause or antecedent of the altruism dimension of organizational citizenship behavior but, rather, may be correlated with organizational citizenship behavior only because both satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior are common effects of other factors such as leadership.

The study by Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, and Williams (1993) revealed that supportive leader behaviors influence employee conscientiousness and attendance behavior, suggesting subordinates who perceive their supervisor to be supportive are more likely to engage in higher levels of conscientiousness and good attendance behavior than subordinates who perceive their supervisor to be unsupportive. According to Podsakoff et al. (1996), individualized support of leader behavior was found to have significant positive effects on all five dimensions of subordinate organizational citizenship behaviors. This result suggested that subordinates who feel their leaders are supportive exhibit more altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue than subordinates who do not. Articulating a vision and high performance expectations were found to be positively related to employee sportsmanship and courtesy, respectively. Hence, employees who perceive their leaders to clearly articulate a vision of the future tend to exhibit more sportsmanship than subordinates who perceive their leaders not to exhibit this behavior. Moreover, subordinates who perceive their leaders to have high performance expectations exhibit more courteousness to their peers than employees who perceive their leaders to have less demanding expectation.

Conger and Kanungo (1987), Deluga (1995), Graham (1988), and Koh, Terborg, and Steers (1991) conducted research on the relationship between charismatic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior. According to Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1988), charismatic leaders formulate and communicate an exciting vision of what can be accomplished. Subordinates then perceive the charismatic leader as trustworthy, creative, and willing to take risks to the accomplish goals. Admiring subordinates imitate, wish to please, and personally identify with the leader. Similarly, subordinates internalize the leader's attitudes and beliefs as guiding principles for their own behavior. After all, inspired subordinates subsequently are encouraged to increase their levels of organizational citizenship behavior.

Studies by Graham (1988) and Deluga (1995) contributed to Conger and Kanungo's argument. Graham (1988) argued that subordinates attributing charismatic qualities to their supervisors subsequently take pride in affiliating with the supervisor (identification), acquire a shared mission commitment (internalization), and are motivated to achieve "above and beyond the call of duty" in the form of non-required organizational citizenship behavior. Deluga's (1995) empirical study has also supported the prior research by demonstrating a positive and significant relationship between supervisor attributional charismatic behavior and the five categories of subordinate organizational citizenship behavior. He further implied that since recent research suggests that charismatic leadership can be learned, training programs specifically targeting the development of charismatic leadership characteristics might be examined as potential generators of subordinate organizational citizenship behavior.

Besides, other studies by Bass (1985), Boal and Bryson (1988), House, Woycke,

and Fodor (1988), Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990), and Yukl (1989) suggested that transformational leadership or substitutes for leadership could elevate employee organizational citizenship behavior. Boal and Bryson (1988) argued that the essence of transformational leadership is that such leaders “lift ordinary people to extraordinary heights.” Yukl (1989) argued that leaders cause subordinates to “do more than they are expected to do,” and Bass (1985) suggested that leaders motivate people to “perform beyond the level of expectations.” House et al. (1988) suggested that transformational leaders motivate their subordinates to perform above and beyond the call of duty.

#### Impact of the Situational Variables on Leadership and Subordinate Criterion Variables

Recent researches by Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, and Williams (1993) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) have found that the situational variables significantly influence the relationship between leader behaviors and subordinate criterion variables including employee organizational citizenship behaviors.

After extensive survey of various industries, Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, and Williams (1993) examined the individual effects of the 7 leader behaviors (role clarification, specification of procedures, supportive leadership, contingent reward, contingent punishment, noncontingent reward, and noncontingent punishment) and Kerr and Jermier’s 13 substitute variables on employee altruism, attendance, and conscientiousness dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. Podsakoff et al. (1993) found that the individual’s ability, experience, training and/or knowledge significantly influence employee altruism. That is, employees higher in ability,

experience, training and/or knowledge were found to be more altruistic than employees who were lower in ability, experience, training and/or knowledge. In addition, they suggested that the leaders who continually clarify procedures or who are not perceived to control organizational rewards may inhibit the altruistic behavior of their employees.

Regarding employee attendance, rewards outside the leader's control were found to be significantly related to the attendance variable, suggesting that subordinates who believe that their leader controls organizational rewards exhibit higher levels of attendance behavior than subordinates who perceive their supervisors to have less control over salient organizational rewards. Also, task routinization was found to influence employee conscientiousness, suggesting that the more routine employees perceive their tasks to be, the less conscientiousness they are on the job.

In addition to the impact of the situational variables on altruism, attendance and conscientiousness, Podsakoff et al. (1993) examined the moderating effects of the situational variables on the relationship between the individual leader behaviors and the criterion variables. According to them, professional orientation moderates the impact of the leader's contingent punishment behavior on employee conscientiousness; indifference to rewards moderates the leader's supportive behavior and leader specification of procedures on altruism; need for independence moderates the impact of contingent punishment behavior on attendance; routine task moderates the impact of noncontingent punishment on altruism and attendance; intrinsically satisfying tasks moderate the effect of supportive leader behavior on altruism; organizational formalization moderates the effect of noncontingent punishment behavior on altruism; inflexibility moderates the effect of contingent reward behavior and supportive leader behavior on

conscientiousness; advisory/staff support moderates the impact of contingent reward behavior on conscientiousness and supportive leader behavior on attendance; and spatial distance moderates the effect of noncontingent punishment on altruism.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer's most recent comparative study (1996) explored in depth the effects of transformational leader behaviors, within the context of the situational variables. They examined the individual effects of six transformational leader behaviors and 13 substitutes for leadership on 5 dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior as criterion variables through Podsakoff et. al's transformational leadership inventory (TLI), Kerr and Jermier's (1978) substitute for leadership construct as shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Transformational Leadership Inventory and Substitutes for Leadership

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP INVENTORY	SUBSTITUTES FOR LEADERSHIP
1. Articulating a vision	1. Ability, experience, training, and knowledge
2. Providing an appropriate model	2. Professional orientation
3. Fostering the acceptance of group goals	3. Indifference toward organizational rewards
4. High performance expectations	4. Subordinate need for independence
5. Providing individualized support	5. Unambiguous, routine, methodologically invariant tasks
6. Intellectual stimulation	6. Task provided feedback concerning accomplishment
	7. Intrinsically satisfying tasks
	8. Organizational formalization
	9. Organizational inflexibility
	10. Advisory and staff support
	11. Closely-knit, cohesive, interdependent work groups
	12. Organizational rewards not within the leader's control
	13. Spatial distance between superior and subordinate

**Altruism.** Individualized support of leader behavior and intrinsically satisfying tasks of substitutes for leadership were found to have significant positive effects on subordinate altruism. From this result, Podsakoff et al. (1996) suggested that subordinates who find their tasks intrinsically satisfying or who feel their leaders are supportive are more altruistic than subordinates who do not. Subordinates who perform routine tasks, receive advisory and staff support, perceive that the organization is more highly formalized, or are spatially removed from their leader, are less altruistic than their peers who face the opposite conditions. Thus, leadership substitutes are bigger determinants of employee altruism than transformational leadership behaviors.

**Conscientiousness.** Only one of the leader behaviors (individualized support) had positive individual effects on subordinate conscientiousness; while four of the leadership substitutes (task routinization, indifference to organizational rewards, organizational formalization, and rewards outside the leader's control) had negative effects on subordinate conscientiousness. Thus, the study revealed that subordinates who have value organizational rewards and perceive that their leader controls them, perform less routine tasks, perceive their organizations to be less formalized, or perceive their leader to be supportive, tend to be more conscientious, than those who do not value organizational rewards or do not perceive their leaders to control them, perform more routine tasks, perceive their organization to be more formalized, or perceive their leaders not to be supportive (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

**Sportsmanship.** Two leader behaviors (articulating a vision and individualized support) and two substitutes for leadership (intrinsically satisfying tasks and group cohesiveness) were found to be positively related to employee sportsmanship. Four

leadership substitutes (ability, experience, training, and knowledge, indifference toward organizational rewards, routine tasks, and organizational formalization) were found to be negatively related to employee sportsmanship. Thus, subordinate sportsmanship was influenced somewhat more by substitutes for leadership than by leader behaviors. The study suggested that employees who possess more ability, experience, training, and knowledge, or are indifferent to organizational rewards, perform routine tasks or tasks that are less intrinsically satisfying, perceive their organizations to be more formalized, or work in groups that are less cohesive, are less likely to exhibit sportsmanship than subordinates who do not possess a great deal of ability, experience, training, or knowledge, value organizational rewards, perform less routine or more intrinsically interesting tasks, perceive their organization to be less formalized, or work in more cohesive work groups.

Courtesy. Of the transformational leadership behaviors, individualized support and high performance expectations were found to have positive effects on employee courtesy. Also, group cohesiveness of leadership substitutes was positively related to employee courtesy while task routinization and professional orientation were negatively related to the criterion variable. The results suggested that employees who work in cohesive groups, or perceive their leaders to be supportive or to have high performance expectations exhibit more courteousness to their peers than employees who perceive their leaders to be less supportive or have less demanding expectations, or work in less cohesive work groups.

Civic Virtue. Only one of the leader behaviors had any significant effects on employee civic virtue; whereas, six of the leadership substitutes influenced this criterion



variable. Individualized support, task feedback, and ability, experience, training and knowledge showed positive effects on civic virtue. Routine tasks, rewards outside the leader's control, and indifference to rewards had negative effects on employee civic virtue. Thus, civic virtue on the part of subordinates was determined primarily by substitutes for leadership, rather than transformational leadership behaviors. The results indicated that employees who perceive their leader to provide individualized support, receive more task feedback, or who perceive themselves to have more ability, experience, training, and knowledge, are more likely to engage in civic virtue than employees who do not perceive their leader to be supportive, receive little task feedback, or who do not perceive that they have as much ability, experience, training, or knowledge. In contrast, employees who perform routine tasks, perceive their organization to have highly formalized rules and regulations, do not believe that their leaders control rewards, or are indifferent to the rewards they do control, tend to exhibit less civic virtue than employees not faced with these conditions.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) examined the moderating effects of the situational variables on the criterion variables including subordinate attitudes, role perceptions, and performances. The study indicated that the situational variables influence the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and the criterion variables. Four variables moderate the relationship as a substitute: group cohesiveness, task feedback, routine tasks, and the ability, experience, training and knowledge of the individual. Group cohesiveness substitutes for the impact of articulating a vision on organizational commitment; task feedback substitutes for the impact of providing an appropriate model on employees' trust in their leader; routine tasks substitute for

fostering the acceptance of group goals on employees' trust in their leader; and ability, experience, training and knowledge substitute for articulating a vision on employees' perceptions of role clarity. This suggests that articulating a vision may be less important when followers have more ability, experience, training and knowledge, or work in a cohesive group; providing an appropriate model may be less important when followers work on tasks that give them a high degree of feedback; and fostering the acceptance of group goals may be less important when followers perform routine tasks.

Podsakoff et al.'s study (1996) also indicated that six situational variables neutralize the relationship. Professional orientations, routine tasks, and need for independence completely eliminate the effect of intellectual stimulation on role conflict, individualized support on role conflict, and articulating a vision on role clarity, respectively. Task feedback, indifference to organizational rewards, and organizational flexibility simply weaken the effect of high performance expectations on role conflict, individualized support on employees' trust in their leader, and providing an appropriate model on employees' trust in their leader, respectively.

Eight situational variables were found to serve as enhancers of the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and the criterion variables. Rewards outside leader's control, employees' indifference to organizational rewards, and professional orientation partially enhances the positive relationship between providing an appropriate model and subordinates' trust in their leaders. In addition, advisory/staff support fully enhances the relationship between providing appropriate model and general satisfaction; intrinsically satisfying tasks enhance the relationship between articulating a vision and general satisfaction; and spatial distance fully enhances the relationship between fostering

the acceptance of group goals and subordinates' trust in their leader and the relationship between high performance expectations and employees' perceptions of role conflict.

Childers, Dubinsky, and Skinner (1990) examined the moderating impact of leadership substitutes on the relationship between a salesperson's job satisfaction and two kinds of sales supervisory behavior: initiating structure (task-oriented behavior) and consideration (relationship-oriented behavior).

Initiating structure/job satisfaction moderators. According to them, three substitutes moderate the salesperson job satisfaction/sales manager initiating structure relationship: professional orientation, task characteristics, and customer relationships. More specifically, if a salesperson's supervisors are task-oriented, a salesperson's job satisfaction tends to be enhanced to the extent that they develop relationships with their sales peers, are concerned about how sales peers evaluate their performance, and use their sales peers as important referents. In addition, when a sales position's tasks and responsibilities are clearly defined, and it provides performance feedback via nonsupervisory means, sales supervisors exhibiting task-oriented behavior seemingly have a more favorable influence on a salesperson job satisfaction than when a position does not possess these characteristics. Furthermore, task-oriented sales supervisors tend to have a more positive effect on salesperson job satisfaction when customers guide salespeople in the performance of their job.

Consideration/job satisfaction moderators. Two potential substitutes were found to be moderators of the salesperson job satisfaction/sales manager consideration relationship. The two are closely knit, cohesive work groups and customer relationships. More specifically, when a salesperson's manager exhibits consideration, a salesperson's

job satisfaction is increased to the extent that they work in a job environment characterized by favorable relationships among coworkers. These positive relationships seemingly provide emotional support, encouragement, and friendship that serve to heighten a salesperson's job satisfaction. Moreover, sales managers who exhibit consideration may enhance a salesperson's job satisfaction when a salesperson's relationships with their customers are positive.

Other studies by Abdel-Harlim (1981), Dobbins and Zaccaro (1986), Howell and Dorfman (1986), Schriesheim (1980), and Skaret and Bruning (1986) also examined the effects of various situational variables on the leader behaviors or the relationship between the leader behaviors and the subordinate criterion variables such as job satisfaction, job involvement, and role clarity.

Abdel-Harlim's study (1981) found the locus of control to moderate the effects of initiating structure on job involvement. Also, role ambiguity, job complexity, and locus of control all moderated the effects of consideration on intrinsic satisfaction. Moreover, both role ambiguity and job complexity moderated the effects of consideration on job involvement.

Dobbins and Zaccaro's study (1986) examined the effects of group cohesiveness and leader behavior on subordinate satisfaction in a military organization. They found group cohesiveness moderated the relationships between consideration and satisfaction with coworkers, work, and the organization. Group cohesiveness was also found to significantly moderate the relationship between initiating structure and satisfaction with work and the organization.

Howell and Dorfman's study (1986) indicated worker professionalism moderated

the impact of specification of procedures and indifference to organization rewards on hospital employees' general satisfaction. In addition, ability, experience, training, and knowledge and need for independence also moderated the impact of the leader's specification of procedures on hospital employees' general satisfaction.

Schriesheim (1980) found that group cohesiveness moderated the impact of initiating structure and consideration on supervisor satisfaction and role clarity, and the effect of consideration on performance.

Skaret and Bruning's study (1986) revealed task structure moderated the effect of initiating structure on satisfaction with work of employees in the air-sea transport company. Additionally, cohesion/arousal also moderated the effect of leader consideration subordinate satisfaction with work, and initiating structure on satisfaction with coworkers.

## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the study's research methodology. The methodology was developed to empirically achieve the purpose and objectives of the present study, which was to identify the situational variables that may influence managers' leadership on employee OCB and to investigate the effect of the situational variables on employee organizational citizenship behaviors.

This chapter first begins with a selection of the samples of the study. Next, questionnaire development, including the instruments used to measure the situational variables and employee OCB and their reliability, and pretest procedures are discussed. Then, data collection procedures are presented. Finally, the data analysis procedures including preliminary data analysis techniques and hypothesis testing are discussed.

#### Selection of the Sample

The sample for this study consisted of 107 managers and their 487 subordinates from 12 deluxe business hotels in Seoul, Korea: The Shilla, Grand Hyatt Hotel, Hilton International, Ritz Carlton, Westin Chosun, Inter-Continental Hotel, Hotel Lotte, Sheraton Walkerhill, Seoul Renaissance Hotel, Swiss Grand Hotel, Seoul Plaza Hotel and Novotel Ambassador.

The criteria for selecting managers and employees in these hotels for the sample was the overall quality of the hotel as officially recognized by the Korean government. The sample hotels were selected from the "1996 Korean Tourism Annual Report," published by Ministry of Transportation and Korea National Tourism Corporation. Those hotels were ranked from one to twenty in terms of the quality of service, equipment, facilities, and operation in the room division, food and beverage division, and operation division. As officially recognized high quality hotels, these hotels were expected to have a well-organized personnel system. Whether a sample hotel has a well-organized personnel system or whether the hotel has a well-systemized organizational system was an important factor for this survey in that the subjects of the present study were managers and their subordinates from the major divisions of the hotel operations, such as food and beverage, room, and sales and marketing. This sample frame may not be representative of the population since other hotels were not included in the survey.

The respondents of this study were the 107 managers. These managers were randomly selected from the six major divisions of the hotels: front desk and reservation office, housekeeping, banquet, kitchen and restaurant, sales and marketing, and general administrative department. To be included in the study, managers were required to meet the criteria of having had supervisory and performance evaluation responsibilities for at least three subordinates. Employee samples were randomly selected by the managers who had participated in the survey. The managers were requested to select their subordinates in the range of three to five. Thus, employees did not actually participate since the managers measured their organizational citizenship behaviors.

With the sample size of 107 managers, it was expected that the sample mean

would fall within 2.82 percent of the population mean at the 95 percent level of confidence. This relative tolerance level ( $r$ ) is the difference between the estimate and its unknown true population value. The pretest for managers provided 5.92 of the population mean and .88 of the population standard deviation. The  $Z$  value at the 95 percent confidence interval is 1.96. Also, with the sample size of 487 employees, it is expected that the sample mean would fall within 2.63 percent of the population mean at the 95 percent level of confidence. The pretest for employees provided 4.77 of the population mean and 1.41 of the population standard deviation. These results were produced using the following formula:

$$N = (Z^2/r^2) * (\sigma^2/\mu^2)$$

where  $Z$  = standardized value of the confidence level  
 $r$  = relative tolerance level  
 $\mu$  = estimated population mean  
 $\sigma$  = estimated population standard deviation  
 $N$  = sample size

Seoul was chosen because of the importance of the city as the capital city of the nation. As the capital city, and also the biggest city in Korea, Seoul is the center for politics, economics, transportation, business, sports, and cultural activities. Moreover, most of the nation's deluxe business hotels are located in Seoul. Nearly 69 percent of the deluxe business hotels and 86 percent of the deluxe rooms are in Seoul. In addition, 85 percent of the deluxe business hotel employees are working in Seoul. However, the sample may not be generalized to the whole population since other cities, Pusan, Taejon, Inchon, Taegu, Kyong-Nam, Kyong-Buk, and Chon-Buk, which include 15 percent of the population, were not included in the sample.



## Questionnaire Development

Two questionnaires along with a cover letter were used to collect the data necessary to meet the purpose and objectives of the study (See Appendix I, II, and III). Questionnaire I, developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Fetter (1993), sought information concerning the situational variables and the other, Questionnaire II, developed by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994), solicited information concerning employee organizational citizenship behaviors. Both questionnaires contained a section which asked for demographic data about the respondents and their subordinates. Both questionnaires were designed to be filled out by managers.

### Questionnaire I: Situational Variable Measurement

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Fetter's (1993) 41-item scale was used to assess the situational variables in the study. This scale was developed to measure the 13 key dimensions of substitutes for leadership as identified by Kerr and Jermier (1978): individual's ability, experience, training, and knowledge, need for independence, professional orientation, indifference to organizational rewards, task feedback, routine, methodologically invariant tasks, intrinsically satisfying tasks, organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility, group cohesiveness, amount of advisory/staff support, rewards outside the leader's control, and the degree of spatial distance between supervisors and subordinates as shown in Table 5 (Kerr and Jermier, 1978).

This instrument is a reduced version of the 74-item instrument of the substitutes for leadership scales developed by Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, and Williams (1993). This scale has been shown to possess generally good psychometric properties and to

correlate with other variables such as employee OCB, “in-role” performance and employee satisfaction in a manner that is consistent with its nomological net (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

The respondents’ overall assessment of the situational variables were made on 7-point Likert scales ranging from (1) “Strongly Disagree” to (7) “Strongly Agree.”

Table 5

41-Item Substitutes for Leadership Dimensions

Variable	Substitutes for Leadership Dimension
<b>Ability, Experience, Training, and Knowledge</b>	
AETK1	I have ability, experience, training, and job knowledge to act independent of my immediate supervisor in performing my duties.
AETK2	I have all the required ability and experience to be my own boss on my job.
AETK3	I have enough training and job knowledge to handle most situations that I face in my job.
<b>Professional Orientation</b>	
PROF1	I am a member of a professional group whose standards and values guide me in my work.
PROF2	I am a member of a professional association with which I strongly identify.
PROF3	I am a member of a professional association which has a code of ethics that I believe is important to follow.
<b>Indifference toward Organizational Rewards</b>	
INDIFF1	I cannot get very enthused about the rewards offered in this organization.
INDIFF2	This organization offers attractive opportunities to its employees. [R]
INDIFF3	I don't feel that the rewards I receive in this organization are worth very much.
<b>Need for Independence</b>	
NIND1	When I have a problem I like to think it through myself without help from others.
NIND2	It is important for me to be able to feel that I can do my job without depending on others.
NIND3	I prefer to solve my work problems by myself.
<b>Unambiguous, Routine, Methodologically Invariant Tasks</b>	
ROUT1	Most of the work I do in my job is somewhat repetitive in nature.
ROUT2	I perform the same types of activities every day in my job.
ROUT3	My job does not change much from one day to the next.
<b>Task Provided feedback Concerning Accomplishment</b>	
TASKFB1	My job provides me with feedback on how well I am doing.
TASKFB2	My job provides me with the feelings that I know whether I am performing well or poorly.
TASKFB3	My job provides me with the opportunity to find out how well I am performing.
<b>Intrinsically Satisfying Tasks</b>	
INSAT1	I get a great deal of personal satisfaction from the work I do.
INSAT2	I like the tasks that I perform at work.
INSAT3	My job is personally very rewarding.

(Continued)

<b>Organizational Formalization</b>	
FORM1	My job responsibilities are clearly specified in writing.
FORM2	Written schedules, programs, and work specifications are available to guide me in my work.
FORM3	My duties, authority, and accountability are documented in policies, procedures, or job descriptions.
FORM4	Written rules and guidelines do not exist to direct my work efforts. [R]
<b>Organizational Inflexibility</b>	
INFLEX1	In this organization, violations of rules and procedures are not tolerated.
INFLEX2	In this organization anytime there is a policy in writing that fits some situation, everybody has to follow that policy very strictly.
INFLEX3	The policies and rules in this organization are followed to the letter.
INFLEX4	This organization takes a relaxed approach to rules and policies. [R]
<b>Advisory and Staff Support</b>	
ADVSTF1	In my job, I work closely with staff personnel who are based outside my work unit or department.
ADVSTF2	I often need to obtain information, data, and reports, from other staff members outside my department to complete my work.
ADVSTF3	Support from staff personnel outside my department is critical to success in my job.
<b>Closely-Knit, Cohesive, Interdependent Work Groups</b>	
COHES1	The members of my work group are cooperative with each other.
COHES2	My work group members know that they can depend on each other.
COHES3	The members of my work group stand up for each other.
<b>Organizational Rewards not within the Leader's Control</b>	
NOCTRL1	My chances for a pay raise depend on my immediate supervisor's recommendation. [R]
NOCTRL2	I am dependent on my immediate supervisor for important organizational rewards. [R]
NOCTRL3	My immediate supervisor's recommendation is necessary for me to be promoted. [R]
<b>Spatial Distance between Superior and Subordinate</b>	
SPAT1	On my job my most important tasks take place away from where my immediate supervisor is located.
SPAT2	My immediate supervisor and I are seldom in actual contact or direct sight of one another.
SPAT3	My supervisor and I seldom work in the same area.

Note: [R] denotes reverse coded items. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Fetter, 1993.

## Questionnaire II: Organizational Citizenship Behavior Measurement

OCB was measured using the modified 18-item Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCBS) developed by MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1993) and Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994). The items included in this scale were based on the definitions of the five categories of subordinate organizational citizenship behavior suggested by Organ (1988): altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue (see Table 6). Previous studies by a number of researchers (i.e., MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter, 1991; Moorman, 1991, 1993; Moorman, Niehoff and Organ, 1993; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter, 1990; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Fetter, 1993; Tansky, 1993) have been encouraging, and generally show this scale to possess good validity and very acceptable levels of internal consistency reliability (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

7-point Likert scales ranging from (1) “Strongly Disagree” to (7) “Strongly Agree” were utilized to assess employee OCB.

Table 6

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Dimensions

Variable	OCB Dimension
Altruism	
ALT1	Willingly gives of his/her time to help others.
ALT2	Helps orient new employees even though it is not required.
ALT3	Is always ready to help or to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.
Conscientiousness	
CONS1	Obeys company rules, regulations and procedures even when no one is watching.
CONS2	Never takes long lunches or breaks.
CONS3	Is always punctual.
Courtesy	
COURT1	Informs me before taking any important actions.
COURT2	Take steps to prevent problems with other employees
COURT3	Consults with me or other individuals who might be affected by his/her actions or decisions.
COURT4	Does not abuse the rights of others
Sportsmanship	
SPORT1	Constantly talks about wanting to quit his/her job. [R]
SPORT2	Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. [R]
SPORT3	Tends to make "mountains out of molehills" (makes problems bigger than they are). [R]
SPORT4	Always focuses on what's wrong with his/her situation, rather than the positive side of it. [R]
Civic Virtue	
CIVIC1	Attends and participates in meetings regarding the department.
CIVIC2	Reads and keeps up with departmental/hotel announcements, messages, memos, etc.
CIVIC3	"Keeps up" with developments in the department.
CIVIC4	Attends functions that are not required but help the department/hotel image.

Note: [R] indicates that the scores on the items have been reversed so that the construct represents sportsmanship rather than a lack of sportsmanship. Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994.

### In-Role Behavior

In-role behaviors are defined as those behaviors that an employee is expected to perform to meet the prescribed requirements of the job. According to Williams and Anderson (1991), in-role behavior should be included as a control variable in OCB research. By using their procedure, the variance associated with OCB measures can be distinguished from that of in-role behaviors. Four items depicting overall job performance were used as measures of in-role behaviors:

- “This employee adequately completes assigned duties.”
- “This employee fulfills responsibilities specified in his/her job description.”
- “This employee neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.”
- “This employee fails to meet formal performance requirements of the job.”

These items were placed before items depicting employee OCB, asking respondents to rate the degree to which a subordinate fulfills the formal requirements of his or her job and performs all essential duties. Responses to these items were made on 7-point Likert scales ranging from (1) “Strongly Disagree” to (7) “Strongly Agree.”

### Questionnaire Reliability

Reliability refers to the precision of measurement scores, or how accurately such scores will be reproduced with repeated measurement (Dillon, Madden and Firtle, 1994). The reliability of the items was evaluated by calculating the alpha internal consistency reliability (Cronbach, 1951) for each subscale.

The reliability of both the situational variable questionnaire and the employee OCB questionnaire was validated by prior studies (i.e., MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter,

1991; Podsakoff, Niehoff, and Organ, 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994).

According to Podsakoff, Scott and MacKenzie (1994), the 41-item leadership substitutes instrument was found to be relatively reliable. The reliability for the 41-item leadership substitutes instrument ranged from .70 (need for independence) to .91 (professional orientation), with an average of .79. All of the reliability estimates exceeded Nunnally's recommended level of .70. In addition to the situational variable questionnaire, the employee OCB questionnaire was also found to be reliable (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994). According to Organ (1988) and Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994), the alpha internal consistency reliabilities for the 22-item employee OCB questionnaire ranged from .80 to .86, with an average of .85. All of the reliability estimates exceeded Nunnally's recommended level of .70.

### Demographic Questions

Both questionnaires contain a demographic section at the end of each questionnaire. The demographic section was designed to collect the samples' demographic data, including gender, age, level of education, marital status, current work position and department. In addition to such demographic questions in common for managers and employees, managers were also asked years of working for their current hotel, years of supervision, and salary. The demographic section also contained a question for employee tenure status.

The items regarding gender, age, education, marital status, years of working for the hotel, years of supervision, and annual salary were fixed-alternative questions in which the responses were limited to the stated alternatives. The items regarding position



and department were open-ended questions since the title of the position and the name of the department were slightly different from hotel to hotel.

### Cover Letter

The cover letter was designed in an attempt to encourage participation (See Appendix III). The cover letter first identified the researcher and then described the nature and the purpose of the study. In the second paragraph, a request to participate in the study as part of a research project was addressed, followed by statements describing the subject's anonymity and the extent to which confidentiality of records identifying the subject would be maintained. An assurance that participation is voluntary and that the subject may withdraw from participation at any time was also addressed. In the third paragraph, a description of expected benefits to the subject or the industry was addressed with a statement that the results of the study are available upon request. In the final paragraph, the names, phone numbers for the researcher and his research advisor were listed if respondents had questions about the research, including the Office of Sponsored Program at the University of Nevada Las Vegas for information regarding the rights of research subjects. 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, all research involving human subjects must be reviewed for compliance prior to the initiation of the project. The purpose of the 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 fairly. The present study obtained approval for survey involving human subjects by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas (See Appendix IV).

### Translation and Pretest

The questionnaires were translated into Korean for the purpose of the respondents' clear understanding of the questions. The back translation method was employed in order to eliminate literal equivalence. The back translation method requires that the translated questionnaire be translated back into the original language by another bilingual translator after being translated from one language into another language. This allows the researcher to correct any meaning problems between the original and retranslated instruments (Dillon, Madden, and Firtle, 1987). Thus, the questionnaires were first translated into Korean and then re-translated into English.

Two bilingual translators from the industry and the business college participated in the translation process: One is a marketing manager from the Fort Lee Hilton in New Jersey, and the other is a professor from the College of Business at Hankook University of Foreign Studies in Seoul, Korea.

Pretest was conducted to expose the potential for both respondent and researcher error. Pretest was focused on translation, layout, terminology, and question difficulty. The questionnaires were distributed to 24 managers from the selected hotels. Those pretest respondents were believed to resemble the target population as much as possible in terms of familiarity with the topic of this study and general background characteristics.

A debriefing method was employed for pretest. A debriefing method is a procedure that asks respondents to explain their answers, to state the meaning of each question, and to describe any problems they had with answering or completing the questionnaire (Dillon, Madden, and Firtle, 1987). The appropriate changes in the terminology were made and examples were added resulting from their suggestions.

### Data Collection Procedures

In the beginning of February 1997, the author attended the monthly meeting for the hotel marketing managers to request their cooperation in conducting the survey. With an agreement on survey participation, the coordinator of each hotel was assigned to the author to assist in the survey. The author personally met again with the coordinators of the participating hotels at their property to deliver the questionnaire and to teach the procedure for the survey.

When the author met with the coordinators, 6 separate packets containing a cover letter and questionnaire were given to them. The name of each of the divisions was written on each packet so that the contents were distributed to each of the six divisions accordingly. The cover letter stated the purpose of the study and gave instructions on the instrument administration. The cover letter also assured the anonymity and confidentiality of responses.

The coordinators visited the six selected divisions during normal working hours to pass out the cover letter and questionnaire to the respondents and to explain how to complete the questionnaire. During the survey, the coordinator helped the respondents to complete the questionnaire if any problems occurred, and checked whether the questionnaire was appropriately completed. The respondents were requested to complete

the substitutes for leadership instrument first and then were requested to respond to a series of questions about organizational citizenship behaviors of their subordinates. Three to five subordinates were assigned to each respondent to evaluate their organizational citizenship behaviors. The respondents were allowed to take the survey home to complete, if they chose to do so.

Ten days after distribution, the coordinators collected the questionnaire from the respondents and then notified the author of the completion of the survey. In order to confirm and encourage survey administration, the author gave a follow-up call to the coordinators during their survey. The survey was conducted for 23 days from February 4 to February 26, 1997.

### Data Analysis Procedure

The data analysis procedures in this study consisted of coding and entering the obtained data, sample characteristics, factor analysis, descriptive statistics, and hypothesis testing. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences for Window 7.5 (SPSS Release 7.5) was used for these procedures.

### Coding and Entering

Each item for the situational variables as leadership substitutes and employee OCB was labeled in abbreviated form with four to six characters. The abbreviations are listed in Table 7 and Table 8.

Table 7

Abbreviations for the Situational Variables as Leadership Substitutes

Abbreviation	Situational Variables as Leadership Substitutes
AETK	Ability, Experience, Training, and Knowledge
PROF	Professional Orientation
INDIFF	Indifference toward Organizational Reward
NIND	Subordinate Need for Independence
ROUT	Unambiguous, Routine, Methodologically Invariant Tasks
TASKFB	Task Provided Feedback Concerning Accomplishment
INSAT	Intrinsically Satisfying Tasks
FORM	Organizational Formalization
INFLEX	Organizational Inflexibility
ADVSTF	Advisory and Staff Support
COHES	Closely-knit, Cohesive, Interdependent Work Groups
NOCTRL	Organizational Rewards Not Within the Leader's Control
SPAT	Spatial Distance between Superior and Subordinate

Table 8

Abbreviations for Employee OCB Dimensions

Abbreviation	OCB Dimension
ALT	Altruism
CONS	Conscientiousness
COURT	Courtesy
SPORT	Sportsmanship
CIVIC	Civic Virtue

Of the total 41 items for the situational variables as leadership substitutes, the scores on 35 positively stated items were coded and entered by assigning a scale ranging from 1 to 7. On the other hand, the scores on the items that were stated negatively have been reversed from 7 to 1. The coding and entering procedure for employee OCB were done in the same manner. Of the total 22 items for employee OCB, the scores on 18 positively stated items were coded and entered by assigning a scale ranging from 1 to 7. The scores on the negatively stated items have been reversed from 7 to 1.

Numeric codes for missing responses were coded as 98 and 99. The missing value code 98 was assigned for the “double answer” missing values; the missing value code 99 was assigned for the “no answer” missing values.

In order to detect mistakes in the entering and coding procedure, the author used frequency tables. A frequency table is an SPSS output tabulation that summarizes responses to specific questions. Using the frequency tables, the author could find some wrong codes in the data values and correct them before proceeding.

### Characteristics of Sample

Prior to data analysis, frequencies for all demographic items were computed. Frequency analysis was utilized to provide an overview of the samples' demographic characteristics including gender, age, education, position, department, organizational tenure, and the number of working years as a supervisor.

### Factor Analysis

Initial data analysis included a principal components factor analysis on both the dependent variables and the independent variables. The principal components analysis, a

procedure for analyzing interdependent correlations among a large number of variables and then explaining these variables in terms of their common underlying dimensions or factors, was performed (1) to examine whether there exist variables that are highly correlated with one another, (2) to extract those variables and classify them into several smaller sets of factors, and (3) to evaluate the accuracy of classification (Hair, Anderson, and Tatham, 1987; Kachigan, 1986).

The number of factors to be retained was decided using the scree test (Cattell, 1966). On the scree plot, the point at which the scree curve first begins to straighten out was considered to indicate the maximum number of factors to extract.

Also, the criteria for the significance of factor loadings was the absolute value of .3. Items or variables which correlate less than  $\pm .3$  with a factor were omitted from consideration since they account for less than 9 percent of the variance and therefore are not very important (Bryman and Cramer, 1994).

The extracted factors were then rotated using the varimax orthogonal rotation approach to provide simple factor structure for each data set. According to Hair, Anderson, and Tatham (1987) and Kachigan (1986), generally rotation is desirable because it redefines the factors in order to make sharper distinctions in the meanings of the factors, it simplifies the factor structure, and it is usually difficult to determine whether unrotated factors will be meaningful or not. In addition, the varimax orthogonal rotation approach was used because the approach gives a clearer separation of the factors, and the factor pattern obtained by varimax rotation tends to be more invariant than any other approach (Hair, Anderson, and Tatham, 1987).

### Descriptive Statistics

Following the factor analysis, the means, standard deviations, and the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients were computed and analyzed for all of the variables used in this study.

The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients were calculated to examine internal consistency reliability for the leadership substitutes and employee OCB constructs in this study. Coefficient alpha provides a good estimate of reliability in most situations, since the major source of measurement error is because of the sampling of content (Nunnally, 1978). Nunnally's (1978) recommended level of 0.7 was adopted as a minimally acceptable reliability level.

### Partial Correlation Coefficient Test

A partial correlation coefficient test, a procedure for analyzing associative relationships between a dependent variable and an independent variable when the linear effects of other independent variables are removed, was employed to examine the extent to which the situational variables influence employee OCB. The purpose of this partial correlation coefficient test was to measure the strength of the linear relationship between the situational variables as the leadership substitutes and the five dimensions of employee OCB on a one-to-one basis. In this test, the dependent variables were regressed on a set of independent variables. The dependent variables were the five dimensions of employee OCB: altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. The independent variables were the thirteen substitutes for leadership: individual's ability, experience, training, and knowledge; need for independence; professional orientation; indifference to organizational rewards; task feedback; routine, methodologically invariant



tasks; intrinsically satisfying tasks; organizational formalization; organizational inflexibility; group cohesiveness; amount of advisory/staff support; rewards outside the leader's control; the degree of spatial distance between supervisors and subordinates.

This study tested the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and the independent variable, controlling for the effects of other twelve independent variables in the model, is equal to 0 ( $\beta = 0$ ) using its observed significance level. The test was conducted at .05 significance level to test the null hypotheses. If the observed significance level is less than .05, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. For each pair of variables, if the test rejects the null hypothesis, it is quite likely that an independent variable is significantly correlated with the dependent variable after controlling for the effects of other twelve independent variables.

## CHAPTER IV

### DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULT

#### Introduction

In Chapter III, the methodology and procedure for data analysis were discussed. In this chapter, the findings of the data analysis are presented. The first part of this chapter provides a discussion of the characteristics of the samples. The second part provides a factor structure for each data set, using a principal component analysis. The third part consists of descriptive statistics of all the variables used in this study, including the means, standard deviations, and coefficient alpha internal consistency reliabilities. The final part is hypothesis test. The results of statistical testing using partial correlation coefficient analysis are discussed.

#### Characteristics of the Sample

The sample consisted of 107 managers and their 487 subordinates working at deluxe business hotels in Seoul, Korea. In an attempt to maximize the variability in the measures, the samples were selected from six major divisions of a hotel: front office, housekeeping, restaurants and kitchen, banquet, sales and marketing, and other supportive departments such as accounting and engineering department.

### Managers

As indicated in Table 9, of the total 107 managers, 73.8 percent were male and 26.2 percent were female. Over 98 percent of the managers were above the age of 26. More specifically, the 36 to 40 age group had the highest frequency of 29.9 percent, followed by the 31 to 35 age group with 22.4 percent. 77.6 percent of the managers were married and 20.6 percent were single. Only two managers were either divorced or widowed. 76.6 percent were 4-year-college graduates or postgraduates. The majority (89.7 percent) of the managers had at least a 2-year-college degree. Over half the managers (60.7 percent) belonged to manager level, and 20.6 percent belonged to assistant manager level. Regarding the managers' tenure at their hotel, 87.8 percent have worked at least 4 years. Almost half the managers have worked at least 10 years for their hotel. 31.8 percent of the managers have 4 to 6 years supervision experience and 20.6 percent have 7 to 9 years experience. The managers with less than one year experience were 13.6 percent.

Table 9

Characteristics of Managers

Sample Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	79	73.8%
Female	28	26.2%
<i>Age</i>		
Below 25	2	1.9%
26 – 30	7	6.5%
31 – 35	24	22.4%
36 – 40	32	29.9%
41 – 45	21	19.6%
46 – 50	13	12.1%
Over 50	8	7.5%
<i>Marital Status</i>		
Single	22	20.6%
Married	83	77.6%
Divorced	1	0.9%
Widowed	1	0.9%
Separated	0	0.0%
<i>Education</i>		
Less than High School	0	0.0%
High School Graduate	11	10.3%
2-Year-College Graduate	14	13.1%
4-Year-College Graduate	62	57.9%
Post Graduate	20	18.7%
<i>Position</i>		
Assistant Manager	22	20.6%
Manager	65	60.7%
Deputy Director	9	8.4%
Director	11	10.3%
<i>Organization Tenure</i>		
Below 1 Year	3	2.8%
1 – 3 Years	9	8.4%
4 – 6 Years	22	20.6%
7 – 9 Years	20	18.7%
10 – 12 Years	16	15.0%
13 – 15 Years	16	15.0%
16 – 18 Years	16	15.0%
Over 19 Years	5	4.7%
<i>Year of Supervision</i>		
Below 1 Year	14	13.1%
1 – 3 Years	21	19.6%
4 – 6 Years	34	31.8%
7 – 9 Years	22	20.6%
10 – 12 Years	5	4.7%
13 – 15 Years	4	3.7%
16 – 18 Years	4	3.7%
Over 19 Years	3	2.8%

Table 10 shows that the managers were relatively evenly selected from the six major divisions. 19.6 percent were from the sales and marketing division and 17.8 percent were from the food and beverage division.

Table 10

Managers' Working Division

Division	Frequency	Percent
Front Office	18	16.8%
Housekeeping	18	16.8%
Food and Beverage	19	17.8%
Banquet	16	15.0%
Sales and Marketing	21	19.6%
General Administration	15	14.0%
Total	107	100.0%

## Employees

As indicated in Table 11, of the total 487 employees, 50.9 percent were female while 49.1 percent were male. 42.7 percent and 26.3 percent of the employees belonged to 26 to 30 age group and 31 to 35 age group, respectively. 55.4 percent of the employees were single while 44.1 percent were married. Only two employees were either separated or widowed. Nearly half of the employees were 4-year-college graduates. 85 percent of the employees had at least a 2-year-college degree. 58.7 percent of the employees belonged to the entry level and 33.7 percent belonged to the assistant manager level.

Table 11

Characteristics of Employees

Sample Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	239	49.1%
Female	248	50.9%
<i>Age</i>		
Below 20	8	1.6%
21 – 25	71	14.6%
26 – 30	208	42.7%
31 – 35	128	26.3%
36 – 40	36	7.4%
41 – 45	33	6.8%
Over 46	3	0.6%
<i>Marital Status</i>		
Single	270	55.4%
Married	215	44.1%
Divorced	1	0.2%
Widowed	1	0.2%
Separated	0	0.0%
<i>Education</i>		
Less than High School	3	0.6%
High School Graduate	70	14.4%
2-Year-College Graduate	152	31.2%
4-Year-College Graduate	240	49.3%
Post Graduate	22	4.5%
<i>Position</i>		
Entry Level	286	58.7%
Assistant Manager	163	33.5%
Manager	32	6.6%
Deputy Director	6	1.2%

Table 12 shows that the employees were relatively evenly selected. 19.1 percent were from the sales and marketing division, and 18.3 percent were from the food and beverage division. Over 16 percent were from the room department (front office division and housekeeping). 14.6 percent and 14.8 percent were from the general administration division and banquet division, respectively.

Table 12

Employees' Working Division

Division	Frequency	Percent
Front Office	80	16.4%
Housekeeping	82	16.8%
Food and Beverage	89	18.3%
Banquet	72	14.8%
Sales and Marketing	93	19.1%
General Administration	72	14.6%
Total	487	100.0%

## Factor Analyses

Substitutes for leadership Measurement

Ten factors were extracted from the scree plot shown in Figure 2. The last real factor, the tenth factor in this study, is considered to be the point before the first scree begins. The extracted factors were rotated by varimax orthogonal method to find a better solution.

**Figure 2.** Scree Plot for Substitutes for Leadership

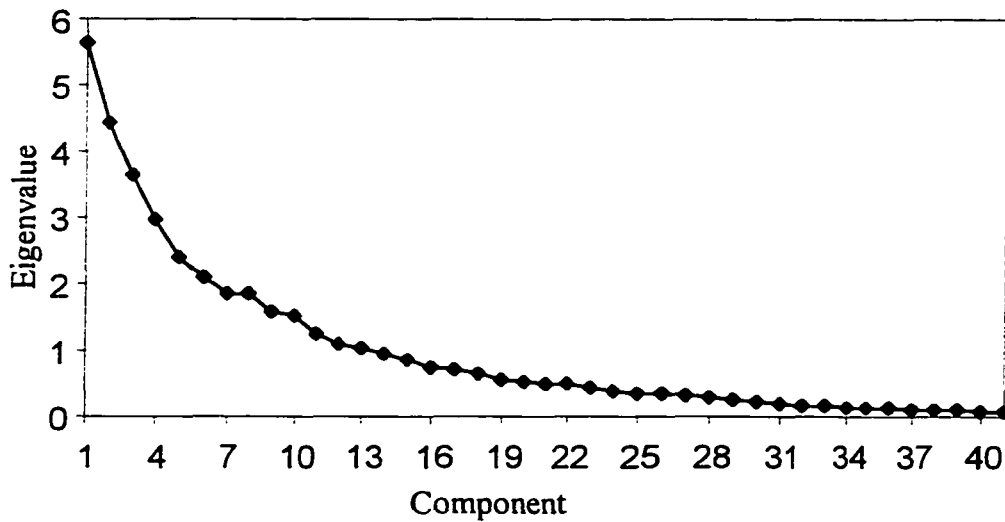


Table 13 reports the varimax rotated factor loadings, eigenvalues, and the percentage of variance accounted for by the ten factors that emerged from the manager sample. As indicated in the table, those items that load strongly on Factor I represent managers' perceptions that their tasks are intrinsically satisfying and provide them with feedback on their performance even though they perform the same types of activities everyday in their job, that the policies and rules of their organization are followed to the letter, and that they are indifferent to organizational rewards. The items that load on Factor II reflect managers' perceptions that they have the ability, experience, training and knowledge to perform their job and that they need support from staff members outside their work unit or department. Factor III mainly reflects managers' perceptions that they are professionally oriented. Factor IV reflects managers' perceptions that the members of their work group are cooperative and depend on each other. Factor V reflects that the managers perceive they have spatial distance with their subordinates when they perform



their job. Factor VI appears to reflect managers' perceptions that their tasks provide them with feedback on their task performance, that their organization is inflexible, and that they are dependent on their supervisor for organizational rewards. Factor VII reflects managers' perceptions that they perform unambiguous, routine, methodologically invariant tasks. Factor VIII reflects managers' perceptions that their organization is formalized. Factor IX reflects managers' perceptions that the members of their work group are cooperative and depend on each other. Factor X reflects managers' perceptions that they can do their job without help from others and make their own decisions.

From the eigenvalues and percentage of variance, Factor I accounts for approximately 13.8 percent of the total variance, and Factor II accounts for approximately 10.8 percent of the total variance. The last factor, the tenth factor, accounts for approximately 3.7 percent of the total variance. The ten factors together account for approximately 68.3 percent of the common variance in the 41 variables.

Table 13

Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings for the Leadership Substitutes Questionnaire

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
INSAT1	.880									
INSAT2	.846		.322							
INSAT3	.792									
AETK1		.889								
AETK2		.844								
AETK3		.759	.374							
PROF1			.821							
PROF2			.917							
PROF3	.313		.773							
COHES1				.792						
COHES2				.879						
COHES3				.867						
SPAT1					.666	.347				
SPAT2					.861					
SPAT3					.807					
INFLEX1						.667				
INFLEX2						.506				
INFLEX3	.431	.333	-.392							
INFLEX4										
ROUT1						.329	.734			
ROUT2	.300						.805			
ROUT3							.777			
FORM1								.715		
FORM2						.357		.733		
FORM3								.808		
FORM4		.381						.409		
ADVSTF1									.736	
ADVSTF2		.403							.545	
ADVSTF3		.367							.602	
NIND1										.560
NIND2										.704
NIND3										.833
NOCTRL1										
NOCTRL2						.578				
NOCTRL3										
INDIFF1					.401				-.463	
INDIFF2										
INDIFF3	-.332				.312					
TASKSFB1			.337			.400			.466	
TASKSFB2	.653					.412				
TASKSFB3						.626	.344			
Eigenvalue (before rotation)	5.648	4.412	3.628	2.960	2.386	2.090	1.954	1.858	1.570	1.515
% of Variance	13.77	10.76	8.85	7.22	5.82	5.10	4.77	4.53	3.83	3.69
Cumulative %	13.77	24.53	33.38	40.60	46.42	51.52	56.29	60.82	64.65	68.34

### Organizational Citizenship Behavior Measurement

Four factors were extracted from the scree plot shown in Figure 3. The last real factor, the fourth factor in this study, is considered to be the point before the first scree begins. The extracted factors were rotated by varimax orthogonal method to find a better solution.

**Figure 3.** Scree Plot for OCB

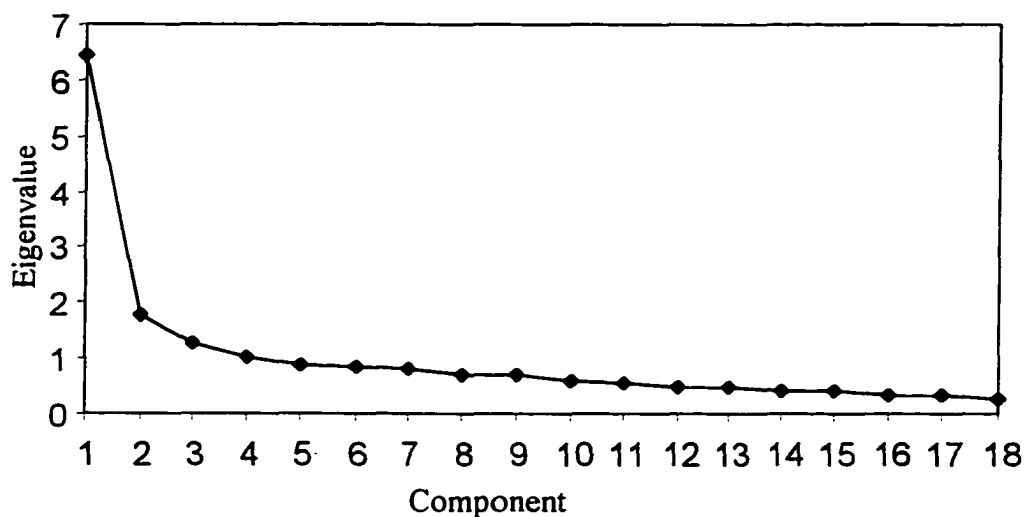


Table 14 reports the varimax rotated factor loadings, eigenvalues, and the percentage of variance accounted for by the four factors that emerged from the employee sample. As indicated in the table, those items that load strongly on Factor I reflect managers' perceptions that their employees are willing to devote efforts for their organization's development and help other members voluntarily. The items that load on Factor II reflect managers' perceptions that their employees make efforts to prevent work-related problems with others from occurring. Factor II also slightly reflects managers' perceptions that their employees help other members voluntarily. Thus,

altruism variables have loadings on two factors. Factor III reflects employees' behaviors that demonstrate tolerance in less than ideal situations without complaints. Factor IV reflects employees who are punctual and never take long lunches or breaks.

From the eigen values and percent of variance, Factor I accounts for approximately 35.8 percent of the total variance. Factor II and Factor III accounts for approximately 9.7 percent and 7 percent of the total variance, respectively. The last factor, the fourth factor, accounts for approximately 5.6 percent of the total variance. Taken together, these four factors were found to account for approximately 58.1 percent of the common variance in the items.

Table 14

Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings for the Employee OCB Questionnaire

	Factor I	Factor II	Factor III	Factor IV
CIVIC1	.209	.683	.052	-.223
CIVIC2	.565	.307	.243	.214
CIVIC3	.760	.118	.263	.094
CIVIC4	.771	.128	.066	.032
COURT1	.275	.628	.102	-.097
COURT2	.173	.709	.137	.265
COURT3	.304	.552	.210	.250
COURT4	.226	.646	.268	.223
ALT1	.544	.445	-.048	.004
ALT2	.607	.314	.042	.079
ALT3	.625	.444	.239	.152
SPORT1	.205	.011	.629	-.433
SPORT2	.193	.030	.797	.215
SPORT3	.027	.250	.757	.258
SPORT4	.107	.238	.737	.050
CONS1	.576	.300	.101	.198
CONS2	.170	.036	.172	.722
CONS3	.468	.101	.106	.549
Eigenvalue (Before Rotation)	6.442	1.749	1.257	1.016
Percentage of Variance	35.787	9.719	6.982	5.642
Cumulative Percentage of Variance	35.787	45.506	52.489	58.131

## Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliabilities of all the variables used in this study are reported in Table 15. An examination of this table indicates that the mean internal consistency reliability for the substitutes for leadership construct was .73 and that the reliabilities for all of the construct except for three (indifference toward organizational reward,  $\alpha = .36$ ; task provided feedback concerning accomplishment,  $\alpha = .53$ ; and organizational rewards outside the leader's control,  $\alpha = .47$ ) reported in this table meet or exceed Nunnally's (1978) recommended level of .70. The mean internal consistency reliability for the employee OCB construct was .72, and the reliabilities for all of the construct except one (conscientiousness,  $\alpha = .59$ ) meet or exceed Nunnally's (1978) recommended level of .70. The generally low reliabilities that were found in the Howell and Dorfman (1981) study left the researchers with two options. One was simply to discard any of the scales which did not meet a minimally acceptable reliability level (e.g., .70). The other option was to employ the scales in the study, but to recognize that the results that were obtained with them must be interpreted cautiously. Because of the exploratory nature of this study and because eliminating these scales would require dispensing with a fairly large amount of information which might be of interest to other researchers, the second option was chosen. However, the author recommended that additional refinement of these scales be attempted before they are used more extensively.

Table 15

Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients

Variables	Means	S.D.	Alpha
<i>Substitutes for Leadership</i>			
Ability, experience, training, knowledge	5.67	1.07	.88
Professional orientation	4.37	1.57	.88
Indifference toward organizational rewards	3.34	1.72	.36
Need for independence	4.79	1.59	.78
Task provided feedback concerning accomplishments	4.40	1.68	.77
Routine tasks	5.31	1.45	.53
Intrinsically satisfying task	5.21	1.39	.90
Organizational formalization	4.37	1.61	.78
Organizational inflexibility	4.71	1.37	.79
Advisory/staff support	5.67	1.13	.72
Cohesive group	5.78	.92	.86
Organizational rewards outside leader's control	3.83	1.76	.47
Spatial distance	3.64	1.81	.75
<i>Employee OCB</i>			
Altruism	4.93	1.30	.75
Conscientiousness	4.93	1.45	.59
Courtesy	5.07	1.28	.75
Sportsmanship	4.88	1.55	.76
Civic Virtue	5.01	1.29	.73

## Hypothesis Test

Ability, Experience, Training, and Knowledge (AETK)

Table 16 shows a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 16

Partial Correlation Coefficients between Ability, Experience, Training, Knowledge and OCB Dimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Ability,					
Experience,	.125	.082	.097	-.029	.090
Training,	(461)	(461)	(462)	(462)	(463)
Knowledge (AETK)	p = .007	p = .079	p = .037	p = .527	p = .052

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, PROF, INDIFF, NIND, ROUT, TASKFB, INSAT, FORM, INFLEX, ADVSTF, COHES, NOCTRL, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. The partial correlation coefficient between AETK and altruism is .125 and the observed significance level is .007. Hence, the partial correlation test suggests



that since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge were significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. The partial correlation coefficient between AETK and conscientiousness is .082, and the observed significance level is .079. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge were not significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. The partial correlation coefficient between AETK and courtesy is .097, and the observed significance level is .037. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge were significantly correlated with courtesy.

Sportsmanship. A negative linear correlation exists between AETK and sportsmanship when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient is -.029, and the observed significance level is .527. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significant level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge were not significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. The partial correlation coefficient between AETK and civic virtue is .090, and the observed significance level is .052. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significant level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge were not significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

#### Professional Orientation (PROF)

Table 17 reports a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, managers' professional orientation and each dependent variable (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 17

#### Partial Correlation Coefficients between Professional Orientation and OCB Dimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Professional Orientation (PROF)	-.028 (461) p = .554	-.043 (461) p = .358	-.094 (462) p = .043	-.095 (462) p = .040	.028 (463) p = .548

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, INDIFF, NIND, ROUT, TASKFB, INSAT, FORM, INFLEX, ADVSTF, COHES, NOCTRL, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. A negative linear correlation exists between PROF and altruism when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between PROF and altruism is  $-.028$ , and the observed significance level is  $.554$ . Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' professional orientation was not significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. A negative linear correlation exists between PROF and conscientiousness when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between PROF and conscientiousness is  $-.043$ , and the observed significance level is  $.358$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' professional orientation was not significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. A negative linear correlation exists between PROF and courtesy when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between PROF and courtesy is  $-.094$ , and the observed significance level is  $.043$ . Since the observed significance level is smaller than  $.05$  significant level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, managers' professional orientation was significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

**Sportsmanship.** A negative linear correlation exists between PROF and sportsmanship when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between PROF and sportsmanship is  $-.095$ , and the observed significance level is  $.040$ . Since the observed significance level is smaller than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is  $0$  was rejected. In other words, managers' professional orientation was significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

**Civic Virtue.** The partial correlation coefficient between PROF and civic virtue is  $.028$ , and the observed significance level is  $.548$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is  $0$  cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' professional orientation was not significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

#### **Indifference toward Organizational Rewards (INDIFF)**

Table 18 shows a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, managers' indifference toward organizational rewards, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 18

Partial Correlation Coefficients between Indifference toward Organizational Rewards and OCB Dimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Indifference toward Organizational Rewards (INDIFF)	-.051 (461) p = .274	-.103 (461) p = .026	-.063 (462) p = .174	-.147 (462) p = .002	-.069 (463) p = .138

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, PROF, NIND, ROUT, TASKFB, INSAT, FORM, INFLEX, ADVSTF, COHES, NOCTRL, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. A negative linear correlation exists between INDIFF and altruism when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between INDIFF and altruism is -.051, and the observed significance level is .274. Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' indifference toward organizational rewards was not significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. A negative linear correlation exists between INDIFF and conscientiousness when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between INDIFF and conscientiousness is

-.103, and the observed significance level is .026. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, managers' indifference toward organizational rewards was significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. A negative linear correlation exists between INDIFF and courtesy when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between INDIFF and courtesy is -.063, and the observed significance level is .174. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' indifference toward organizational rewards was not significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

Sportsmanship. A negative linear correlation exists between INDIFF and sportsmanship when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between INDIFF and sportsmanship is -.147, and the observed significance level is .002. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, managers' indifference toward organizational rewards was significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. A negative linear correlation exists between INDIFF and civic virtue when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between INDIFF and civic virtue is -.069, and the observed significance level is .138. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05

significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' indifference toward organizational rewards was not significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

#### Need for Independence (NIND)

Table 19 reports a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, managers' need for independence, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 19

#### Partial Correlation Coefficients between Need for Independence and OCB Dimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Need for Independence (NIND)	.012 (461) p = .799	.049 (461) p = .297	.013 (462) p = .787	-.021 (462) p = .659	.065 (463) p = .165

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, PROF, INDIFF, ROUT, TASKFB, INSAT, FORM, INFLEX, ADVSTF, COHES, NOCTRL, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. The partial correlation coefficient between NIND and altruism is .012, and the observed significance level is .799. Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null

hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' need for independence was not significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. The partial correlation coefficient between NIND and conscientiousness is .049, and the observed significance level is .297. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' need for independence was not significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. The partial correlation coefficient between NIND and courtesy is .013, and the observed significance level is .787. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significant level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' need for independence was not significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

Sportsmanship. A negative linear correlation exists between NIND and sportsmanship when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between NIND and sportsmanship is -.021, and the observed significance level is .659. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' need for independence was not significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. The partial correlation coefficient between NIND and civic virtue is .065, and the observed significance level is .165. Since the observed significance level is



greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, managers' need for independence was not significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

Task Feedback (TASKFB)

Table 20 shows a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, task feedback, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 20

Partial Correlation Coefficients between Task Feedback Concerning and OCB

Dimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Task	-.088	-.112	.027	-.054	-.013
Feedback	(461)	(461)	(462)	(462)	(463)
(TASKFB)	p = .057	p = .016	p = .567	p = .244	p = .775

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, PROF, INDIFF, NIND, ROUT, INSAT, FORM, INFLEX, ADVSTF, COHES, NOCTRL, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. A negative linear correlation exists between TASKFB and altruism when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between TASKFB and altruism is  $-.088$ , and the observed significance level is  $.057$ . Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is  $0$  cannot be rejected. In other words, task feedback was not significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. A negative linear correlation exists between TASKFB and conscientiousness when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between TASKFB and conscientiousness is  $-.112$ , and the observed significance level is  $.016$ . Since the observed significance level is smaller than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is  $0$  was rejected. In other words, task feedback was significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. The partial correlation coefficient between TASKFB and courtesy is  $.027$ , and the observed significance level is  $.567$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is  $0$  cannot be rejected. In other words, task feedback was not significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

Sportsmanship. A negative linear correlation exists between TASKFB and sportsmanship when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between TASKFB and sportsmanship is  $-.054$ , and the observed significance level is  $.244$ . Since the observed significance level is

greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, task feedback was not significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. A negative linear correlation exists between TASKFB and civic virtue when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between TASKFB and civic virtue is  $-.013$ , and the observed significance level is  $.775$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, task feedback was not significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

#### Routine Tasks (ROUT)

Table 21 shows a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, routine tasks, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 21

Partial Correlation Coefficients between Routine Tasks and OCB Dimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Routine Tasks (ROUT)	.084 (461) p = .072	.169 (461) p = .000	.123 (462) p = .008	.139 (462) p = .003	.104 (463) p = .024

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, PROF, INDIFF, NIND, TASKFB, INSAT, FORM, INFLEX, ADVSTF, COHES, NOCTRL, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. The partial correlation coefficient between ROUT and altruism is .084, and the observed significance level is .072. Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, routine tasks were not significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. The partial correlation coefficient between ROUT and conscientiousness is .169, and the observed significance level is .000. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, routine tasks were significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. The partial correlation coefficient between ROUT and courtesy is .123, and the observed significance level is .008. Since the observed significance level is

smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, routine tasks were significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

Sportsmanship. The partial correlation coefficient between ROUT and sportsmanship is .139, and the observed significance level is .003. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, routine tasks were significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. The partial correlation coefficient between ROUT and civic virtue is .104, and the observed significance level is .024. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, routine tasks were significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

#### Intrinsically Satisfying Tasks (INSAT)

Table 22 shows a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, intrinsically satisfying tasks, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 22

Partial Correlation Coefficients between Intrinsically Satisfying Tasks and OCBDimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Intrinsically Satisfying Tasks (INSAT)	-.074 (461) p = .112	.024 (461) p = .611	-.083 (462) p = .073	.078 (462) p = .093	-.027 (463) p = .561

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, PROF, INDIFF, NIND, ROUT, TASKFB, FORM, INFLEX, ADVSTF, COHES, NOCTRL, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. A negative linear correlation exists between INSAT and altruism when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between INSAT and altruism is -.074, and the observed significance level is .112. Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, intrinsically satisfying tasks were not significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. The partial correlation coefficient between INSAT and conscientiousness is .024, and the observed significance level is .611. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other

words, intrinsically satisfying tasks were not significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. A negative linear correlation exists between INSAT and courtesy when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between INSAT and courtesy is  $-.083$ , and the observed significance level is  $.073$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, intrinsically satisfying tasks were not significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

Sportsmanship. The partial correlation coefficient between INSAT and sportsmanship is  $.078$ , and the observed significance level is  $.093$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, intrinsically satisfying tasks were not significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. A negative linear correlation exists between INSAT and civic virtue when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between INSAT and civic virtue is  $-.027$ , and the observed significance level is  $.561$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, intrinsically satisfying tasks were not significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

### Organizational Formalization (FORM)

Table 23 shows a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, organizational formalization, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 23

#### Partial Correlation Coefficients between Organizational Formalization and OCB

##### Dimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Organizational Formalization (FORM)	.077 (461) p = .098	-.089 (461) p = .056	-.046 (462) p = .319	-.110 (462) p = .018	-.005 (463) p = .915

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, PROF, INDIFF, NIND, ROUT, TASKFB, INSAT, INFLEX, ADVSTF, COHES, NOCTRL, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. The partial correlation coefficient between FORM and altruism is .077, and the observed significance level is .098. Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be



rejected. In other words, organizational formalization was not significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. A negative linear correlation exists between FORM and conscientiousness when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between FORM and conscientiousness is  $-.089$ , and the observed significance level is  $.056$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, organizational formalization was not significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. A negative linear correlation exists between FORM and courtesy when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between FORM and courtesy is  $-.046$ , and the observed significance level is  $.319$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, organizational formalization was not significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

Sportsmanship. A negative linear correlation exists between FORM and sportsmanship when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between FORM and sportsmanship is  $-.110$ , and the observed significance level is  $.018$ . Since the observed significance level is smaller than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, organizational formalization was significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. A negative linear correlation exists between FORM and civic virtue when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between FORM and civic virtue is  $-.005$ , and the observed significance level is  $.915$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, organizational formalization was not significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

#### Organizational Inflexibility (INFLEX)

Table 24 shows a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, organizational inflexibility, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 24

Partial Correlation Coefficients between Organizational Inflexibility and OCBDimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Organizational Inflexibility (INFLEX)	-.003 (461) p = .941	.121 (461) p = .009	-.025 (462) p = .592	-.007 (462) p = .879	.082 (463) p = .076

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, PROF, INDIFF, NIND, ROUT, TASKFB, INSAT, FORM, ADVSTF, COHES, NOCTRL, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. A negative linear correlation exists between INFLEX and altruism when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between INFLEX and altruism is -.003, and the observed significance level is .941. Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, organizational inflexibility was not significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. The partial correlation coefficient between INFLEX and conscientiousness is .121, and the observed significance level is .009. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the

population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, organizational inflexibility was significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. A negative linear correlation exists between INFLEX and courtesy when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between INFLEX and courtesy is  $-.025$ , and the observed significance level is  $.592$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, organizational inflexibility was not significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

Sportsmanship. A negative linear correlation exists between INFLEX and sportsmanship when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between INFLEX and sportsmanship is  $-.007$ , and the observed significance level is  $.879$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, organizational inflexibility was not significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. The partial correlation coefficient between INFLEX and civic virtue is  $.082$ , and the observed significance level is  $.076$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, organizational inflexibility was not significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

Advisory / Staff Support (ADVSTF)

Table 25 shows a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, advisory/staff support, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 25

Partial Correlation Coefficients between Advisory/Staff Support and OCB Dimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Advisory/ Staff Support (ADVSTF)	.017 (461) p = .719	.158 (461) p = .001	-.011 (462) p = .806	.025 (462) p = .597	.080 (463) p = .086

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, PROF, INDIFF, NIND, ROUT, TASKFB, INSAT, FORM, INFLEX, COHES, NOCTRL, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. The partial correlation coefficient between ADVSTF and altruism is .017, and the observed significance level is .719. Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, advisory/staff support was not significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. The partial correlation coefficient between ADVSTF and conscientiousness is .158, and the observed significance level is .001. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, advisory/staff support was significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. A negative linear correlation exists between ADVSTF and courtesy when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between ADVSTF and courtesy is -.011, and the observed significance level is .806. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, advisory/staff support was not significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

Sportsmanship. The partial correlation coefficient between ADVSTF and sportsmanship is .025, and the observed significance level is .597. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, advisory/staff support was not significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. The partial correlation coefficient between ADVSTF and civic virtue is .080, and the observed significance level is .086. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, advisory/staff support was not significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

### Group Cohesiveness (COHES)

Table 26 shows a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, group cohesiveness, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 26

#### Partial Correlation Coefficients between Group Cohesiveness and OCB Dimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Group Cohesiveness (COHES)	.152 (461) p = .001	.032 (461) p = .498	.146 (462) p = .002	.108 (462) p = .020	.109 (463) p = .019

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, PROF, INDIFF, NIND, ROUT, TASKFB, INSAT, FORM, INFLEX, ADVSTF, NOCTRL, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. The partial correlation coefficient between COHES and altruism is .152, and the observed significance level is .001. Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, group cohesiveness was significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. The partial correlation coefficient between COHES and conscientiousness is .032, and the observed significance level is .498. Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, group cohesiveness was not significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. The partial correlation coefficient between COHES and courtesy is .146, and the observed significance level is .002. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, group cohesiveness was significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

Sportsmanship. The partial correlation coefficient between COHES and sportsmanship is .108, and the observed significance level is .020. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, group cohesiveness was significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. The partial correlation coefficient between COHES and civic virtue is .109, and the observed significance level is .019. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, group cohesiveness was significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.



Organizational Rewards Outside Leader's Control (NOCTRL)

Table 27 shows a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, organizational rewards outside leader's control, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 27

Partial Correlation Coefficients between Organizational Rewards Outside Leader's Control and OCB Dimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Organizational Rewards Outside Leader's Control (NOCTRL)	.010 (461) p = .836	-.118 (461) p = .011	-.066 (462) p = .158	-.024 (462) p = .612	-.039 (463) p = .407

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, PROF, INDIFF, NIND, ROUT, TASKFB, INSAT, FORM, INFLEX, ADVSTF, COHES, and SPAT. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. The partial correlation coefficient between NOCTRL and altruism is .010, and the observed significance level is .836. Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level,

the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, organizational rewards outside leader's control were not significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. A negative linear correlation exists between NOCTRL and conscientiousness when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between NOCTRL and conscientiousness is  $-.118$ , and the observed significance level is  $.011$ . Since the observed significance level is smaller than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, organizational rewards outside leader's control were significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. A negative linear correlation exists between NOCTRL and courtesy when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between NOCTRL and courtesy is  $-.066$ , and the observed significance level is  $.158$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, organizational rewards outside leader's control were not significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

Sportsmanship. A negative linear correlation exists between NOCTRL and sportsmanship when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between NOCTRL and sportsmanship is  $-.024$ , and the observed significance level is  $.612$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, organizational

rewards outside leader's control were not significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. A negative linear correlation exists between NOCTRL and civic virtue when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between NOCTRL and civic virtue is  $-.039$ , and the observed significance level is  $.407$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than  $.05$  significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is  $0$  cannot be rejected. In other words, organizational rewards outside leader's control were not significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

#### Spatial Distance (SPAT)

Table 28 shows a partial correlation matrix that summarizes the strength of the linear relationship between an independent variable, spatial distance, and each dependent variable of the five employee OCB dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are eliminated.

Table 28

Partial Correlation Coefficients between Spatial Distance and OCB Dimensions

	Altruism	Conscientiousness	Courtesy	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Spatial Distance (SPAT)	.114 (461) p = .014	.119 (461) p = .010	.008 (462) p = .872	-.050 (462) p = .287	.101 (463) p = .029

Notes: Partial correlation coefficient between the dependent variable and independent variable was measured while controlling the effects of the other twelve independent variables, AETK, PROF, INDIFF, NIND, ROUT, TASKFB, INSAT, FORM, INFLEX, ADVSTF, COHES, and NOCTRL. Each row shows the coefficient, degree of freedom, and two-tailed significance, respectively.

Altruism. The partial correlation coefficient between SPAT and altruism is .114, and the observed significance level is .014. Hence, the partial correlation test suggests that since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, spatial distance was significantly correlated with employee altruism.

Conscientiousness. The partial correlation coefficient between SPAT and conscientiousness is .119, and the observed significance level is .010. Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, spatial distance was significantly correlated with employee conscientiousness.

Courtesy. The partial correlation coefficient between SPAT and courtesy is .008, and the observed significance level is .872. Since the observed significance level is

greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, spatial distance was not significantly correlated with employee courtesy.

Sportsmanship. A negative linear correlation exists between SPAT and sportsmanship when the linear effects of the other twelve independent variables are removed. The partial correlation coefficient between SPAT and sportsmanship is  $-.050$ , and the observed significance level is  $.287$ . Since the observed significance level is greater than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 cannot be rejected. In other words, spatial distance was not significantly correlated with employee sportsmanship.

Civic Virtue. The partial correlation coefficient between SPAT and civic virtue is  $.101$ , and the observed significance level is  $.029$ . Since the observed significance level is smaller than .05 significance level, the null hypothesis that the population value for the partial correlation coefficient is 0 was rejected. In other words, spatial distance was significantly correlated with employee civic virtue.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Introduction

The final chapter consists of five parts. In the first part of the chapter, the study findings are summarized with the suggestions of the data analysis results. In the following part, conclusions are drawn based on the empirical findings. Next, implications of the research findings are presented in the light of previous leadership studies in the hospitality industry. Discussion of the limitations of the present study and suggestions for future research directions are presented in the final part of the chapter.

#### Summary of Findings

The primary purpose of this study was to identify the situational variables that may influence the effects of Korean hotel managers' leadership on employee organizational citizenship behaviors. In regard to this purpose, four research objectives were addressed:

- to identify what dimensions of the situational variables have positive or functional effects on employee OCB, substituting for managers' leadership on employee OCB.

- to identify what dimensions of the situational variables have negative or dysfunctional effects on the managers' leadership on employee OCB, enhancing managers' leadership on employee OCB.
- to identify what dimensions of employee OCB is positively or functionally affected by the situational variables.
- to identify what dimensions of employee OCB is negatively or dysfunctionally affected by the situational variables.

In order to accomplish the research purpose and objectives, thirteen hypotheses were established. The thirteen hypotheses were tested by the partial correlation coefficient test in multiple regression, the procedure for the examination of the individual correlations between dependent variable and independent variable.

#### Individual Effects of the Situational Variables on Employee OCB

The results of the data analysis indicated that all of the situational variables except need for independence and intrinsically satisfying tasks have significantly correlated with at least one dimension of employee OCB. Of the thirteen situational variables, routine tasks and group cohesiveness were found to have the greatest number of significant effects (with four OCB dimensions), followed by spatial distance (with three OCB dimensions). This result is partially consistent with Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer's study (1996) in that routine tasks have the greatest number of effects. However, all the routine tasks in this study were found to be positively correlated with the criterion variables unlikely in the Podsakoff et al.'s study (1996). Podsakoff et al.

(1996) found that routine tasks were negatively correlated with employee OCB dimensions.

Of the eleven significantly correlating situational variables, six situational variables, ability, experience, training and knowledge, routine tasks, organizational inflexibility, advisory/staff support, group cohesiveness, and spatial distance, were found to generally have positive, or functional effects to one or more employee OCB dimensions. More specifically, managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge were found to be positively correlated with employee altruism and courtesy. This result suggests that under managers who have more ability, experience, training, and knowledge, employees are more likely to be altruistic or courteous to their peers than those who face the opposite condition. As mentioned above, routine tasks tended to have positive correlations with all of the employee OCB dimensions except employee altruism; whereas group cohesiveness also had positive correlations with all OCB dimensions except employee conscientiousness. The results suggest that employees who perform routine tasks tend to be more conscientious or courteous to their peers, as well as exhibit sportsmanship or civic virtue. The results also suggest that employees who belong to more cohesive groups are more likely to be altruistic or courteous, or engage in sportsmanship behaviors or civic virtue behaviors than those employees who belong to less cohesive groups. Both organizational inflexibility and advisory/staff support were found to have positive, or functional, effects on employee conscientiousness by having positive correlations with the criterion variable. The results suggest that employees who work in an inflexible organization or receive advisory and staff support tend to be more conscientious than those who face the opposite conditions. In addition, spatial distance



was found to be positively, or functionally, correlated with employee altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. The result suggests that as spatial distance between employees and their superior increases, employees are more likely to be altruistic or conscientious as well as exhibit sportsmanship or civic virtue behaviors.

On the other hand, five situational variables out of the eleven significantly correlating situational variables, professional orientation, indifference toward organizational rewards, task feedback, organizational formalization, and organizational rewards outside leader's control, were found to generally have negative, or dysfunctional, effects on employee OCB dimensions. More specifically, professional orientation was negative, or dysfunctional, to courtesy and sportsmanship dimension of employee OCB. The result suggests that employees are less likely to be courteous or exhibit sportsmanship under professionally oriented managers. Indifference toward organizational rewards was found to be negative, or dysfunctional, to employee conscientiousness and sportsmanship. The result suggests that when managers value organizational rewards, their employees are more conscientious or exhibit more sportsmanship. This result was consistent with the Podsakoff et al.'s study (1996). Both task feedback and organizational rewards outside leader's control have negative, or dysfunctional, effects on employee conscientiousness. These results suggest that employees who receive feedback from their tasks or perceive that their leader does not control organizational rewards tend to be less conscientious than those who do not. Additionally, organizational formalization tended to be negative to employee sportsmanship. The result suggests that the more formalized the organization, the less employees exhibit sportsmanship. All these findings are summarized in Table 29.

Table 29

**Summary of Significant Correlations of the Situational Variables with Employee OCB****Dimensions**

<b>Situational Variable</b>	<b>OCB Dimension</b>	<b>Correlation</b>
<b>Ability, Experience, Training, and Knowledge (AETK)</b>	<b>Altruism</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
	<b>Courtesy</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
<b>Professional Orientation (PROF)</b>	<b>Courtesy</b>	<b>Negative (Dysfunctional)</b>
	<b>Sportsmanship</b>	<b>Negative (Dysfunctional)</b>
<b>Indifference toward Organizational Rewards (INDIFF)</b>	<b>Conscientiousness</b>	<b>Negative (Dysfunctional)</b>
	<b>Sportsmanship</b>	<b>Negative (Dysfunctional)</b>
<b>Need for Independence (NIND)</b>	<b>No Correlation</b>	<b>No Correlation</b>
<b>Task Feedback (TASKFB)</b>	<b>Conscientiousness</b>	<b>Negative (Dysfunctional)</b>
<b>Routine Tasks (ROUT)</b>	<b>Conscientiousness</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
	<b>Courtesy</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
	<b>Sportsmanship</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
	<b>Civic Virtue</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
<b>Intrinsically Satisfying Task (INSAT)</b>	<b>No Correlation</b>	<b>No Correlation</b>
<b>Organizational Formalization (FORM)</b>	<b>Sportsmanship</b>	<b>Negative (Dysfunctional)</b>
<b>Organizational Inflexibility (INFLEX)</b>	<b>Conscientiousness</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
<b>Advisory/Staff Support (ADVSTF)</b>	<b>Conscientiousness</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
<b>Group Cohesiveness (COHES)</b>	<b>Altruism</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
	<b>Courtesy</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
	<b>Sportsmanship</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
	<b>Civic Virtue</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
<b>Organizational Rewards Outside Leader's Control (NOCTRL)</b>	<b>Conscientiousness</b>	<b>Negative (Dysfunctional)</b>
<b>Spatial Distance (SPAT)</b>	<b>Altruism</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
	<b>Conscientiousness</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>
	<b>Civic Virtue</b>	<b>Positive (Functional)</b>

### Aggregate Effects of the Situational Variables on Employee OCB Dimensions

Altruism was found to be significantly correlated with managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge, group cohesiveness, and spatial distance. All these correlations were positive, and thus it is suggested that employees whose manager has more ability, experience, training, and knowledge, who work in a more closely-knit and cohesive group, or who are spatially removed from their superior are more altruistic than those who face the opposite conditions. In contrast to Podsakoff et al.'s study (1996), that indicated that the most of correlating situational variables were negatively correlated with employee altruism, these results show that all three correlating situational variables were positively correlated with this criterion variable.

Conscientiousness was found to be a dimension that has the greatest number of correlations with the situational variables. Seven situational variables tended to have either positive or negative correlations with the criterion variable. Of the seven situational variables, indifference toward organizational rewards, task feedback and organizational rewards outside leader's control have negative, dysfunctional correlations with conscientiousness; while routine tasks, organizational inflexibility, advisory/staff support, and spatial distance have positive, functional correlations. According to Podsakoff et al. (1996), conscientiousness generally has negative correlations with the situational variables. However, the results of this study indicate that conscientiousness may be positively correlated with the situational variables.

Taken together, the results suggest that employees who perform routine tasks, work in an inflexible organization, receive advisory and staff support, or are spatially removed from their superior tend to be more conscientious than employees who perform

less routine tasks, work in a flexible organization, receive little advisory and staff support, or are spatially close to their superior; while employees whose manager does not value organizational rewards and control organizational rewards, or who receive task feedback are less conscientious than peers who face the opposite conditions.

Courtesy was found to have significant correlations with four situational variables: managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge, managers' professional orientation, routine tasks, and group cohesiveness. All of these situational variables except professional orientation were positively correlated with employee courtesy. The results suggest that employees whose manager possesses more ability, experience, training, and knowledge, and is less professionally oriented, or who perform routine tasks in cohesive groups tend to be more courteous to their peers than employees who face the opposite conditions.

Sportsmanship was found to have significant correlations with managers' professional orientation, managers' indifference toward organizational rewards, routine tasks, organizational formalization, and group cohesiveness. Both routine tasks and group cohesiveness were positively correlated with employee sportsmanship; while managers' professional orientation, indifference toward organizational rewards, and organizational formalization were negatively correlated with this criterion variable. These results suggest that employees whose manager is less professionally oriented and values organizational rewards, as well as those employees who perform routine tasks, or work in cohesive groups or formalized organizations, are more likely to exhibit sportsmanship than employees who face the opposite conditions.

Civic virtue was found to have all positive correlations with routine tasks, group cohesiveness, and spatial distance. Employees who perform routine tasks, work in cohesive groups, or are removed from their superiors tended to engage in civic virtue more than those employees who face the opposite conditions. All these findings are summarized in Table 30.

Table 30

**Summary of Significant Correlations of the Employee OCB Dimensions with the Correlating Situational Variables**

OCB Dimension	Situational Variables	Correlation
Altruism	Manager's ability, experience, training, knowledge	Positive
	Group cohesiveness	Positive
	Spatial distance	Positive
Conscientiousness	Manager's indifference to organizational rewards	Negative
	Task feedback	Negative
	Organizational rewards outside leader's control	Negative
	Routine tasks	Positive
	Organizational inflexibility	Positive
	Advisory/staff support	Positive
	Spatial distance	Positive
Courtesy	Manager's professional orientation	Negative
	Manager's ability, experience, training, knowledge	Positive
	Routine tasks	Positive
	Group cohesiveness	Positive
Sportsmanship	Manager's professional orientation	Negative
	Manager's indifference to organizational rewards	Negative
	Organizational formalization	Negative
	Routine tasks	Positive
	Group cohesiveness	Positive
Civic Virtue	Routine tasks	Positive
	Group cohesiveness	Positive
	Spatial distance	Positive

## Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn with regard to the hypotheses of this study:

**Ha 1:** Managers' ability, experience, training and knowledge will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge have a significant, positive correlation with employee altruism and courtesy, and thus substitute for leadership on employee altruism and courtesy. No other significant correlations were found with any other employee OCB dimensions.

**Ha 2:** Managers' professional orientation will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Managers' professional orientation has a significant, negative correlation with employee courtesy and sportsmanship, and thus enhances managers' leadership on employee courtesy and sportsmanship. No other significant correlations were found with any other employee OCB dimensions.

**Ha 3:** Managers' indifference toward organizational reward will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Managers' indifference toward organizational rewards has a significant, negative correlation with employee conscientiousness and sportsmanship, and thus enhances managers' leadership on employee conscientiousness and

sportsmanship. No other significant correlations were found with any other employee OCB dimensions.

- Ha 4: Managers' need for independence will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

No significant correlation was found with any employee OCB dimensions.

- Ha 5: Routine tasks will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Routine tasks have a significant, positive correlation with employee conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue, and thus substitute for managers' leadership on employee conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. No correlation was found with employee altruism.

- Ha 6: Task feedback will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Task feedback has a significant, negative correlation with employee conscientiousness, and thus enhances managers' leadership on employee conscientiousness. No other significant correlations were found with any other employee OCB dimensions.

**Ha 7:** Intrinsically satisfying task will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

No significant correlation was found with any employee OCB dimensions.

**Ha 8:** Organizational formalization will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Organizational formalization has a significant, negative correlation with employee sportsmanship, and thus enhances managers' leadership on employee sportsmanship. No other significant correlations were found with any other employee OCB dimensions.

**Ha 9:** Organizational inflexibility will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Organizational inflexibility has a significant, positive correlation with employee conscientiousness, and thus substitutes for managers' leadership on employee conscientiousness. No other significant correlations were found with any other employee OCB dimensions.

**Ha 10:** Amount of advisory/staff support will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Advisory/staff support has a significant, positive correlation with employee conscientiousness, and thus substitutes for managers' leadership on employee



conscientiousness. No other significant correlations were found with any other employee OCB dimensions.

**Ha 11:** Group cohesiveness will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Group cohesiveness has a significant, positive correlation with employee altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue, and thus substitutes for managers' leadership on employee altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. No significant correlation was found with employee conscientiousness.

**Ha 12:** Organizational rewards outside leader's control will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Organizational rewards outside leader's control have a significant, negative correlation with employee conscientiousness, and thus enhance managers' leadership on employee conscientiousness. No other significant correlations were found with any other employee OCB dimensions.

**Ha 13:** Spatial distance between supervisors and subordinates will influence the manager's leadership on employee OCB by having a correlation with the altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue dimension of employee OCB ( $\beta \neq 0$ ).

Spatial distance has a significant, positive correlation with employee altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue, and thus substitutes for managers'

leadership on employee altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. No significant correlation was found with employee courtesy.

Additional conclusions were drawn in regard to the objectives of the study:

1. Employee altruism is significantly, positively correlated with managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge, group cohesiveness, and spatial distance, so when those situational variables are encouraged, employee altruism will be enhanced.
2. Employee conscientiousness is significantly, positively correlated with routine tasks, organizational inflexibility, advisory/staff support, and spatial distance, so when those situational variables are encouraged, employee conscientiousness will be enhanced. However, since employee conscientiousness is significantly, negatively correlated with managers' indifference toward organizational rewards, task feedback, and organizational rewards outside leader's control, managers' leadership is necessary for employee conscientiousness when those situational variables influence.
3. Employee courtesy is significantly, positively correlated with managers' ability, experience, training, and knowledge, routine tasks, and group cohesiveness, so when those situational variables are encouraged, employee courtesy will be enhanced. However, since employee courtesy is significantly, negatively correlated with managers' professional

orientation, managers' leadership is necessary for employee courtesy when those situational variables influence.

4. Employee sportsmanship is significantly, positively correlated with routine tasks and group cohesiveness, so when those situational variables are encouraged, employee sportsmanship will be enhanced. However, employee sportsmanship is significantly, negatively correlated with managers' professional orientation, managers' indifference toward organizational rewards, and organizational formalization, managers' leadership is necessary for employee sportsmanship when those situational variables influence.
5. Employee civic virtue is significantly, positively correlated with routine tasks, group cohesiveness, and spatial distance, so when those situational variables are encouraged, employee civic virtue will be enhanced.

### Implications

In the hospitality industry, prior studies (cf. Cichy, Sciarini and Patton, 1992; Hinkin and Tracey, 1994 and 1996; Keegan, 1983; Walker and Braunlich, 1996; and Worsfold, 1989) have tended to find a manager's ideal leadership and its individual impact on subordinate criterion variables in isolation from other situational factors (Childers, Dubinsky, and Skinner, 1990). Moreover, much of the prior studies on situational variables have treated these as if all the situational variables operate in the same fashion across the subordinate criterion variables (Howell, Dorfman, and Kerr, 1986). Those tendencies have yielded equivocal and/or conflicting results (Downey, Sheridan, and Slocum, 1976; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer, 1996; Schriesheim

and Schriesheim, 1980), and as a result practitioners have experienced great difficulties in attempting to apply leadership theories (Howell, Dorfman, and Kerr, 1986).

The present study supports the hypothesized notion that there exist situational variables around a manager's leadership and those situational variables influence the effect of a manager's leadership on employee OCB by having either positive or negative correlations with employee OCB dimensions. In other words, the characteristics of a manager, task, and organization may play a role as either substitute or enhancer of a manager's leadership for employee OCB. The leadership substitutes, such as group cohesiveness and spatial distance in this study, for example, play a role as supplements of a manager's leadership on employee OCB by having functional, or positive, correlations with employee OCB dimensions. Hence, it is suggested that when those functional, positive situational variables operate in concert with a manager's leadership, employee OCB can be augmented even more than a manager's leadership operating alone. That is, leadership substitutes (i.e., functional or positive situational variables) can be used to supplement a manager's leadership rather than only to replace a manager's leadership. On the other hand, the leadership enhancers, such as organizational rewards outside leader's control in this study, for example, play a role that increase the need of a manager's leadership by having dysfunctional, or negative, correlations with employee OCB dimensions. Hence, it is suggested that when a dysfunctional, or negative, situational variable influences employee OCB, a manager's leadership should be enhanced, or made stronger, on employee OCB. For example, substantial leader power can enhance the impact of a leader's behavior on subordinates, especially if the subordinates perceive rewards to be contingent upon their behavior or performance.

Based on the discussion above, the findings of the present study provide implications that managers need to have an ability to properly consider, understand, and assess the situations so that they can exert their leadership more effectively and efficiently based on the appropriate situation, rather than emphasizing sole leadership and ignoring the situation. Additionally, the findings of this study imply that the manager should be proactive by creating leadership substitutes and increasing their strength as well as identifying them.

### Limitations

This study has three limitations regarding sampling, respondents, and instruments. First, the ideal sample for this study is a group of managers and their subordinates from all deluxe business hotels in Korea. Such a sample would provide more accurate response from different perspectives. However, due to the limitation in access to the hotels and in financial resources and time, the sample of this study is limited to the managers and their subordinates working for business hotels in the area of Seoul, the capital city of Korea. The responses from this sample and the outcome of this study may not be generalized to the whole population of managers and their subordinates working for deluxe business hotels in Korea.

Second, respondents' honesty and biases posed a constraint on this study. Even though anonymity of respondents and confidentiality of response was promised in the beginning of the survey instrument, the respondents could still feel that his or her responses might be traced or released, thus having a potential for a less than honest response. Also, a respondent's positive feelings or negative feelings toward a certain subordinate may produce a halo effect in rating the subordinate's organizational

citizenship behaviors. Additionally, a respondent's responses may be influenced either positively or negatively by his or her most recent incidents.

Third, the instrument presented to respondents had to be translated into the Korean language, with examples for a respondent's accurate understanding. Every single word could not be translated because of a shade of difference in expression; however, the meaning of the original information was not lost in translation through verification by a professor who teaches business administration at a college in Seoul, Korea.

### Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of this study suggest that leaders need to have a better understanding of those situational variables that influence employee OCB, and how to influence these situational variables. An examination of the results of this study, when taken together with the findings reported previously by Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer (1996), Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie and Williams (1993), and Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Fetter (1993), suggests that two situational variables that may be particularly good candidates in this regard include routine tasks and group cohesiveness, because these situational variables generally have had several effects across all four of these studies. Thus, future research should focus additional attention on the effects of these situational variables, as well as the things that leaders can do to influence them.

Also, as early work on the subject of the situational variables as substitutes for leadership in the general non-hospitality industry suggested, the results of this study strongly suggest that situational variables as substitutes for leadership may influence not only employee OCB but also other criterion variables such as employee satisfaction, perceptions in-role performance, and/or organizational commitment. Hence, it is

recommended that future study ought to empirically investigate those relationships in the hospitality industry.

In addition, this study investigated individual effects of the situational variables on employee OCB. Thirteen leadership substitutes and five OCB dimensions that are respectively believed to represent the situational variables and employee OCB throughout the literature were used in this study. An attempt might be made to identify the effect of additional leadership substitutes on additional OCB dimensions. Also, it is believed that a variety of leader behaviors also has an impact on employee OCB (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer, 1996; and Fetter, 1993; and Williams and Niehoff, 1993). Hence, it is recommended that future research examine the aggregate effects of the set of leader behaviors and leadership substitutes on employee OCB to determine which groups of predictor variables have the greatest effects on the dependent variable.

Finally, this study was spatially delimited to deluxe business hotels located in Seoul, Korea for some methodological reasons. However, it is the author's belief that the situational variables may vary in different classes of hotels, different types of hotels, or different localities. Therefore, it is recommended that future research broaden the spatial range of the study to determine the differences of the situational variables, according to the class of a hotel, the type of a hotel and the locality.

## **APPENDIX I**

### **Questionnaire I: 41-Item Situational Variable Measurement**



# QUESTIONNAIRE I

**I would like to ask you some questions about your job and your attitudes towards the organization you work. Please read each statement carefully and circle the most appropriate number. Your answer will remain confidential and information about you will not be identified in any way.**

	Strongly Disagree							Strongly agree
1. I have ability, experience, training, and job knowledge to act independent of my immediate supervisor in performing my duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. I cannot get very enthused about the rewards offered in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. My job does not change much from one day to the next.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. I get a great deal of personal satisfaction from the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. In my job, I work closely with staff personnel who are based outside my work unit or department.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. This organization offers attractive opportunities to its employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. I like the tasks that I perform at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. In this organization, violations of rules and procedures are not tolerated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. My chances for a pay raise depends on my immediate supervisor's recommendation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. When I have a problem I like to think it through myself without help from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. I have all the required ability and experience to be my own boss on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. I am a member of a professional group whose standards and values guide me in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13. My job responsibilities are clearly specified in writing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14. I often need to obtain information, data, and reports, from other staff members outside my department to complete my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
15. The members of my work group are cooperative with each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
16. On my job my most important tasks take place away from where my immediate supervisor is located.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
17. My job is personally very rewarding.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
18. In this organization anytime there is a policy in writing that fits some situation, everybody has to follow that policy very strictly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
19. Support from staff personnel outside my department is critical to success in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
20. My work group members know that they can depend on each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
21. I am dependent on my immediate supervisor for important organizational rewards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
22. This organization takes a relaxed approach to rules and policies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
23. It is important for me to be able to feel that I can do my job without depending on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
24. Most of the work I do in my job is somewhat repetitive in nature.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
25. The members of my work group stand up for each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

**Please continue to the next page.**

	Strongly DISagree						Strongly agree
26. My immediate supervisor's recommendation is necessary for me to be promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I have enough training and job knowledge to handle most situations that I face in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I am a member of a professional association with which I strongly identify.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. My duties, authority, and accountability are documented in policies, procedures, or job descriptions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. My immediate supervisor and I are seldom in actual contact or direct sight of one another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I don't feel that the rewards I receive in this organization are worth very much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. My job provides me with feedback on how well I am doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I am a member of a professional association which has a code of ethics that I believe is important to follow.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. I perform the same types of activities every day in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Written schedules, programs, and work specifications are available to guide me in my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. My supervisor and I seldom work in the same area.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. My job provides me with the feelings that I know whether I am performing well or poorly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. The policies and rules in this organization are followed to the letter.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. I prefer to solve my work problems by myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. My job provides me with the opportunity to find out how well I am performing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. Written rules and guidelines do not exist to direct my work efforts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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

1. Respondent's gender  
 Male     Female
  
2. Respondent's age  
 Under 25     Between 26 – 30     Between 41 – 45  
 Between 36 – 40     Between 41 – 45     Between 46 – 50  
 Between 51 – 55     Over 56
  
3. Respondent's marital Status  
 Single     Married     Separated     Widowed     Divorced
  
4. Respondent's education  
 Some High School     High School Graduate     2-Year College  
 4-Year College     Post Graduate

**Please continue to the next page.**

5. How long have you been employed at this hotel?  
[ ] Less Than 1 Year [ ] 1 – 3 Years [ ] 4 – 6 Years  
[ ] 7 – 9 Years [ ] More Than 10 Years
6. How long have you been employed as a supervisor?  
[ ] Less Than 1 Year [ ] 1 – 3 Years [ ] 4 – 6 Years  
[ ] 7 – 9 Years [ ] More Than 10 Years
7. In which department do you work? [ ]
8. What is your position? [ ]

**End of Questionnaire I**

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

## APPENDIX II

### Questionnaire II: Employee OCB Measurement

## QUESTIONNAIRE II

I am interested in your personal opinions regarding your subordinates' organizational citizenship behaviors. Please read the steps below prior to answering questions. Your answers will remain *confidential* and information on you and your subordinates will not be identified in any way.

Step 1: Place the *first name* of the subordinate you evaluate in the blank beside "This employee."

Step 2: Read each statement carefully and circle the most appropriate number that most accurately describes the subordinate being rated.

This employee ( \_\_\_\_\_ ):

	Strongly DISagree						Strongly agree
1. adequately completes assigned duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. fulfills responsibilities specified in his/her job description.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. fails to meet formal performance requirements of the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. willingly gives of his/her time to help others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. obeys company rules, regulations and procedures even when no one is watching.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. constantly talks about wanting to quit his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. informs me before taking any important actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. attends and participates in meetings regarding the department.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. takes steps to prevent problems with other cast members.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. never takes long lunches or breaks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. tends to make "mountains out of molehills" (makes problems bigger than they are).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. helps orient new cast members even though it is not required.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. always focuses on what's wrong with his/her situation, rather than the positive side of it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. is always punctual.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. consults with me or other individuals who might be affected by his/her actions or decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. does not abuse the rights of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. reads and keeps up with departmental/hotel announcements, messages, memos, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. is always ready to help or to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. "keep up" with developments in the department.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. attends functions that are not required but help the department/hotel images.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please continue to the next page.



## APPENDIX III

### Cover Letter

## COVER LETTER

Dear Respondents:

I am a graduate student in the William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas, USA. I am currently writing my thesis regarding the leadership situational variables and employees' organizational citizenship behaviors. The purpose of the thesis is to identify the situational variables as substitutes for leadership of the hotel managers working for Korean deluxe business hotels and to examine its impact on employee organizational citizenship behaviors. This purpose of the study will be achieved by both the review of literature and empirical survey.

As a respondent of the survey, your responses on this issue are very valuable to this study. The attached questionnaire is directed towards gathering information concerning the characteristics of you, your tasks, your organization, and your subordinates' behaviors. All your responses will be kept confidential and used research purpose only. Also, information on you and your employees will not be identified in any way. Participation in this survey is voluntary and you may withdraw from participation at any time.

The result of this study will provide the hotel industry with new human resources insights and strategies. If you would like to have a copy of the study results, please indicate so. I will be pleased to send a copy of the result.

I appreciate for your time and effort in participation of this survey. If you have any question regarding this study, please feel free to contact me at 702-898-7057 or the research advisor, Dr. Michael J. Petrillose at 702-895-0802. In addition, if you need any information regarding the rights of research subjects, please contact the Office of Sponsored Programs at 702-898-1357.

Sincerely,

Jung Hoon Lee  
Graduate Researcher

Michael J. Petrillose, Ph.D.  
Research Advisor  
Assistant Professor



## **APPENDIX IV**

### **Human Subject Protocol**

DATE: September 5, 1997

TO: Jung Hoon Lee  
M/S 6021 (HTLM)

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

RE: Status of Human Subject Protocol Entitled:  
"Empirical Analysis of the Situational Variables  
and Their Impact on Managers' Leadership for  
Employee Organizational Citizenship Behaviors in  
Korean Hotels"

OSP #604s0997-070e

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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: M. Petrillose (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

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**VITA**

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

**Jung Hoon Lee**

**Local Address:**

**3229 E. Flamingo Rd. #205  
Las Vegas, NV 89121**

**Home Address:**

**111-1204 Hyundai Apt. Apkujung,  
Kang Nam, Seoul, Korea**

**Degrees:**

**Bachelor of Arts, Spanish, 1992  
Hankook University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, Korea**

**Bachelor of Business Administration, Marketing, 1993  
Hankook University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, Korea**

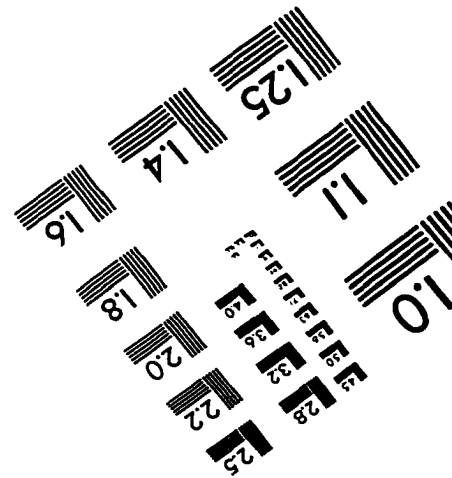
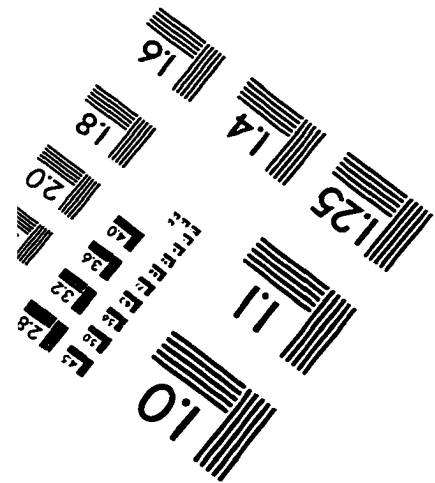
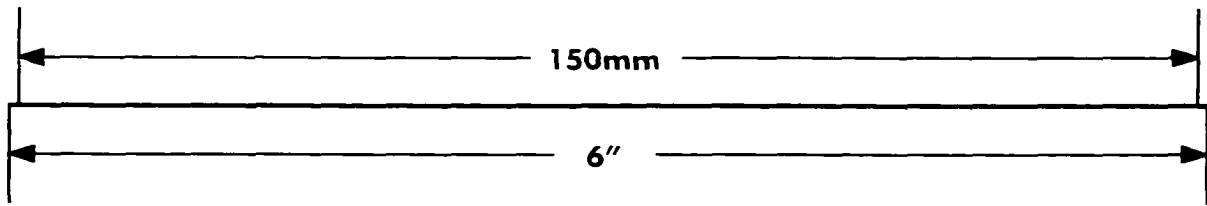
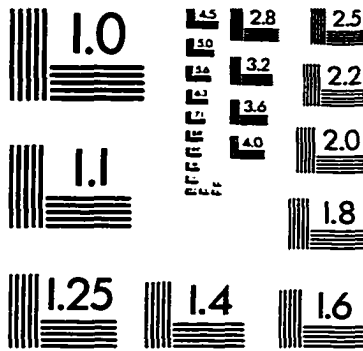
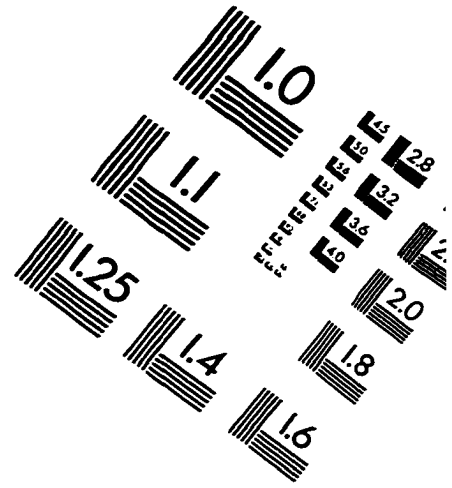
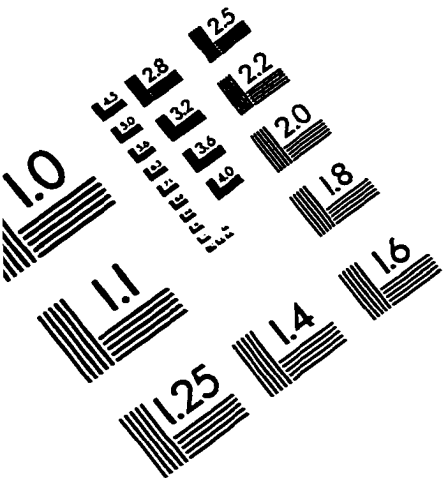
**Thesis Title:**

**Empirical Analysis of the Situational Variables and Their Impact on a Manager's  
Leadership in Influencing Employee Organizational Citizenship behaviors in  
Korean Hotels**

**Thesis Examination Committee:**

**Chairperson, Michael J. Petrillose, Ph. D.  
Committee Member, Pearl Brewer, Ph. D.  
Committee Member, Stowe Shoemaker, Ph. D.  
Graduate Faculty Representative, Anthony M. Townsend, Ph. D.**

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