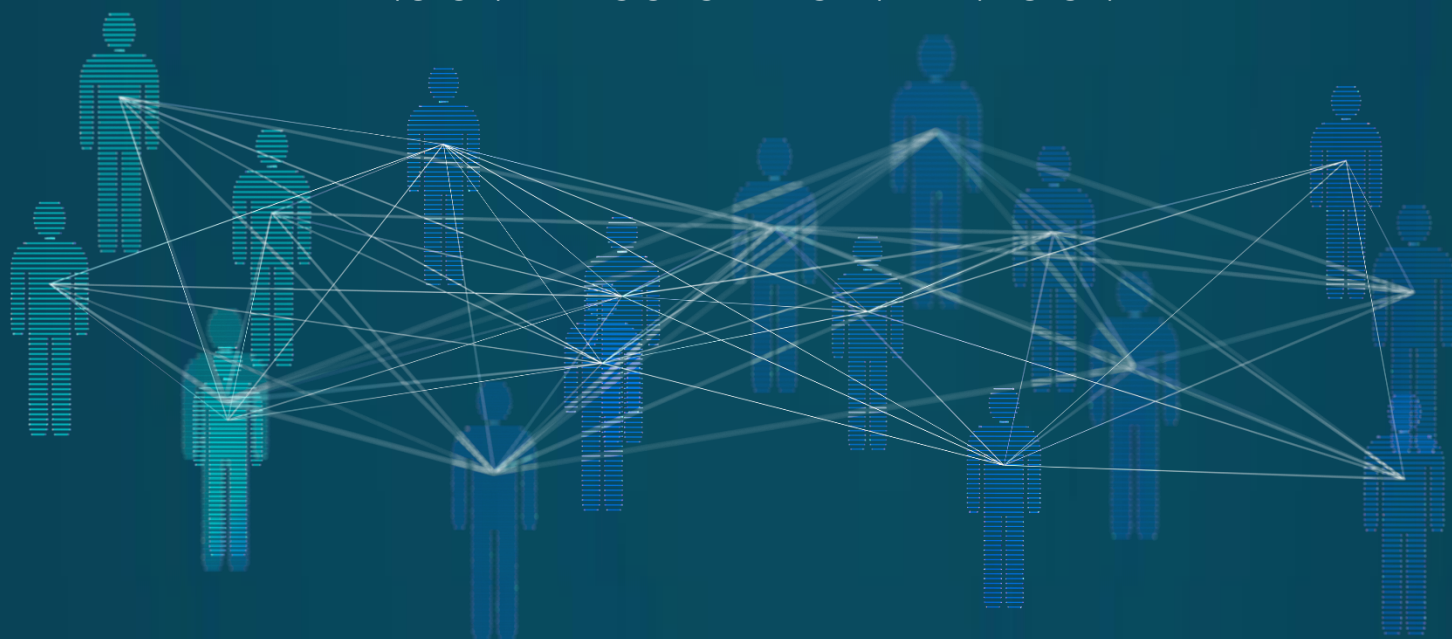




UNIVERSIDAD
DE GRANADA

Facultad de Ciencias Económicas y Empresariales
Departamento de Organización de Empresas I
Programa de Doctorado en Ciencias Económicas y Empresariales

TESIS DOCTORAL
ESSAYS ON HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
IN TOURISM ORGANIZATIONS
MENCIÓN DE DOCTORADO INTERNACIONAL



Tesis doctoral presentada por:
Silvia Elisa Rescalvo Martín

Dirigida por:
Prof. Dr. Francisco Javier Llorens Montes
Prof. Dr. Leopoldo José Gutiérrez Gutiérrez

Granada, 2023

*“...y lo que me hace levantarme por las mañanas
sigue siendo la espera de lo que está por llegar y no se anuncia,
es la espera de lo inesperado,
y no ceso de fantasear con lo que ha de venir...”*

TODAS LAS ALMAS. Javier Marías.



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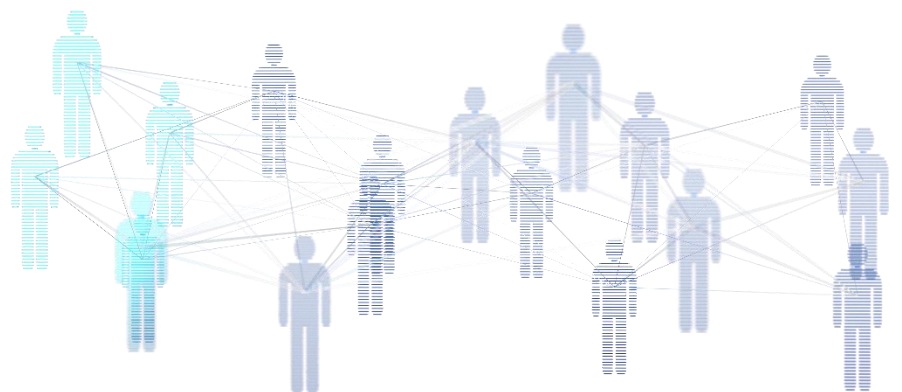
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1 | INTRODUCCIÓN



1. Introducción

1.1. Marco general de la tesis doctoral

La calidad del servicio ofrecido al cliente es el núcleo central en el diseño de actuaciones y protocolos de gestión de recursos humanos que buscan, de algún modo, ordenar o estandarizar los procesos en organizaciones del sector servicios. Alcanzar la excelencia en el servicio prestado representa una prioridad clave para organizaciones contemporáneas cuya actividad principal es la prestación de servicios. Particularmente en las organizaciones hoteleras, cada vez se pone más énfasis en una perspectiva de servicio centrada en la singularidad y expectativa del cliente como medio para respaldar una ventaja competitiva sostenible a través de encuentros de servicio centrados en los deseos singulares de cada huésped.

En organizaciones de servicios caracterizadas por un contacto frecuente y estrecho entre el empleado de primera línea y el cliente, como es el caso del turismo y especialmente de los hoteles, los comportamientos de estos empleados cobran una importancia singular. La literatura ha destacado que los comportamientos proactivos de

servicio de los empleados de primera línea mejoran significativamente a la calidad de las interacciones empleado-huésped y la satisfacción del huésped con la experiencia vivida (Parker *et al.*, 2006, 2010). De este modo, los empleados de contacto se convierten en piezas clave para el éxito de las organizaciones hoteleras cuando son capaces de tomar la iniciativa, desarrollar un pensamiento innovador, o tienen una fuerte orientación al cliente (Raub and Liao, 2012). Por este motivo, los departamentos de recursos humanos de las organizaciones hoteleras se esfuerzan por lograr empleados de primera línea capaces y dispuestos para entender y atender a un huésped con un perfil singular que busca, cada vez más, disfrutar de experiencias individualizadas, cambiantes y cada vez más centradas en sí mismo (IGH, 2017). Un buen ejemplo en este sentido son las políticas desarrolladas por el Grupo Hotelero Ritz-Carlton que colocan en el centro de su estrategia de excelencia en el servicio al empleado de primera línea. Su visión del modo en que esos empleados son esenciales para el éxito de la organización queda plasmada en los valores y filosofía de servicio que exhibe su página web, a través de, por ejemplo, su lema: *“Somos Damas y Caballeros al servicio de Damas y Caballeros”*; o lo que denominan su compromiso: *“Nuestras Damas y Caballeros son el recurso más importante en nuestro compromiso de servicio a nuestros huéspedes”* (Ritz-Carlton Hotel Company, 2023). El resultado de estas políticas de calidad de servicio

que toman como eje central al empleado es prometedor. No en vano, en el año 2022 y por séptimo año consecutivo, los clientes de la cadena Ritz-Carlton han otorgado a la organización la puntuación más alta de su segmento en el estudio que construye el Índice de Satisfacción de Huéspedes Hoteleros (NAGSI) de América del Norte (J.D. Power, 2022).

Los aspectos relacionados con la comprensión y estudio de los comportamientos de servicio de los empleados y sus implicaciones para las organizaciones se enmarcan en el campo del *management* y la gestión de recursos humanos. Por sus singularidades, la gestión de organizaciones turísticas y hoteleras tiene una entidad propia dentro de estos campos de estudio. Los procesos que componen el servicio hotelero se construyen a partir una permanente interacción persona-persona, o, dicho de otro modo, este es un sector intensivo en capital humano (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019; Karatepe *et al.*, 2021). Esta singularidad es tal, que se ha llegado a afirmar que los comportamientos de los empleados durante las interacciones de servicio con el huésped son el principal activo de una organización hotelera, incluso más allá del lujo de sus instalaciones o una ubicación privilegiada (Kim *et al.*, 2019; Robison, 2006). Además, a diferencia de otras industrias dentro del sector servicios, el trabajo de hotel se caracteriza por ser de difícil estandarización (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019; Karatepe, 2015; Yavas *et al.*, 2018). Las características personales

y necesidades de cada huésped exigen que los empleados de primera línea se reinventen en cada interacción de servicio. Esta imprevisibilidad dificulta que el sector hotelero pueda estandarizar las interacciones entre empleados y huéspedes, colocando la responsabilidad de manejar las contingencias diarias del servicio en el empleado, quien debe resolver, incluso anticiparse autónomamente a situaciones imprevistas (Akhtar *et al.*, 2022; Karatepe *et al.*, 2018; Sharp and Phillips, 2009). Debido a estas singularidades, la gestión de recursos humanos en organizaciones turísticas y hoteleras ha puesto el foco sobre la necesidad de comprender y potenciar los comportamientos de los empleados que ayudan a construir un servicio excelente como medio para competir en un contexto complejo y dinámico. No en vano esta es una de las líneas de investigación que más atención reciben en el campo de *hospitality and tourism management*. Identificar cómo y a través de qué mecanismos los comportamientos de los empleados de primera línea construyen un servicio excelente que logra “marcar la diferencia” en la tarea de distinguirse de la competencia, sigue siendo un desafío para muchas organizaciones hoteleras (e.g., Abuelhassan and AlGassim, 2022; Eluwole *et al.*, 2022; Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2020). En definitiva, el estudio de los comportamientos de servicio de los empleados de primera línea es hoy fuente de un sinfín de oportunidades de investigación que

buscan desentrañar sus claves. Esta investigación doctoral tiene como propósito último contribuir a la literatura anterior sobre gestión de recursos humanos y gestión de organizaciones hoteleras al estudiar cómo distintos factores presentes, tanto en el propio individuo como en el contexto de trabajo, construyen el comportamiento de servicio de los empleados de primera línea en empresas hoteleras, y más concretamente, su comportamiento de servicio extra-rol.

1.2. Delimitación del tema objeto de estudio

Investigar el comportamiento de los empleados nos enfrenta a una realidad amplia y compleja. La literatura de gestión de recursos humanos ha buscado el modo de hacer esta realidad abarcable estableciendo categorizaciones, más o menos generales, como punto de partida desde el cual enfocar las investigaciones del campo. Una de las categorizaciones más usadas generalmente divide los comportamientos de los empleados en dos grandes bloques: aquellos que se desarrollan dentro del rol prescrito para el puesto o función que el empleado desempeña (comportamientos in-rol), y aquellos otros comportamientos que se desarrollan fuera del rol formal o comportamientos extra-rol (Knies and Leisink, 2014; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009). Así, mientras el comportamiento in-rol recoge el conjunto de comportamientos que el empleado despliega para cumplir con las obligaciones y responsabilidades que le han sido formalmente

asignadas, el comportamiento extra-rol representa aquellos otros comportamientos que el empleado desarrolla a iniciativa propia y más allá de su deber (Bettencourt *et al.*, 2005; Bettencourt and Brown, 1997; MacKenzie *et al.*, 2011).

La característica fundamental que hace que estos dos tipos de comportamientos tengan consecuencias, y, sobre todo, tengan orígenes diferentes es la discrecionalidad. Mientras que un incumplimiento o ausencia de comportamientos in-rol lleva aparejadas consecuencias punitivas para el empleado (desde una llamada de atención a otras más severas como detracción de salario, o en el caso más extremo, el despido), la propia naturaleza del comportamiento extra-rol lo aleja de este tipo de consecuencias. Teóricamente, el comportamiento extra-rol del empleado está ligado a conceptos como esfuerzos discrecionales o voluntarios (Frenkel *et al.*, 2012) y al altruismo o intención de ayudar del empleado (Bettencourt *et al.*, 2005; Garg and Dhar, 2016). Esta naturaleza discrecional del comportamiento extra-rol, y el hecho de que no es formalmente recompensado por la organización (MacKenzie *et al.*, 2011; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009), hace que los comportamientos in- y extra- rol sean esencialmente distintos.

Del mismo modo, es posible, y necesario, distinguir los distintos comportamientos extra-rol de los empleados. Durante las últimas 30 décadas la literatura de *management* y gestión de recursos humanos ha

identificado en torno a 40 diferentes tipos de comportamientos extra-rol de los empleados (e.g., Coleman and Borman, 2000; LePine *et al.*, 2002; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000). Este catálogo de comportamientos presenta un abanico de opciones que incluye iniciativas tan variadas como el altruismo, las iniciativas de ayuda, el compañerismo, hacer sugerencias constructivas o disentir, tomar la iniciativa, la lealtad a los compañeros o a la organización o el impulso de auto-mejora. De un modo genérico, estos comportamientos se definen como comportamientos de civismo organizacional u OCB (*Organizational Citizenship Behavior*) por sus siglas en inglés (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000). Si bien esta construcción genérica recoge en todo caso comportamientos extra-rol de los empleados (es decir, voluntarios y fuera del rol prescrito), no todos ellos se centran en las interacciones de servicio y se orientan al cliente. En ocasiones son comportamientos de naturaleza interpersonal y cooperativa que tienen a fortalecer o mantener las relaciones con otros miembros de la organización (Van Dyne and LePine, 1998). Es el caso, por ejemplo, de los comportamientos de apoyo o respaldo a un compañero de trabajo, o las actuaciones dirigidas a animar o mantener un ambiente cordial entre los miembros del equipo. Mientras que otros buscan beneficiar a la organización como un todo. Es el caso, por ejemplo, de una sugerencia que busca mejorar un proceso o desvelar

un problema para que pueda ser abordado, o exhibir orgullo o lealtad hacia la organización (Williams and Anderson, 1991).

Sin obviar las ventajas que cualquier comportamiento extra-rol de los empleados brinda a la organización (ver Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009 para una revisión detallada), el interés de esta investigación doctoral se centra en aquellos comportamientos específicamente dirigidos al cliente durante las interacciones empleado-huésped, dado que son estos y no otros los que hacen contribuciones significativas a la calidad del servicio y se convierten en fuente de ventaja competitiva durante el servicio hotelero (e.g., Abuelhassan and AlGassim, 2022; Garg and Dhar, 2016; Ozturk *et al.*, 2021; Zhao and Ghiselli, 2016). En este contexto, el término comportamiento extra-rol de servicio al cliente (o *extra-role customer service* en inglés) reúne un conjunto de comportamientos discrecionales que ponen en marcha los empleados de primera línea, durante las interacciones con el huésped, con el objetivo de cubrir sus necesidades y se extienden más allá de los requisitos formales de su rol laboral (Bettencourt *et al.*, 2005; Garg and Dhar, 2016). Para Bettencourt and Brown (1997), se trata de comportamientos de los empleados de contacto que deleitan al huésped al proporcionar pequeños extras de atención, conformando un servicio excepcional que surge de un modo espontáneo durante el encuentro de servicio y que da como resultado no solo satisfacción con

el servicio recibido, sino también, la aparición de respuestas emocionales positivas vinculadas a la organización como la fidelidad.

La presente investigación doctoral tiene como objetivo estudiar el modo en que una serie de elementos presentes, bien en el propio empleado, bien en el contexto de trabajo, fortalecen o debilitan la voluntad del empleado de hotel para involucrarse en este tipo de comportamientos extra-rol que logran transformar un servicio correcto en uno excelente. Para ello consideramos variables de estudio que buscan cubrir algunas de las lagunas de investigación actuales en torno a este tema.

1.3. Justificación e interés de la investigación

A medida que la naturaleza del trabajo ha evolucionado, se han puesto en cuestión las visiones tradicionales de observar el desempeño de un empleado desde una óptica de su cumplimiento in-rol. Esto es así porque esta visión se aleja cada vez más la gama de comportamientos de los empleados que las organizaciones necesitan para poder competir en un entorno fuertemente cambiante (Bettencourt *et al.*, 2005; Karatepe, 2013; MacKenzie *et al.*, 2011). Tanto es así que los comportamientos extra-rol de los empleados se han revelado como la clave de bóveda que permite a las organizaciones del sector servicios mantenerse lo suficientemente flexibles como para adaptarse a una

realidad dinámica y competitiva (Eldor and Harpaz, 2016; Griffin *et al.*, 2007; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009).

Desde una perspectiva teórica y empírica hay una base sólida de literatura que respalda la idea de que los comportamientos extra-rol son beneficiosos para las organizaciones de servicios. Así, se ha demostrado que fomentar los comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados de primera línea contribuye a mejorar los resultados de las organizaciones favoreciendo la fidelización del cliente (Castro *et al.*, 2004; Chan *et al.*, 2017; Jain *et al.*, 2012), elevando su satisfacción (Bettencourt *et al.*, 2005), y logrando aumentar la calidad de servicio percibida (Garg and Dhar, 2014). Además, los comportamientos del empleado que son percibidos por el cliente como altruistas o de ayuda, como es el caso de los extra-rol, favorecen que el huésped retroalimente, con sus opiniones y sugerencias, en la mejora del servicio (Zhao *et al.*, 2018). Sin embargo, la investigación en torno los factores, individuales o de contexto, que contribuyen a construir o destruir la voluntad del empleado para involucrarse en este tipo de comportamientos de trabajo discrecionales, es aún escasa.

Aunque una corriente de investigación se ha centrado en los efectos del comportamiento extra-rol de los empleados en la organización y los compañeros de trabajo (e.g., Van Dyne and LePine, 1998; Eldor and Harpaz, 2016; Knies and Leisink, 2014; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009), otra

corriente reconoce la importancia de comprender qué factores determinan la voluntad del empleado para comprometerse, o no, con este tipo de comportamientos de servicio discrecionales (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2021; Ozturk *et al.*, 2021; Zhao *et al.*, 2018). En particular, el comportamiento extra-rol orientado al cliente es crucial en la capacidad de la empresa para cumplir con los requisitos cambiantes de sus clientes (Bettencourt *et al.*, 2005).

En este sentido y más concretamente, tres grandes brechas de investigación han sido identificadas durante nuestra revisión. En primer lugar, la necesidad de buscar estilos de liderazgo novedosos con los que intentar adaptar las estructuras fuertemente jerarquizadas que predominan en el sector, estilos de trabajo que ayuden a los empleados de primera línea a enfrentar los desafíos que presenta el servicio hotelero (Elche *et al.*, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2021; Karatepe *et al.*, 2020). En segundo lugar, es necesario ampliar nuestro conocimiento sobre el modo en que, un contexto de trabajo caracterizado por un alto nivel de trabajo emocional y estrés causado por la ambigüedad de rol (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019, 2021; Zhao *et al.*, 2016; Zhu *et al.*, 2019), puede afectar a la voluntad de los empleados de ir más allá de su deber durante el servicio. Finalmente, la reciente llamada de atención de algunos autores sobre una confusión o sobreposición conceptual en algunos de los estilos de liderazgo más utilizados en la investigación

hotelera (Banks *et al.*, 2018; Gerpott *et al.*, 2019; Yukl *et al.*, 2019), hace necesario abordar desde una óptica libre de este sesgo el estudio del impacto del comportamiento del líder sobre el deseado servicio extra-rol.

A cubrir cada una de estas brechas se dedican los objetivos específicos de esta tesis doctoral. Una explicación más detallada tanto de la naturaleza de la necesidad de investigación identificada, como del modo en que nuestra investigación busca reducir la brecha, se desarrollan en el siguiente apartado.

1.4. Objetivos de la investigación

El propósito general de esta tesis doctoral es analizar la influencia de distintos factores presentes, tanto en el propio individuo como en el contexto de trabajo, sobre el comportamiento de servicio extra-rol de los empleados de primera línea en empresas hoteleras. Como se ha mostrado, la investigación anterior vinculada a la gestión de recursos humanos y más concretamente a la gestión hotelera, ha construido una sólida base de conocimiento sobre las ventajas de este tipo de comportamientos de primera para las organizaciones. Sin embargo, la revisión de la literatura relacionada revela algunos *gaps* de investigación que deben proporcionar una imagen más clara de los elementos que facilitan o perjudican la aparición de estos

comportamientos tan deseados por el sector debido a su importancia en la construcción de una ventaja competitiva sólida y sostenible. Esta investigación doctoral busca responder a los principales gaps identificados, y con ello, hacer una contribución significativa al campo de la gestión de recursos humanos en organizaciones hoteleras. A partir de las necesidades de investigación detectadas formulamos los siguientes objetivos específicos:

- O1.-** Estudiar si un enfoque de liderazgo innovador, como es el liderazgo paradójico, puede ayudar a las organizaciones hoteleras a distinguirse robusteciendo la aparición de comportamientos extra-rol de los empleados de primera línea durante los encuentros de servicio.
- O2.-** Analizar si los comportamientos del empleado orientados hacia la mejora continua, tanto propia como organizativa, cumplen un papel que ayude a explicar el modo en que un líder logra influir en la intención del empleado de desarrollar comportamientos más allá del rol prescrito.
- O3.-** Identificar el modo en que aquellos factores presentes en el contexto de trabajo hotelero que hacen que los empleados experimenten presión o estrés pueden influir en su compromiso

con la satisfacción del huésped, y, por tanto, en el desarrollo de comportamientos de servicio extra-rol.

O4.- Examinar si diferentes orientaciones de un líder, más allá de cualquier enfoque de estilo de liderazgo, pueden construir o destruir una estrategia de servicio basada en los comportamientos proactivos extra-rol de los empleados de primera línea en la industria hotelera.

O5.- Identificar el modo en que algunos rasgos presentes en el individuo en distinto grado como el *engagement*, la proactividad o la atención plena, o condiciones del contexto de trabajo como la cultura, contribuyen a construir la voluntad de empleado desarrollar comportamientos extra-rol durante el servicio al huésped.

El trabajo de investigación que da cobertura a estos objetivos, general y específicos, se ha operacionalizado en tres investigaciones que conforman el núcleo de esta tesis doctoral. Si bien estas investigaciones se desarrollan en los capítulos 2, 3 y 4, se presentan aquí someramente para dibujar el modo cada uno de ellas se vincula a los objetivos específicos.

1.4.1. Liderazgo paradójico como una oportunidad para la orientación hacia la mejora personal y organizacional del empleado de primera línea, y su influencia en la aparición de comportamientos de servicio extra-rol.

Esta investigación aborda el primer y segundo objetivo específico de la tesis doctoral. Como se ha descrito en los primeros apartados de este capítulo introductorio, no son pocos los autores que han señalado que superar los desafíos actuales en la industria hotelera requiere ir más allá de los estilos de liderazgo tradicionales que prevalecen hoy en día en estas organizaciones (e.g., Arici *et al.*, 2021; Bavik, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2022). La literatura de gestión de recursos humanos ha analizado cómo algunos de los estilos de liderazgo más estudiados (e.g., liderazgo transformacional o auténtico) fomentan el desarrollo de comportamientos extra-rol durante la prestación del servicio (Chon and Zoltan, 2019; Gui *et al.*, 2020; Wang and Xie, 2020). Sin embargo, estos estudios han dejado de lado un hecho fundamental: para el empleado, desarrollar comportamientos extra-rol puede tener una naturaleza paradójica. Se ha descrito como los comportamientos fuera del rol prescrito pueden producir respuestas opuestas por parte del entorno de trabajo que el empleado deberá manejar (Bolino *et al.*, 2003; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). Si como se ha expuesto los comportamientos de servicio extra-rol son voluntarios y discrecionales, y su desarrollo puede convertirse en conflictivo ¿qué impide que los empleados de primera

línea se limiten estrictamente a sus tareas de rol en lugar de ir más allá?

La respuesta podría estar en el liderazgo paradójico.

Por otra parte, las características propias del trabajo en hotel hacen que el empleado desarrolle sus tareas asumiendo constantemente la tensión de adaptarse a nuevos y distintos roles (Elche *et al.*, 2020; Karatepe *et al.*, 2020). La responsabilidad de manejar diariamente contingencias, por lo tanto, recae en el empleado, quien debe estar preparado para resolver e incluso anticipar soluciones de un modo creativo (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2021, 2022). Para responder a esta singularidad del servicio hotelero, algunos autores han señalado la necesidad de buscar mecanismos que mejoren las capacidades de comunicación y aprendizaje de los empleados de primera línea al objeto de facilitar su adaptación a un contexto de servicio en continuo cambio (Francis and Baum, 2018).

Con estos gaps en mente, esta investigación pretende explorar los dos primeros objetivos específicos dando respuesta a las siguientes preguntas de investigación:

RQ1: ¿Ofrece el liderazgo paradójico herramientas que ayuden a los empleados de hotel a manejar las contradicciones inherentes a los comportamientos de servicio fuera del rol formal?

RQ2: ¿Puede un líder paradójico influir en la orientación hacia la mejora de los empleados como una vía para potenciar el desarrollo de un servicio excelente mediante comportamientos extra-rol?

1.4.2. La presión experimentada por el empleado, su impacto sobre el servicio de hotel, y el poder transformador del rasgo de atención plena o mindfulness

Con el tercer objetivo específico, esta investigación doctoral busca contribuir a una mejor comprensión y control de la influencia que la presión que experimentan los empleados de hotel a consecuencia de las características propias de este contexto de trabajo puede tener sobre su intención de desarrollar comportamientos de servicio extra-rol. Prestación de servicios 24/7, cultura de la presencialidad, elevada rotación, un fuerte trabajo emocional, e inconsistencia de roles, son algunas de las características que se atribuyen con frecuencia al trabajo de los empleados de hotel de primera línea (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2021; Zhao and Ghiselli, 2016; Zhu *et al.*, 2019). Podríamos decir que el empleado debe estar preparado en todo momento para, a criterio propio, apagar fuegos allá donde surjan. Esto le obliga a desempeñar un rol ambiguo, inconsistente, que puede generar en él/ella una sensación de incertidumbre sobre si será, o no, capaz de afrontar la tarea desconocida. Estudios previos muestran que este tipo de presión por el desempeño es experimentado por el empleado como un estresor

(e.g., Gutnick *et al.*, 2012; Mitchell *et al.*, 2018, 2019) y puede ser un “arma de doble filo” cuando la organización trata de fomentar la aparición de comportamientos discrecionales en un entorno estresante (Mitchell *et al.*, 2019, p. 532). Sin embargo, la revisión de la literatura que soporta esta investigación doctoral reveló que ningún estudio empírico ha puesto luz a la influencia de este tipo de estresor sobre el deseado comportamiento de servicio extra-rol en un contexto hotelero o, de manera más general, en la industria turística.

Además, dado que la investigación acerca de los efectos de la presión que experimentan los empleados ha tenido resultados inconsistentes en la literatura (e.g. Gardner, 2012), una parte del objetivo quinto también trata de explicar si rasgos presentes en el individuo pueden favorecer que algunos empleados logren gestionar el estrés derivado de la presión mejor que otros. Con este objetivo en mente, centramos nuestra atención en la capacidad de atención plena o *mindfulness* del empleado dado que distintas investigaciones han revelado que podría ayudar al individuo a centrarse en la ejecución de la tarea en desarrollo, aislándose de las posibles consecuencias de su nivel de desempeño (Glomb *et al.*, 2011; Hülsheger *et al.*, 2013; Jimenez *et al.*, 2010). Aunque compañías como LinkedIn, Ford, Google o Apple han empezado a utilizar programas basados en *mindfulness* como medio para fomentar el bienestar de sus empleados (Jackson, 2018),

aun no existe una postura clara de la academia respecto a los efectos de este rasgo del empleado sobre su propio desempeño (Glomb *et al.*, 2011; Hafenbrack and Vohs, 2018). Esta carencia es especialmente llamativa cuando se trata de organizaciones turísticas.

Con estos gaps en mente, la investigación presentada en el capítulo 3 buscó dar respuesta a las siguientes preguntas de investigación:

RQ3: ¿Qué papel juega la presión en la intención de los empleados de participar en comportamientos de servicio extra-rol?

RQ4: ¿Puede el nivel de concentración plena o *mindfulness* del empleado ayudarlo a controlar los efectos de la presión en un entorno estresante como es el trabajo de hotel?

1.4.3. Orientación del líder, proactividad y su influencia en el comportamiento de servicio extra-rol en un contexto de rigidez cultural.

Con el cuarto objetivo específico esta investigación doctoral pretende contribuir al campo de la gestión hotelera abordando uno de los principales gaps señalados por la literatura de gestión de recursos humanos en los últimos años. Recientemente se ha alertado de la existencia de redundancia de constructo en algunos de los estilos de liderazgo más utilizados (e.g., Banks *et al.*, 2018; Gerpott *et al.*, 2019; Yukl *et al.*, 2002). Para abordar este objetivo, nos alejamos del estudio

del liderazgo mediante enfoques de estilos, para analizar los efectos simultáneos de los comportamientos orientados a las tareas, las relaciones y el cambio del líder sobre la proactividad de los empleados y el servicio extra-rol al huésped. Un enfoque de tipos de comportamiento y no de estilos ha mostrado ser más parsimonioso (Yukl *et al.*, 2019) y por tanto, apropiado para eliminar el “ruido” creado por la superposición conceptual señalada respecto del enfoque de estilos tan extendido (Gerpott *et al.*, 2019; Yukl *et al.*, 2019). Con este enfoque, tratamos de comprender si esta superposición conceptual en algunos de los estilos de liderazgo más utilizados podría de algún modo explicar por qué estamos fallando en la tarea de lograr empleados más proactivos en el sector hotelero (Parker *et al.*, 2019).

Finalmente, algunos autores han señalado la necesidad de profundizar en la comprensión de las condiciones del contexto de trabajo aplicadas a los efectos del liderazgo en el trabajo de hotel, identificando esta necesidad como uno de los principales vacíos de investigación actuales en relación al estudio del liderazgo aplicado a la hostelería y el turismo (e.g., Buil *et al.*, 2019; Guchait *et al.*, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2022). El último objetivo de este trabajo de investigación doctoral intenta avanzar en este gap. Para ello abordamos el modo en que una característica del contexto de trabajo de hotel, como es la rigidez cultural, puede condicionar la capacidad del líder

para influir en la aparición de comportamientos proactivos de servicio extra-rol del empleado.

Con estos vacíos de investigación en mente, el tercer trabajo de investigación desarrollado buscó dar respuesta a las siguientes preguntas de investigación:

RQ5: ¿Cómo influyen los diferentes tipos de comportamiento del líder (orientados a la tarea, al cambio o a las relaciones) en la aparición de comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados de hotel?

RQ6: ¿Puede el nivel percibido por el empleado de rigidez cultural condicionar la capacidad del líder para influir en la aparición de comportamientos proactivos de servicio más allá del rol formal?

1.5. Estructura del trabajo de investigación

Esta tesis doctoral se divide en 5 capítulos que pueden a su vez organizarse en tres grandes bloques. Un primer bloque ofrece un texto introductorio (Capítulo 1), los Capítulos 2, 3 y 4 presentan un segundo bloque que contiene el núcleo de la investigación que aquí se presenta, y de la cual se extrae un tercer bloque de conclusiones que ofrecemos en el Capítulo 5.

El Capítulo 1 ofrece una visión integradora y general del tema de estudio. Con este objetivo, se presenta la literatura que define lo que,

hasta el momento presente, conocemos en relación a los comportamientos de servicio de los empleados más allá del rol formal asignado y la teoría que da soporte a sus fundamentos. Además, se justifica brevemente el interés de esta investigación, tanto a un nivel académico como práctico. Finalmente, de todo lo anterior derivamos el propósito y los objetivos que persigue esta investigación doctoral.

El capítulo 2 presenta el primer trabajo de investigación que ofrece un análisis de los efectos que un estilo de liderazgo paradójico produce en la intención de los empleados de involucrarse en comportamientos de servicio extra-rol. No son pocos los autores que reclaman el estudio de nuevos enfoques de liderazgo para el trabajo en el sector hotelero debido a su carácter cambiante y poco definido (e.g., Arici *et al.*, 2021; Bavik, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2022). Si bien el liderazgo paradójico ha sido escasamente estudiado en contextos europeos, ha mostrado resultados prometedores en entornos de trabajo donde los empleados necesitan manejar proactivamente situaciones cambiantes que les sitúan ante incongruencias o paradojas. Para comprender su influencia en los comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados de hotel, utilizamos un enfoque de efectos directos e indirectos contemplando comportamientos orientados a la mejora (propia y organizativa) como variables mediadoras. El modelo teórico

propuesto, se probó utilizando datos de encuesta de 311 empleados de hotel de primera línea.

El capítulo 3 incluye el segundo trabajo de investigación, donde estudiamos la influencia que un entorno de trabajo definido como “olla a presión” por algunos autores (e.g., Karatepe *et al.*, 2021; Zhao and Ghiselli, 2016) tiene sobre la voluntad de los empleados para tomar la iniciativa durante las interacciones de servicio. Así, partimos de los postulados de la Teoría de la Autodeterminación (Ryan and Deci, 2000) para explorar las relaciones, directas e indirectas, existentes entre la presión de desempeño experimentada por el empleado y su intención de poner en marcha comportamientos de servicio más allá del rol formal. Además, este mismo mecanismo de frustración o conservación de la motivación intrínseca del individuo propuesto teóricamente por Ryan and Deci (2000), nos ayudó a explicar cómo un rasgo del individuo como la concentración plena o *mindfulness* es capaz de modificar (moderar) el efecto principal estudiado. Las relaciones teóricas propuestas se testaron empíricamente a partir una muestra de 300 empleados de hotel.

En el capítulo 4 viene motivado por el reciente hallazgo de una redundancia de constructo o superposición conceptual en los estilos de liderazgo más utilizados en investigación hotelera (Banks *et al.*, 2018; Gerpott *et al.*, 2019) que podría estar impidiendo una comprensión

nítida sus efectos. Siguiendo esta idea, nos proponemos utilizar un enfoque que elimine el “ruido” creado por esta superposición conceptual. Por lo tanto, adoptamos un enfoque parsimonioso de orientación del comportamiento del líder (a la tarea, a las relaciones o al cambio), y no del estilo de liderazgo, en un tercer artículo de investigación. El trabajo exploró la influencia de la orientación del líder sobre un rasgo del empleado como es su proactividad, y en consecuencia, sobre la expresión de este rasgo a través de comportamientos proactivos de servicio. Además, analizamos el modo en que una condición presente en el entorno como la rigidez o laxitud cultural puede moderar las relaciones estudiadas. El modelo se testó a partir de una muestra de 289 empleados de hotel de primera línea.

Finalmente, el Capítulo 5 desarrolla de forma unificada e integrada las conclusiones extraídas de los tres trabajos de investigación que integran esta tesis doctoral. Presemos las contribuciones de este trabajo desde un punto de vista teórico o académico y, especialmente, las implicaciones que nuestros hallazgos pueden tener para los profesionales de la gestión de recursos humanos en la industria hotelera. Exponemos brevemente las limitaciones de nuestro trabajo sugiriendo futuras líneas de investigación. Finalizamos el capítulo, y con ello también este trabajo de investigación doctoral, con una breve reflexión sobre los comportamientos de servicio de los

empleados más allá del rol formal y su importancia para la calidad del servicio hotelero.

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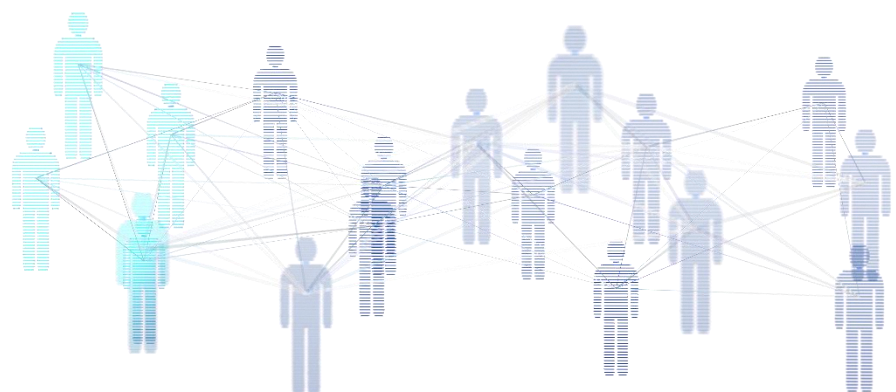
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2

THE EFFECT OF PARADOXICAL LEADERSHIP ON EXTRA-ROLE SERVICE IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY



2. The effect of paradoxical leadership on extra-role service in the hospitality industry

ABSTRACT

This exploratory study examines the influence of paradoxical leadership (PLSH) on the extra-role service behavior of frontline employees. It analyzes not only direct but also indirect influence through mechanisms that improve the learning (self-improvement) and communication (voice) capabilities of hospitality employees. Data were gathered through structured questionnaires administered to a sample of frontline employees from Spanish hotels. A structural equations model was used to evaluate the theoretical model proposed. Our results show both a direct positive effect of PLSH on extra-role service and a mediating effect of employees' improvement-oriented behaviors on this relationship. These results support the idea that employees under paradoxical leaders seek both self-improvement and organizational improvement through their voice to provide guests with excellent service. Our findings extend understanding of PLSH's effects to the hospitality industry through its impact on extra-role service, an essential element of hotel success. This study addresses the lack of research on hospitality leadership by analyzing the effects of PLSH on employees' communication and learning behaviors, as well as on their extra-role service. We argue that some behaviors that help hotels compete (e.g., extra-role service) can have paradoxical implications for employees.

Keywords Paradoxical leadership, Extra-role service, Voice, Self-improvement, Observational learning, Advice seeking, Hotel

2.1. Introduction

In hospitality, customer service quality marks the difference between one organization and another in a very competitive environment. Employee behaviors that add extra value to the guest's experience give hotels a valuable tool through which to distinguish themselves and improve their profitability (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019; Kim and Qu, 2020; Zhu *et al.*, 2019). Such behaviors are pure gold for the hospitality organization. The management literature identifies them as extra-role service, a term that encompasses all proactive behaviors deployed by frontline employees to satisfy guests' demands and provide additional performance beyond the limits of their formal role (Garg and Dhar, 2016).

Surprisingly, although hospitality organizations rely on extra-role service to strengthen their competitiveness and profitability, these discretionary behaviors are outside the role required of the employee (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997; Kim and Qu, 2020). They may thus present employees with paradoxes. For example, some researchers find that extra-role service can generate conflicts among team members (Bolino *et al.*, 2003). Some studies in the hospitality environment observe that guests are increasingly demanding and self-centered (IGH, 2017). These characteristics require employees to manage contradictory—even opposing—expectations (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019; She *et al.*, 2020). Under these conditions, if extra-role service is discretionary rather than

required and if deploying behaviors beyond the employee's formal duties can become problematic, what prevents employees from adhering strictly to their in-role tasks? One answer could be a paradoxical leadership (PLSH) style.

Previous studies have analyzed how different leadership styles (transformational, authentic, servant, etc.) encourage the development of extra-role service in the hospitality context (e.g., Chon and Zoltan, 2019; Gui *et al.*, 2020; Wang and Xie, 2020), but these studies do not consider the paradoxical nature of extra-role service. PLSH has been described as a leadership style that can “respond to new and seemingly contradictory inquiries that managers must currently face” (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019, p.404). To date, research on the effects of PLSH in the hospitality context has received limited attention. The existing literature argues that PLSH effectively promotes psychological empowerment and job engagement in hotel employees (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019). More recently, She *et al.* (2020) have shown that PLSH can stimulate in-role service behavior in hotel employees through employee-leader identification. Our study seeks to fill to this knowledge gap by analyzing the role of PLSH in the employee's intention to engage in extra-role service. We propose that effective handling of these contradictions can play a central role in employees' decisions to initiate extra-role service. Based on Social Learning Theory (SLT) (Bandura,

1997), we propose that PLSH can help hospitality organizations to create the best conditions for frontline employees to succeed when facing the contradictions of extra-role service, as PLSH shows employees the skills needed to manage the contradictory situations that can arise from behaving outside their formal role.

Further, the very nature of hospitality work subjects employees to the constant tension of adapting to new and different roles at work. Each guest's personal characteristics and needs require frontline employees to reinvent themselves in every service interaction (Elche *et al.*, 2020; Karatepe *et al.*, 2020). This unpredictability makes it difficult for the hospitality sector to standardize employee-guest interactions. The responsibility for handling daily contingencies thus falls to the employee, who must resolve--even anticipate--unforeseen situations by exercising autonomy (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019). Given this unique aspect of hospitality service, some authors argue a need to identify mechanisms to improve frontline employees' communication and learning capabilities to facilitate their adaptation to a continuously changing service context (Francis and Baum, 2018). Our study addresses this need by analyzing the indirect influence of PLSH through behavior that encourages frontline employees' learning and communication. We link PLSH to self-improvement behavior (observational learning and seeking advice) and to organizational-improvement behavior related to the theory of

employee voice (Morrison, 2011). We propose that PLSH promotes development of work models that challenge frontline employees to explore new ways of doing their work through learning and communication. Such proactive improvement behavior is reflected in the frontline employee's intention to go the extra mile, providing distinctive service to the guest.

Overcoming the current challenges in the hospitality industry requires going beyond the traditional leadership styles prevalent today. We must explore new styles to help employees manage the contradictions inherent in their service. To address this knowledge gap, this study seeks to answer two questions: Can PLSH provide tools to help employees manage the contradictions of hospitality service? And will PLSH help to improve employees' learning and communication capabilities to enable them to adapt to the demands of extra-role service? With these questions in mind, we define two study goals: (1) to examine whether PLSH in the hospitality industry contributes to the development of extra-role service in frontline employees' guest service; and (2) to explore whether employees' orientation to continuous improvement—manifested through behavior such as seeking advice, observational learning, and employee voice—acts as a mediator in this relationship.

In examining these relationships, our study makes three main contributions. First, it addresses the need to identify leadership styles

that help hospitality organizations to adapt to current demands (Guchait *et al.*, 2020) by demonstrating PLSH's ability to influence extra-role service. Our research thus extends the scant body of literature on PLSH in the hospitality sector (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019; She *et al.*, 2020). Second, our study contributes to understanding extra-role service in frontline hospitality employees, arguing that PLSH can facilitate extra-role service by showing an effective way to manage contradictory situations associated with this behavior (Bolino *et al.*, 2003). This argument develops an approach neglected to date in hospitality research. Third, this study identifies the mechanisms that facilitate employees' adaptation to changing situations during guest service interactions (Francis and Baum, 2018). Our model can explain how PLSH influences the emergence of learning behaviors such as seeking advice and observational learning, and communicative behaviors such as employee voice. It also explains how these improved behaviors can mediate between PLSH and extra-role guest service. This novel focus provides a broad research framework within which future studies can advance understanding of the mechanisms underlying extra-role service.

The next section presents the theoretical framework. Subsequent sections contrast our hypotheses and discuss the main results obtained.

Finally, we highlight the theoretical and practical implications of our findings and describe the study's limitations and future lines of research.

2.2. Literature review and hypothesis development

2.2.1. Paradoxical leadership

Drawing on the organizational theory of paradox, Zhang *et al.* (2015) conceptualize PLSH as ambidextrous or balanced leadership capable of integrating in a single behavior two coexisting and apparently opposing but interrelated behaviors that respond to the paradoxical demands of managing people in organizations. The paradoxical leader (PL) treats followers uniformly but also considers their individual characteristics (Lewis *et al.*, 2014). From this perspective, PLs adopt balanced behavior that constantly integrates simultaneous response to the two extremes of the paradoxes inherent in people management. Five dimensions define such leaders' actions: (1) being both self- and other-centered, (2) simultaneously maintaining closeness and distance, (3) keeping control, while allowing followers autonomy, (4) treating everyone uniformly while allowing individualization, and (5) enforcing work requirements while permitting flexibility (Zhang *et al.*, 2015).

Work in the tourism sector often presents human teams with unpredictable and contradictory situations. They must make rapid and innovative decisions to guarantee high-quality customer service (e.g.,

Karatepe *et al.*, 2020; Ruiz-Palomino *et al.*, 2019). Hospitality work thus constantly involves resolving paradoxes. Some paradoxes involve autonomy vs. control: The organization expects supervisors to control frontline employees' actions, but employees need greater autonomy to satisfy guests' demands. Other paradoxes of standardization vs. personalization arise because the organization requires standardized employee behavior policies, while simultaneously expecting employee behavior to fit the demands of each customer. As contradictory as these goals might seem, both must be met to guarantee the organization's competitiveness. The paradoxes inherent in the hospitality industry lead frontline employees to ambiguous or changing role performance (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019). In such a work context, a leader must be able to show frontline employees exactly what to do (decreasing the negative effects of role ambiguity), while at the same time making them feel that they can take their own decisions to adapt to the guest's specific demands (personalizing service to guarantee the guest's satisfaction). By fostering clarity of goals and autonomy simultaneously in followers (Fürstenberg *et al.*, 2021), PLSH responds uniquely to the needs of frontline hotel employees by helping them to be what they are expected to be (both controlled and autonomous) in order to deliver the service required (both standardized and personalized).

SLT (Bandura, 1997) helps to clarify the process by which PLs model behavior for their employees. SLT assumes that followers perceive the leader as a role model and thus adopt the leader's behavior as their own through imitation. Based on SLT, PLs who respond simultaneously to the two extremes of the paradox show followers how to adapt to guests' changing expectations, developing both personal and organizational learning and improvement processes that help them to face the contradictory challenges of hotel service (Zhang *et al.*, 2015). PLSH thus merits study in this context.

2.2.2. *Extra-role service*

One particularity that distinguishes the hospitality industry from other sectors is the significant role of frontline personnel in ensuring that hotels function well, as interaction between customers and employees is key to guaranteeing good service delivery (Chon and Zoltan, 2019; Kim and Qu, 2020). This situation captures the distinctive character of hotels as organizations in which employees' behavior becomes a central tool for achieving goals. One of the most-appreciated skills of service personnel in the hospitality sector is thus their capability to respond to unexpected contingencies that arise during interaction with the customer without needing to appeal to the supervisor (Zhu *et al.*, 2019). The hospitality management literature recognizes this set of skills as extra-role service (Garg and Dhar, 2016; Kim and Qu, 2020).

Extra-role service is generally defined as “*discretionary behaviors of contact employees in serving customers that extend beyond formal role requirements*” (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997, p. 41). This term includes all proactive behaviors deployed by frontline employees to satisfy the demands of guests and perform additional actions beyond the limits of their formal role (Garg and Dhar, 2016). Researchers commonly find that extra-role service produces beneficial results for organizations (see Podsakoff *et al.* (2009) for more detail). Some authors find, however, that this situation can confront employees with contradictory paths. First, researchers note that customers’ needs—which often require hotel employees to make an extra-role effort—can be sharply contradictory (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019; She *et al.*, 2020). In their recent report “The age of I” (IGH, 2017) on current trends in the hotel guest, the hotel group IHG identified four paradoxes defining the desires of today’s guests—and thus hotel service. Guests want both to feel unique and to connect to a brand. They want service to be both luxurious and affordable. They seek both their own interest and the common good. They wish both to control service and to have service controlled to their liking. To please such guests, frontline hotel employees must resolve tremendous paradoxes. Second, some researchers show that extra-role service can produce contradictory responses from both supervisors and colleagues in the work environment (Bolino *et al.*, 2003). When employees depart from

their formal role to engage in non-required behavior, their co-workers may perceive this behavior as competition and reject them. Employees who prefer to adhere strictly to their formal role may feel that co-workers who perform extra-role service make them look bad, leading to conflict. Employees unable to manage the paradox that exactly the same extra-role service is desired by the organization and guest but rejected by some team members may be tempted to take the easy path, adhering strictly to their in-role tasks to avoid conflicts. PLs are in a unique position to help employees' handle this paradox.

Based on SLT (Bandura, 1997), the leader who manages paradoxes constructively acts as role-model, showing employees how to face tensions and contradictions effectively. The literature on leadership demonstrates that the leader's behavior and attitudes serve as an example and role model for followers. In a hospitality context, Huertas-Valdivia *et al.* (2019) have shown that PLs can inspire employees to overcome stressful work conditions, achieving greater engagement and creativity in service. She *et al.* (2020) demonstrate that PLSH can, under certain conditions of identification, promote in-role service behavior toward a complex and changing guest. Drawing on this argumentation, we propose that the PL can act as a model at individual level to increase employees' ability to manage potentially contradictory situations

associated with extra-role behavior, thereby stimulating employees' participation in extra-role service. Based on the foregoing, we propose:

H1. PLSH is positively related to employees' extra-role service.

2.2.3. Employees' self-improvement

Research on individuals' motivation for self-improvement has identified different learning-oriented behaviors, such as seeking advice and observation. Çelen *et al.* (2010) show that learning occurs when individuals observe (observational learning) or interact with others (seeking advice). Both types of action result in self-improvement. Observational learning enables employees to strengthen their performance by assimilating or imitating work activities that they have seen others in their environments perform (Lee and Duffy, 2019). For example, employees who observe co-workers successfully fulfill a customer's expectations and who wish to improve their own actions will learn and adapt their behavior in similar situations to improve themselves. Co-workers' advice can also be a useful resource for employees' improvement (Çelen *et al.*, 2010). Employees seek advice to obtain information with which to solve work problems or identify relevant resources that would otherwise remain hidden to them (Cross *et al.*, 2001). Both observational learning and advice seeking give workers tools and resources to improve themselves. The literature shows that the

leader's role is crucial to developing behavior that results in individual learning (Vera and Crossan, 2004).

Despite the minimal research on PSHL, and based on the role modelling proposed by SLT (Bandura, 1997), we can trace a conceptual line from PLSH to employees' self-improvement. For Zhang *et al.* (2015), PLs act as models, showing their followers "how to be open, learning oriented, and flexible to work proficiently, adaptively, and proactively" (p. 544). PLSH grants followers the discretion to act autonomously in performing their tasks, while simultaneously maintaining decision-making control (Lewis *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, while PLs establish high standards of quality at work, they understand that employees can make mistakes (Zhang *et al.*, 2015). This combination should help to maintain employees' interest in self-improvement without fear of negative consequences. Further, followers experience higher levels of psychological empowerment under PLSH due to the leader's skill in integrating behaviors such as closeness and distance, or uniformity and individualization. Such empowerment grants employees freedom to apply new ways of handling workplace contingencies (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019).

Based on the foregoing, we propose that integrating the paradoxes that arise in people management gives workers (at individual level) freedom to engage proactively in self-improvement situations and

motivates them to do so. We expect PLSH through role modelling to challenge followers to explore new and improved ways of performing tasks, increasing workers' interest in participating in self-improvement processes such as advice seeking or observational learning. Based on these arguments, we propose:

H2a. PLSH is positively related to employees' self-improvement.

Some researchers, in turn, suggest that employees with wider or deeper knowledge of their work role feel more motivated to make extra effort to benefit the organization (Rich *et al.*, 2010). Learning-oriented employee behaviors, such as observation and seeking advice, contribute to better knowledge of one's role, motivating employees to make additional effort to improve the guest's situation. Without such learning, employees in situations where they perceive themselves as inferior to others may be reluctant to initiate behavior beyond that strictly assigned to their role (Bakker and Leiter, 2010). Self-improvement can be an effective mechanism to reduce perception of inferiority and place the employee in a good position to perform extra-role service. Along similar lines, recent research by Zhu *et al.* (2019) reveals that a knowledge-based mental framework enables hospitality employees to help customers more proactively. The foregoing arguments suggest that employees' self-improvement, revealed through observational learning or seeking advice, helps to shape extra-role service.

Based on the foregoing, we propose that workers who perceive that they have sufficient information and personal resources (whether obtained through observational learning or seeking advice) will feel prepared to go beyond the limits of their formal role. Such learning will give employees a perception of self-efficacy, motivating them to take the step from “I could do it” to “I will do it,” stimulating development of extra-role service. According to the foregoing, we formulate the following hypothesis:

H2b. Employees’ self-improvement is positively related to extra-role service.

Finally, we propose that self-improvement mediates the main relationship. Analyzing this effect advances understanding of the influence of PLSH on extra-role service and identification of the learning mechanisms that help frontline employees to adapt to a changing service context like that of hospitality (Francis and Baum, 2018). Prior studies show us that improvement-oriented employee behavior—such as self-improvement—can mediate the relationship between leadership style and different forms of improved employee performance, such as extra-role service. For example, research shows that employees’ beliefs about self-efficacy of their skills and capabilities mediate the relationship between leadership style and better employee performance (Dvir *et al.*, 2002). More recently, hospitality-sector research has confirmed that

frontline employees' orientation to improvement and learning mediates the relationship between leadership style and positive results linked to knowledge management (Shamim *et al.*, 2017).

From this line of argument, we can infer that improved employee behavior such as self-improvement has a mediating effect on the relationship between PLSH and better employee performance, measured in terms of extra-role service. As proposed in H2a and H2b, followers of PLs influence employees' self-improvement through role modelling. Self-improvement is, in turn, positively related to extra-role service. We therefore expect self-improvement to give employees sufficient knowledge and experience to enable PLs to show employees how to handle the paradoxes of extra-role service. Employees will become competent and adaptive, viewing paradoxical situations not as occasional exceptions but as an inherent characteristic of hospitality service. Since we expect PLSH to have a positive indirect effect on extra-role service through self-improvement, we propose:

H2c. Employees' self-improvement mediates the direct relationship between PLSH and extra-role service.

2.2.4. Employee voice

We conceptualize employee voice behavior as the “discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about work-

related issues with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning” (Morrison, 2011, p. 375). The notion of voice is thus grounded in a premise: Employees speak when driven by a source of dissatisfaction or an opportunity to optimize organizational well-being. The opportunity to speak always includes the choice to remain silent. The literature indicates that employees facing this choice often choose silence for fear of negative consequences, rejecting the possibility of improvement that voice presents (Detert and Burris, 2007). Understanding what drives employees to voice to the leader can help to promote changes in organizational functioning, as employee voice is positively related to improvement in processes, innovation, and productivity (Ruiz-Palomino *et al.*, 2019).

Some researchers find that perceived leadership style is a key input in employees’ decision to voice. For example, Detert and Burris (2007) find that open management leadership, which is oriented to change, is consistently related to voice. Their results are less consistent for transformational leadership style, however, suggesting that some behavior included in this construct sends confusing signals to employees about whether it is advisable to speak. In the interest of understanding how leaders can jeopardize voice, other authors affirm that subordinates tend to remain silent when they perceive their leaders as ambiguous or indeterminate. Detert and Burris (2007), for example, indicate that

adaptive or contingent leadership style creates an uncertain environment that inhibits employee voice.

PLSH is the opposite of adaptive or contingent leadership style. Zhang *et al.* (2015) show that PLs go beyond contingent adaptation, constantly exhibiting a stable set of behaviors. Such leaders eliminate adaptive or contingent responses that may confuse employees as to whether their voice will be well received. PLs adopt a "both/and" strategy (Lewis *et al.*, 2014; Zhang *et al.*, 2015), assuming that the extremes of the paradox form part of a whole and responding with stable and consistent behavior that employees can easily predict. By eliminating adaptive or contingent behavior, PLSH eliminates the uncertainty that could inhibit employee voice behaviors by making the leader's actions predictable for followers.

From SLT, we know that role modelling encourages frontline employees to take the leader's behavior as a guide for their own. Stable behavior from the leader could thus result in stable employee voice behavior. When leaders depart from adaptive or contingent behavior by acting predictably to their employees, they give employees security that their voices are welcome. From the individual's perspective, therefore, we propose that the especially balanced and stable nature of PLSH encourages a work context that drives employees to voice to the leader.

We expect the PL's stable behavior beyond situational adaptations to stimulate a stable routine of voice in subordinates. In other words, employees will feel safer and be more willing to voice to improve organizational functioning. Based on this reasoning, we propose:

H3a. PLSH is positively related to employee voice.

In analyzing the relationship between employee voice and extra-role service, the literature identifies both behaviors as stemming from proactive attitude. For Parker and Collins (2010), each of these behaviors impacts the organization positively at different levels. Voice impacts the organization's internal environment, becoming a proactive workplace behavior. In contrast, employees' actions that respond or adapt to the environment (such as extra-role service) can be considered as proactive strategic behavior. Both behaviors share the same motivation: to initiate a change. That is, the employee seeks to generate positive change and acts proactively to achieve it. For Pinder (1984), because motivation determines the direction and intensity of behavior, the same motivation will guide both behaviors in the same direction. Since voice and extra-role service share a common proactive motivation, we also expect them to share direction and intensity. For example, employees committed to voicing to improve the organization through constructive suggestions are

also likely to undertake actions that improve customer service by going beyond their role.

Based on the foregoing, we expect the common motivation of these two behaviors to establish a positive relationship between them. Since both behaviors are driven by a proactive attitude toward change, employees involved in proactive behavior that seeks internal improvement in the organization (such as employee voice) will also be willing to develop proactive behavior (such as extra-role service) to improve the organization relative to its environment. When employees choose to participate by improving the organization internally through their voice, their proactive intention to generate positive change will not be limited to change within the organization. Such motivation should extend to extra-role service that seeks competitive improvement of the organization, that is, to external improvement. The foregoing arguments lead us to propose:

H3b. Employee voice is positively related to extra-role service.

Finally, to advance understanding of PLSH's effect on extra-role service, we propose that voice mediates the main relationship. Further, identifying mechanisms that improve frontline employees' communication helps employees to face the uncertainty involved in hotel service interactions (Francis and Baum, 2018). Prior studies demonstrate

that the mechanism of employee voice combines elements of the organizational context, such as leadership style, with proactive or creative employee behavior, such as extra-role service. Along these lines, Chen and Hou (2016) have shown that voice acts as a mediator in the process by which the leader influences employees' creative behavior. When they express opinions and ideas, employees stimulate their own creativity and that of the group. Frazier and Bowler (2015) also affirm that voice can mediate the relationship between perceived supervisory style and employees' level of performance, as employee participation through suggestions leads to better conflict resolution and work processes, creating the context in which the supervisor can influence employees' proactive performance. The foregoing suggests that voice mediates the relationship between PLSH and extra-role service.

Based on these arguments, we can infer that employee voice will mediate the relationship between PLSH and extra-role service. As proposed in H3a and H3b, followers of PLs may be willing to participate more through their voice, and greater participation is positively related to extra-role service behavior. We expect the opinions and ideas employees express (voice) to function as a mechanism through which PLSH contributes to resolving the paradoxes or conflicts associated with extra role-service. We thus argue that PLSH's stimulation of employee

voice (such as suggestions or ideas for optimal guest service) contributes to resolving paradoxes or conflicts associated with extra-role service, facilitating the latter's emergence. Based on this expectation, we propose:

H3c. Employee voice mediates the direct relationship between PLSH and extra-role service.

Figure 2.1 represents the research model developed.

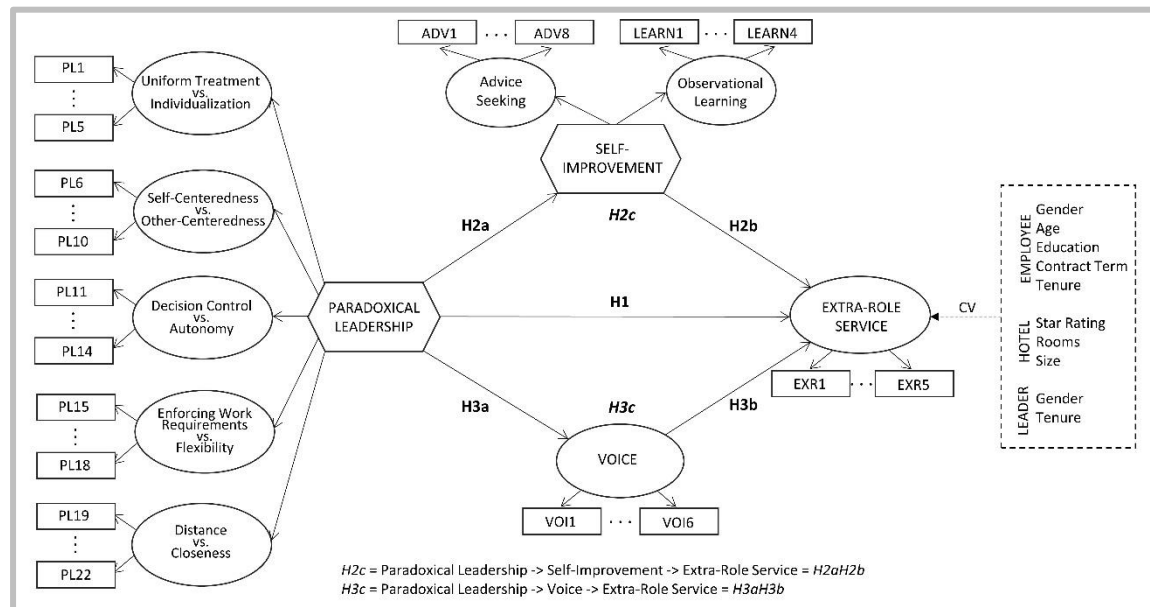


Figure 2.1. Research model

Notes: Italics used for mediation hypotheses; CV=control variables

2.3. Materials and methods

2.3.1. Sample and procedure

This study analyzes a convenience sample of employees in direct and frequent contact with guests (front desk, reservations, and concierge staff) in hotels located in Spain. The field study was performed from December 20, 2019 to February 20, 2020. The research team visited 81 hotels and invited 400 employees to participate voluntarily in the study—the number needed to yield a sample with sufficient statistical power, based on suggestions in the literature that paper-and-pencil questionnaires obtain a response rate of around 50% (e.g., Nutly, 2008). At each visit, we delivered the questionnaire personally to employees interested in participating in the study and collected their responses to guarantee confidentiality. We obtained 311 complete responses to the survey, giving a response rate of 77.8%. Incomplete surveys were discarded. Table 2.1 summarizes the sociodemographic profile of the participants.

The World Tourism Organization ranks Spain as the second-highest country worldwide in number of tourists received (WTO, 2019). Spain's tourism sector made the largest contribution to the nation's GDP in 2019 (15%), employing approximately 14% of the working population, according to the National Statistics Institute (INE). The Spanish hospitality sector is significant not only in business volume and number of visitors;

Spanish cities host mixed tourism that includes both travelers seeking leisure and rest and travelers seeking “cultural tourism” (Elche *et al.*, 2020). Further, Spanish hotels receive a high number of international guests (Aguilar-Quintana *et al.*, 2021) of very diverse cultural origin. These guests’ different expectations and cultures place frontline employees in Spanish hotels in contradictory or paradoxical service situations that demand behavior beyond their formal role to satisfy the customer.

Table 2.1

Sociodemographic characteristics of the sample

Respondent Demographics	Frequency(%)	Hotel Characteristics	Frequency(%)
Gender		Hotel star rating	
Female	149(47.9)	Two-star	30(9.6)
Male	162(52.1)	Three-star	101(32.5)
		Four-star	169(54.3)
Education		Five-star	11(3.6)
Compulsory	22(7.1)		
Noncompulsory and higher	289(92.9)	Average no. rooms	
		78	
Age			
<30	142(45.6)	Hotel size (no. employees)	
31-40	110(35.5)	<20	206(66.2)
41-50	44(14.1)	21-40	43(13.8)
>51	15(4.8)	41-60	45(14.5)
		>61	17(5.5)
Contract term			
Indefinite	222(71.4)	Average organizational tenure	
Fixed-term	89(28.6)	5 years	
N=311			

The sample was selected through convenience sampling using criteria applied in prior research on the tourism sector (Elche *et al.*, 2020;

Garg and Dhar, 2016; Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2018, 2019; Zhao and Guo, 2019). First, the participants were chosen for their accessibility and availability during the visit (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019). These circumstances also determined the geographic scope of the sample, which spanned a manageable number of cities chosen for their importance to the Spanish hospitality sector. Second, since the dependent variable in our study is extra-role service, our sample was limited to employees in direct contact with customers (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019). Finally, we chose nonmanagerial employees to guarantee that the respondents spent the maximum time possible interacting with guests (Karatepe and Karadas, 2015). The sample's distribution is quite similar to that of the 2019 Spanish hospitality industry's workforce in terms of employees' education level and contract type. According to the INE's 2019 Economically Active Population Survey, salaried workers in tourist lodging services who held a secondary school degree or higher represented 91.4% of the total workforce, a figure very close to the 92.9% in our sample. Workers who held indefinite contracts with the company represented 68.9% (71% in our sample). To confirm whether the participants' responses differed significantly based on sample characteristics, we performed an ANOVA on the population means and Levene's test. Based on various sample characteristics such as hotel category, type of contract, length of workday, and gender, the results

showed no statistically significant differences in participants' responses on items related to the dependent study variable.

Since the data were self-reported and gathered simultaneously, we took measures to eliminate common method bias (CMB) (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). First, to avoid influencing the responses' meaning, the questionnaire items did not identify the names or dimensions of the study variables (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2018). Second, to create psychological separation, the variables were presented in different sections with separate and different instructions (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019). Third, to avoid social desirability bias, the questionnaire was delivered with an envelope, guaranteeing privacy and anonymity of the responses returned. Finally, written instructions clarified that there were no wrong or right answers (Karatepe *et al.*, 2020). Fourth, we used several methods to verify that our work was free of CMB. We applied Harman's single-factor test and studied measurement model fit through the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) and the correlations among variables (Gutierrez-Gutierrez *et al.*, 2018; Volberda *et al.*, 2012). We also used the correlation marker technique (Lindell and Whitney, 2001). None of these tests suggested a problem with CMB.

2.3.2. Instruments

We designed the questionnaire for this exploratory study by adapting different scales developed in the management literature. These scales had previously been subjected to validation processes that included checking the items' reliability and validity. All variables were measured using a 7-point Likert scale (1=completely disagree to 7=completely agree). We used the original items, making minor adaptations to the language so that items referred to the hospitality environment and self-report questionnaire. The items and main descriptive statistics are available on request.

Paradoxical Leadership: We adapted the 22-item scale developed by Zhang *et al.* (2015) to measure PLSH using an individual-level approach. This scale has been used previously at individual level in the hospitality sector (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019). Sample items include “My supervisor uses a fair approach to treat all subordinates uniformly but also treats them as individuals” and “My supervisor controls important work issues but allows subordinates to handle details.”

Self-Improvement: We adapted 4 items used by Lee and Duffy (2019) to measure observational learning in the workplace as an instrument of self-improvement. Sample items include “I try to learn from co-workers' behavior” and “I carefully observe co-workers' behavior.” We also adapted the 8-item scale developed by Major and Kozlowski (1997)

to measure advice seeking. Sample items include “*I initiate conversations with my co-workers or supervisor for advice about specific work tasks.*”

Voice: We adapted the 6-item scale developed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998), used recently by Garg and Dhar (2016). Sample items include “*I voice my ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.*”

Extra-role service: We used 5 items included in the scale developed by Bettencourt and Brown (1997) and employed previously in the hospitality industry context (Garg and Dhar, 2016). Sample items include “*In my work I... help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required*” and “*...often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.*”

Control variables: We used control variables related to employees’ characteristics—gender (male; female), age (number of years), education (compulsory; noncompulsory), contract term (indefinite; fixed-term), and tenure (no. months); hotels’ characteristics—star rating (no. stars), number of rooms, and hotel size (no. employees); and leaders’ characteristics—gender (male; female) and tenure (no. months). Prior studies in hospitality have controlled for these variables to dismiss alternate explanations for behavior of the dependent variable (Elche *et al.*, 2020; Jaiswal and Dhar, 2015). Stronger orientation to care, accumulated knowledge, and greater stability in the organization may

give participating subjects access to the personal and organizational resources needed to perform extra-role service successfully. Further, larger hotels may have more means of control, while hotels with higher star ratings may focus more on employees' extra-role behavior as a distinctive element of service. Finally, the leader's gender and tenure may influence employees' extra-role behavior due to the leader's orientation to care and greater knowledge of the organization and its processes.

2.3.3. *Analytic strategy*

The theoretical model proposed was examined through structural equation modelling. PLS-SEM is a robust method for estimating data with both normal and extremely non-normal distribution (Hair *et al.*, 2019b). As our study used a data set with non-normal distribution, PLS-SEM is preferable to other multivariate techniques (Hair *et al.*, 2019a). Further, as a variance-based method, PLS-SEM is the best method when the model analyzed is complex—that is, when it includes mediating composites and second-order constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2019a). PLS-SEM can obtain robust results for our study's complex multiple measurement model with second-order constructs (PLSH and self-improvement). Finally, PLS-SEM can handle models that include constructs formed with either one or several indicators without causing problems of identification (Hair *et al.*, 2019a). It can also handle metric data from interval scales, ordinal data

with equidistant point values, and data with binary coding. Our study's variety of measures and configurations for the constructs required adding control variables to the model, further supporting choice of PLS-SEM.

All latent variables in our study represent constructs related to employee behavior. These constructs symbolize theoretical concepts in behavioral research that cannot be observed directly (Hair *et al.*, 2019b). The existing literature proposes that such behavioral or attitudinal concepts are better measured through reflective models (Henseler, 2017). Further, since both PLSH and self-improvement represent second-order constructs, we evaluated the measurement model in two additional stages (Hair *et al.*, 2019b), using SmartPLS v3.2.9 in two stages: (1) evaluation of the measurement model's reliability and validity, and (2) testing of the relationships hypothesized among constructs.

2.4. Results

2.4.1. Evaluation of the measurement model

We initially evaluated whether the lower-order components satisfied the criteria established in the literature. We assessed an item's individual reliability by examining its loading or simple correlation with each construct, requiring a value above 0.707 (Hair *et al.*, 2019a). As this parameter was fulfilled for all cases except LP7, LP7 was eliminated.

Construct reliability was validated using three criteria: (1) Cronbach's Alpha values above 0.7, (2) composite reliability above 0.7, and (3) values for Dijkstra-Henseler's statistic above 0.7. These parameters were fulfilled, ensuring high correlation among the composites (Hair *et al.*, 2019a). Average variance extracted took values above 0.5 for each construct, ensuring convergent validity (Hair *et al.*, 2019a). Finally, all latent variables achieved discriminant validity, taking values below 0.90 for the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) matrix (Hair *et al.*, 2019b).

Table 2.2

Reliability and validity for first- and second-order variables

		Factor Loading	CR ^a	AVE ^b	α^c
<i>PARADOXICAL LEADERSHIP</i>			<i>0.947</i>	<i>0.782</i>	<i>0.93</i>
Treating uniformly vs. Individualization	(UI) PLSH1	0.848	0.937	0.749	0.916
	PLSH2	0.905			
	PLSH3	0.857			
	PLSH4	0.875			
	PLSH5	0.841			
Self-Centeredness vs. Other-Centeredness	(SO) PLSH6	0.787	0.917	0.734	0.878
	PLSH8	0.876			
	PLSH9	0.923			
	PLSH10	0.835			
Decision_control vs. Autonomy	(CA) PLSH11	0.865	0.929	0.767	0.899
	PLSH12	0.885			
	PLSH13	0.881			
	PLSH14	0.871			
Enforcing_work vs. Flexibility	(RF) PLSH15	0.849	0.900	0.692	0.851
	PLSH16	0.774			
	PLSH17	0.866			
	PLSH18	0.835			
Distance vs. Closeness	(DC) PLSH19	0.893	0.929	0.767	0.898
	PLSH20	0.785			
	PLSH21	0.937			
	PLSH22	0.881			

<i>SELF-IMPROVEMENT</i>			<i>0.894</i>	<i>0.809</i>	<i>0.764</i>
	ADV1	0.808			
	ADV2	0.888			
	ADV3	0.838			
Advice Seeking	ADV4	0.839	0.949	0.698	0.938
	ADV5	0.847			
	ADV6	0.863			
	ADV7	0.849			
	ADV8	0.745			
	LEARN1	0.800			
Observational Learning	LEARN2	0.860	0.904	0.702	0.858
	LEARN3	0.878			
	LEARN4	0.812			
<i>VOICE</i>			<i>0.926</i>	<i>0.677</i>	<i>0.904</i>
	VOI1	0.776			
	VOI2	0.844			
	VOI3	0.819			
	VOI4	0.791			
	VOI5	0.871			
	VOI6	0.834			
<i>EXTRA-ROLE SERVICE</i>			<i>0.933</i>	<i>0.736</i>	<i>0.910</i>
	EXR1	0.872			
	EXR2	0.891			
	EXR3	0.879			
	EXR4	0.869			
	EXR5	0.772			

Notes: Italics used for second-order constructs; ^aComposite Reliability; ^bAverage Variance Extracted; ^cCronbach's Alpha

After confirming the first stage, we proceeded to the second, which used the points obtained for the latent variables of the first-order constructs as estimators of the latent variables in the second-order model (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2019). We reevaluated the qualities of our reflective model, this time including the higher-order components. This analysis ensured reliability and validity of the measurement elements, which fulfilled the same criteria observed in the first stage. Table 2.2

summarizes the results obtained for the reliability and validity statistics for the first- and second-order reflective latent variables. Table 2.3 summarizes the results of discriminant validity assessment using the HTMT criterion including the first- and second-order variables.

Table 2.3.

Discriminant validity using HTMT criterion

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
(1) Advice Seeking											
(2) Decision control vs. Autonomy	0.514										
(3) Distance vs. Closeness	0.516	0.857									
(4) Extra-Role Service	0.404	0.396	0.286								
(5) Observational Learning	0.684	0.531	0.556	0.375							
(6) Enforcing work vs. Flexibility	0.460	0.887	0.896	0.368	0.527						
(7) Self- vs. Other-Centeredness	0.466	0.833	0.783	0.465	0.440	0.824					
(8) Treating uniformly vs. Individualization	0.491	0.736	0.725	0.355	0.522	0.783	0.803				
(9) Voice	0.508	0.554	0.461	0.464	0.563	0.500	0.483	0.491			
(10) Paradoxical Leadership				0.416					0.553		
(11) Self-Improvement				0.472					0.677	0.099	

Notes: Italics used for second-order construct values; Significant values based on bootstrapping test (5000 subsamples)

2.4.2. Evaluation of the structural model

We assessed the structural model using a set of criteria that established absence of collinearity as an initial premise, analyzed the statistical relevance and significance of the path coefficients and effect size (f^2) for the hypothesized relationships, assessed the coefficient of determination (R^2), tested overall model fit, and finally evaluated the model's predictive relevance through the Q^2 statistics (Hair *et al.*, 2019a).

First, we assessed the possibility of collinearity among the predictive constructs. Variance inflation factors (VIFs) should ideally be below 3 (Hair *et al.*, 2019b). We confirmed this premise for all cases, dismissing concerns about collinearity among the antecedent variables (see Table 2.4). Figure 2.2 presents the results for the hypothesized model relationships. Table 2.4 displays the values derived from full evaluation of the structural model. To confirm that the values obtained for the path coefficients were always consistent, we performed a *bootstrapping* test (one-tailed, 5000 subsamples). The value zero did not appear in any of the confidence intervals, confirming the statistical significance of the coefficients.

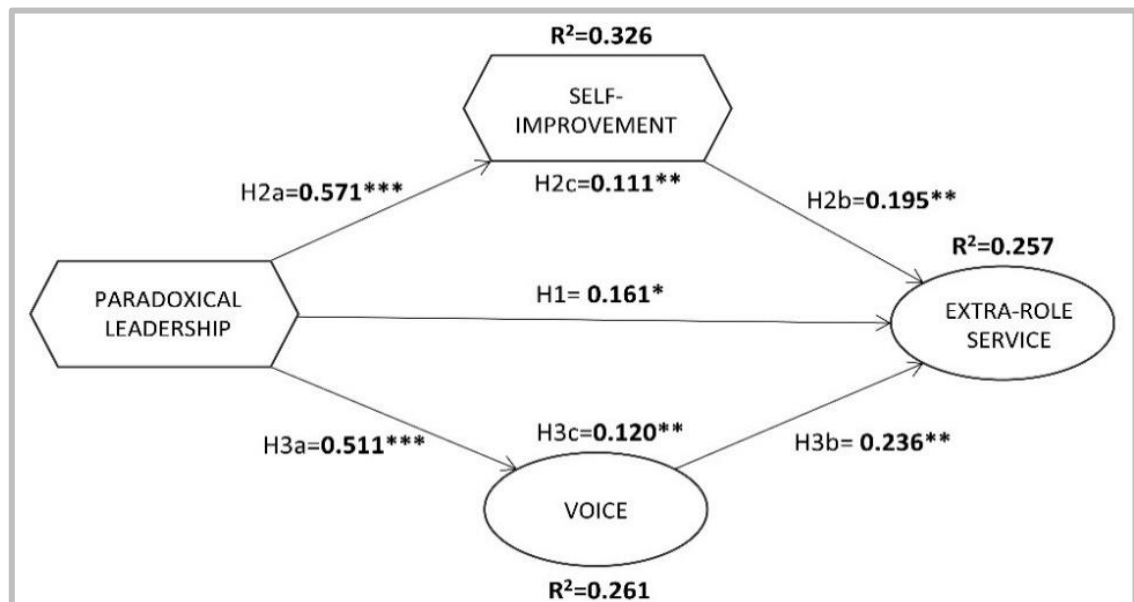


Figure 2.2. *Evaluation of the structural model*

Notes: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Analysis of the structural relationships supported all hypotheses. First, PLSH was positively related to employee extra-role service ($\beta=0.162$, $p<0.05$, $f^2=0.02$), providing support for H1. PLSH was also positively related to employees' self-improvement ($\beta=0.571$, $p <0.001$, $f^2=0.483$), indicating solid support for H2a. Similarly, the results for H2b confirmed a positive and significant relationship of self-improvement to extra-role service ($\beta=0.166$, $p<0.05$, $f^2=0.021$). We obtained a substantial positive relationship of PLSH to employee voice ($\beta=0.511$, $p<0.001$, $f^2=0.353$), strongly supporting H3a. The results for H3b confirm a positive and significant relationship of voice to extra-role service ($\beta=0.249$, $p<0.01$, $f^2=0.050$). Finally, none of the control variables was significantly related to employees' extra-role service. The control variables were added to the model, simultaneously and as a single-item latent variables, to control for their influence on the endogenous variable. Table 2.4 presents the values obtained from analysis of these relationships.

Table 2.4 also displays the values obtained for the coefficient of determination R^2 . Interpretation of the coefficient depends on the model's complexity and the nature of the study variables. Values above 0.20 show that the model has reasonable explanatory capability for the variables analyzing behavior (Hair *et al.*, 2019a). Finally, following Cohen (1992), we classified our results for effect size as follows: no effect ($f^2<0.02$), weak ($f^2>0.02$), medium ($f^2>0.15$), strong effect ($f^2>0.35$).

Table 2.4
Evaluation of the structural model

	VIF	Path Coefficient ^a	t-Values	Confidence Interval ^b
H1: PLSH->Extra-Role	1.704	0.161(0.025)	1.955	[0.033, 0.304] Sig.
H2a: PLSH->Self-Improvement	1.000	0.571(0.000)	10.311	[0.479, 0.661] Sig.
H3a: PLSH->Voice	1.000	0.511(0.000)	8.991	[0.416, 0.604] Sig.
H2a: Self-Improvement->Extra-Role	1.911	0.195(0.008)	2.422	[0.058, 0.323] Sig.
H3b: Voice->Extra-Role	1.696	0.236(0.003)	2.765	[0.097, 0.375] Sig.
Control variable				
Age->Extra-Role	1.964	-0.015(0.424)	0.192	[-0.153, 0.107] N.Sig.
Contract Term->Extra-Role	1.416	0.010(0.438)	0.156	[-0.093, 0.108] N.Sig.
Education->Extra-Role	1.107	-0.074(0.073)	1.453	[-0.154, 0.012] N.Sig.
Gender ->Extra-Role	1.182	0.015(0.391)	0.276	[-0.077, 0.103] N.Sig.
Leader Gender->Extra-Role	1.209	0.034(0.275)	0.599	[-0.061, 0.125] N.Sig.
Leader Tenure->Extra-Role	2.244	0.036(0.331)	0.438	[-0.093, 0.174] N.Sig.
Hotel Size->Extra-Role	3.121	-0.021(0.387)	0.288	[-0.139, 0.098] N.Sig.
Hotel Rooms->Extra-Role	2.860	-0.07(0.181)	0.910	[-0.196, 0.057] N.Sig.
Hotel Star Rating->Extra-Role	1.332	0.079(0.106)	1.249	[-0.020, 0.190] N.Sig.
Employee Tenure->Extra-Role	2.548	-0.012(0.441)	0.147	[-0.145, 0.118] N.Sig.
Endogenous variable		R²	Adjusted R²	
Extra-Role		0.257	0.227	
Self-Improvement		0.326	0.323	
Voice		0.261	0.258	
Overall fit		SRMR Saturated Model		SRMR Estimated Model
		0.036		0.059

Notes: PLSH=Paradoxical Leadership; ^a=p-values are presented in parentheses; ^b=One-tailed test based on 5000 subsamples; Sig.=significant direct effect; N.Sig.=non-significant direct effect.

We evaluated the SRMR to approximate fit of the data to the proposed theoretical model (Hair *et al.*, 2019b). From a conservative perspective, values below 0.08 indicate good fit (Hair *et al.*, 2019a). For our data, both the saturated and the estimated model obtained values below this cutoff, indicating good fit. Finally, we followed a *blindfolding* procedure to assess the value of Stone-Geiser's Q^2 . This procedure isolated part of the sample to confirm the capability of the rest to reproduce its values correctly, yielding values of 0.167 and 0.255 for Q^2 . Values of Q^2 greater than 0 indicate that the model has sufficient capability to reproduce the isolated part of the sample (Hair *et al.*, 2019b). Table 2.4 summarizes the results for evaluation of the structural model, including analysis of the direct relationships, control variables, and results for the endogenous variables and model fit.

2.4.3. Multiple mediation analysis

We analyzed the mediation effects following the procedure in Hair *et al.* (2019a) for multiple mediation models. To determine the effects, we used a *bootstrapping* test (one-tailed, 5000 subsamples). Both the direct ($\beta=0.162$, $p<0.023$) and the indirect relationship ($\beta=0.222$, $p<0.001$) were significant and positive. These results confirm that the variables self-improvement and employee voice exerted a complementary partial mediating effect on our model, supporting H2c and H3c. To complement these analyses, we performed a VAF test to confirm our conclusion about

the partial effects of mediations H2c and H3c. Following Hair *et al.* (2019a), VAF values between 20% and 80% indicate partial mediation. Table 2.5 summarizes the results of our analysis of the multiple mediation effects.

Table 2.5
Mediation analysis

	Path Coefficient ^a	Confidence Interval ^b	t- Value	VAF	Conclusion
Direct Effects					
H1	0.161(0.025)	[0.033, 0.304]	1.955		
Specific Indirect Effects					
H2c	0.111(0.008)	[0.037, 0.189]	2.407	28.34%	CPM
H3c	0.120(0.003)	[0.053, 0.196]	2.732	30.69%	CPM
Total					
Indirect Effects	0.231(0.000)	[0.128, 0.346]	3.491		
TOTAL					
EFFECTS	0.392(0.000)	[0.308, 0.488]	7.071	59.03%	

Notes: ^ap-values are presented in parentheses; ^bone-tailed test; VAF=Variance Accounted For; PLSH=Paradoxical Leadership; CPM=Complementary Partial Mediation

To compare the two mediation effects included in the model, we estimated whether a statistically significant difference exists between H2c and H3c by calculating the percentile and bias-corrected confidence interval (Carrion *et al.*, 2017). Since we did not propose a hypothesis about these results, we performed a two-tailed test. The results showed no differences between the effects of H2c and H3c ($\beta = -0.010^{\text{sig.}}$; $CI = 0.095 - 0.113$; $CI^{\text{BC}} = 0.099 - 0.117$).

2.5. Discussion and conclusions

2.5.1. Conclusions

This exploratory study produced some significant findings. Our results show a positive effect of PLSH on extra-role service in frontline employees. The reason may be that PLs show employees how to handle the contradictions associated with extra-role service. This effect is also partially mediated by the employee's self-improvement and organizational-improvement behavior (voice). Our findings provide academics and professionals with empirical evidence of PLSH's contributions to the hospitality industry by encouraging employees' orientation to continuous improvement. This behavior is valuable for addressing the need to foster the extra-role service essential for hotel success.

2.5.2. Theoretical implications

The study's results have various theoretical implications. First, we obtain empirical evidence that PLSH provides advantages in hospitality management, encouraging extra-role service. Prior research has demonstrated that more traditional leadership styles foster extra-role service (e.g., Gui *et al.*, 2020), but only a few studies have analyzed PLSH in the hospitality environment. This lack of research is surprising, given that PLSH can help to solve current problems. Hospitality work involves service interactions that are hard to predict and require increasingly

adaptive leadership and employees. Our study incorporates study of a little-studied leadership style into hospitality research and extends prior studies by demonstrating PLSH's positive influence on hospitality service. Our results also extend and confirm the findings of Huertas-Valdivia *et al.* (2019), who demonstrate PLSH's capability to foster flexibility in employees' actions, achieving autonomous and creative service behavior. Their study did not, however, include any variable linked expressly to service. Our findings on the effects of PLSH on hotel employees confirm that PLSH creates an environment that encourages frontline employees to fulfill guests' expectations by committing to extra-role service. She *et al.* (2020) linked PLSH to employee service performance through employee-leader identification, but their study did not resolve the question of whether PLSH directly influences employee service performance, as the authors only analyzed its indirect influence. We extend and confirm their research by explicitly confirming the direct and indirect effects of PLSH on extra-role service.

Second, our study contributes to identifying PLSH as an instrument to show employees how to manage the paradoxical effects of extra-role service. The literature shows that employees who engage in extra-role service may obtain either favorable (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2009) or unfavorable results (Bolino *et al.*, 2003). Hospitality research has generally analyzed the influence of different leadership styles without

considering the negative effects of extra-role service on the employee. Although we do not discuss the positive results of extra-role service here, our study extends hospitality research by including the possible negative consequences of extra-role service in our attempt to identify PLSH as a stimulator of such behavior. This perspective aligns with the results of some researchers who recommend considering the personal cost to employees of engaging in extra-role behavior (Bolino *et al.*, 2003). Our study complements these authors' perspective by providing a more complete, balanced view of this phenomenon. In light of our results, PLSH emerges as a leadership style that shows hotel employees an effective way to face the paradoxes associated with extra-role service by considering these paradoxes not as mutually exclusive options that require employees to choose between A and B but as parts of a whole.

Third, our research develops an innovative approach to constructing a framework that identifies employee behaviors inclined to continuous improvement. Our framework combines learning and self-improvement behaviors (Çelen *et al.*, 2010) with communication behaviors from theoretical development of employee voice (Morrison, 2011). Our study thus extends the results of Zhang *et al.* (2015) in finding that PLSH increases followers' motivation to improve themselves and the organization. We also find a significant relationship between PLSH, employees' learning and communication capacities, and extra-role

service. This finding confirms and extends prior studies (Rich *et al.*, 2010) arguing that workers with greater knowledge of their job requirements are more motivated to exert additional effort beyond their prescribed role. Further, we extend Pinder (1984) by obtaining evidence from a new context, the hospitality industry. This evidence confirms that frontline employees' proactive orientation acts as a common motivator guiding their voice and extra-role service in the same direction.

Finally, our study extends PLSH research in a Western context. The concept of PLSH was developed in an Asian context, and its effects may differ in other cultures. Although Zhang *et al.* (2015) proposed that "*holistic thinking and integrative complexity are universal*" and thus that Western leaders could be as holistic, integrative, and effective in managing paradoxes as their Asian counterparts (p. 560), the authors' assertion required confirmation. Our study adds to the very few studies that have extended PLSH to a more general context (Fürstenberg *et al.*, 2021; Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019). We decontextualize PLSH from the Asian culture in which it originated to test its effectiveness by integrating the paradoxes inherent in people management in hospitality service and facilitating positive results. In so doing, we consolidate the idea that PLSH is effective in cultural contexts different from Asian ones.

2.5.3. *Practical implications*

A hotel's success goes hand in hand with its employees' ability to go beyond their formal roles to attend to guests in a memorable way. Hospitality managers should therefore foster work environments that nurture development of extra-role service. Our study found that PLSH has direct and indirect positive effects on extra-role service. We therefore recommend that hospitality managers who select or train leaders—especially leaders who work with frontline employees—work to ensure that these leaders possess the characteristics of PLSH. For Zhang *et al.* (2015), PLSH responds to contradictory situations with stable, non-polarized behavior that avoids improvisation. For example, the PL provides uniform treatment of all followers while simultaneously attending to each individual, enforces work requirements but is perceived by employees as flexible, and maintains decision control while permitting employees autonomy. During recruitment and selection processes for supervisors or other staff responsible for frontline personnel, hotels' HR departments should include tests to detect PLSH skills. These departments could begin by adapting the tool developed by Zhang *et al.* (2015). Candidates with high scores on this scale should give hospitality organizations advantages by helping frontline employees to combat the paradoxes presented by increasingly complex, demanding guest service.

Further, our results show that self-improvement and employee voice act as mediators in the main relationship. Hotels can thus use PLSH to improve employees' intention to become involved in continuous improvement processes through voice and self-improvement. This finding identifies an opportunity for development in both the organization and employees. Another result is that organizations can stimulate development of extra-role service through orientation to improvement. Our study suggests that PLSH influences some employee behavior oriented to self-improvement (such as observational learning and seeking advice), as well as voice oriented to improving the organization. These results support the idea that employees who seek to improve themselves and the organization also provide better service. We therefore recommend that managers establish mentoring or training programs that assume the presence of a PL. Since PLSH style can be learned (She *et al.*, 2020), senior leaders who possess the capabilities to manage service paradoxes can serve as examples to shape new leaders' leadership style. A mentoring program with periodic meetings could train frontline supervisors to understand and face the paradoxes of hotel service. Further, HR departments can plan training programs based on role play or simulation of paradoxical service situations to help supervisors and frontline employees assimilate and integrate the paradoxical thinking and behavior described by Zhang *et al.* (2015). Such

programs can make both groups more adaptable to today's complex and competitive reality, particularly to the contingencies derived from people management, a priority in the industry (Guchait *et al.*, 2020).

2.5.4. Limitations and future research

Our findings should be interpreted based on the following limitations, which present opportunities for future study.

First, we tested our theoretical model using a convenience sample. Although this method is accepted in the tourism literature due to the sector's characteristics (e.g., Elche *et al.*, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2018), generalizing from our findings to the entire population may be limited by uncertainty about the representativeness of our sample. Future research could extend these results by analyzing samples representative of the population to permit generalization.

Second, we present a cross-sectional study that analyzes employees' perceptions at a specific moment in time, like a snapshot. This method limits interpretation of the results, as perceptions can change over time (Hsiao *et al.*, 2015). Future research could contrast our results through longitudinal studies to determine the variables' behavior over time and establish causal relationships.

Third, our study adopted an individual focus in its analysis of the effects of PLSH. A group- or multilevel analysis of the variable PLSH could

give rise to interesting conclusions. Researchers might also investigate the effect of PLSH on group voice or group improvement behavior and evaluate whether the impact of PLSH differs based on level of analysis.

Finally, interpretation of our findings is limited by our use of self-report data, which are susceptible to CMB. Since our study variables focus on employees' perceptions of leadership styles or of their own behavior, the self-report questionnaire is a valid measure (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019). Further, we followed Podsakoff *et al.* (2003) in designing the questionnaire to incorporate a set of preventive measures explained in Section 4.1 to minimize this effect. Testing confirms that CMB is not a problem in the study. Future research could include multiple sources for obtaining data, such as leaders' perceptions of their leadership style or of employees' behavior.

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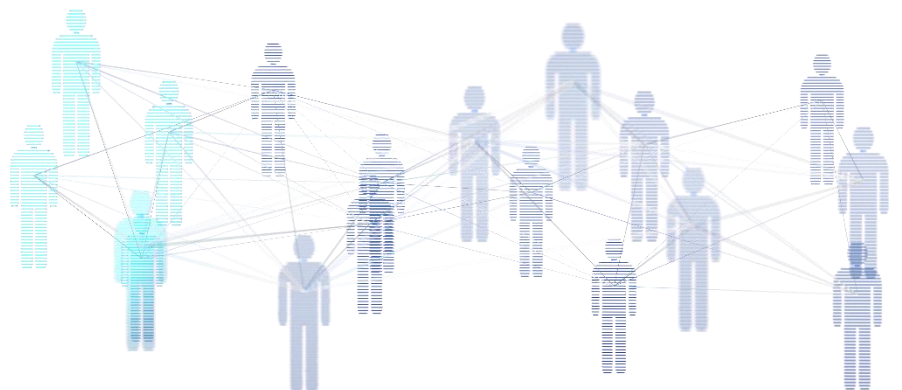
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3

EXTRA-ROLE SERVICE UNDER PRESSURE IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: THE ROLE OF MINDFULNESS



3. Extra-role service under pressure in the hospitality industry: The role of mindfulness.

ABSTRACT

Extra-role service is currently the keystone that supports hotels' ability to compete. At the same time, extra-role service depends on the discretionary behavior of some employees who perform their duties in a context of stress. Our study investigates the effect of a stressor such as performance pressure on extra-role service, using employee engagement as a mediator and mindfulness level as a moderating variable. Through structural equation modeling, we analyze data from 300 frontline hospitality employees. The results show a negative effect of increases in performance pressure on employees extra-role service behavior through their engagement. We therefore suggest that performance pressure can turn into a threatening stressor in hospitality work environment. We also confirm that the employee's mindfulness level moderates this relationship, compensating for nearly the entire negative effect of this specific stressor on employee engagement. Managers will find key insights that help them to stimulate high-quality service in hospitality organizations.

Keywords: Increases in Performance Pressure; Work Engagement; Extra-role Service Behavior; Mindfulness; Hospitality Work; Hotel Frontline Employees.

3.1. Introduction

In hospitality, extra-role service identifies a set of proactive behaviors to which frontline employees turn in striving to satisfy customers' requests beyond their formal duties, providing superior service (Garg & Dhar, 2016). While extra-role service is a highly valued behavior in hotel employees (Zhu et al., 2019), it involves discretionary action (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). That is, it depends on the good will of the worker, beyond the competences required (in-role service). Further, the employee's willingness to go beyond his or her formal role must emerge in an environment that the literature has described as especially stressful (e.g., Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019; Karatepe et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2019). Service provision 24/7, a culture of face time, high rotation, emotional work, and role inconsistency are some characteristics of hotel work (Zhao & Ghiselli, 2016). For example, hotel employees are often asked to change their role when necessary to adapt to guests' demands without asking their supervisor (Zhu et al., 2019). We could say that they must be prepared to put out fires wherever they flare up, using their discretion to perform behavior that guarantees high performance outside of their own work role.

In their enthusiasm to foster extra-role service, hospitality organizations may cause employees to experience pressure. Performance pressure has been defined as “a specific type of pressure

based on the belief that striving for performance excellence is needed and that performance efforts will be scrutinized and tied to significant consequences” (Mitchell et al., 2019, p. 534). Previous studies show that performance pressure behaves like a work stressor (e.g., Gutnick et al., 2012; Mitchell et al., 2018, 2019) and can be a “double-edged sword” when the organization seeks discretionary behavior in a stressful environment (Mitchell et al., 2019, p. 532). Following Ganster and Rosen (2013), stressors can be evaluated as threatening (producing dysfunctional behaviors) or challenging (producing functional behaviors). Understanding and controlling the effect of pressure on employees can be crucial to enabling the emergence of the extra-role service behavior that helps hotels to compete. Having identified this knowledge gap and the need for more empirical research on the phenomena studied, our investigation seeks to answer two questions: What role does pressure play in the workers’ intention to engage with extra-role service? Can mindfulness help the employee to control the effects of pressure in a stressful environment such as hospitality? More specifically, our goal is twofold: (1) to examine the indirect relationship of performance pressure to extra-role service, through the effect of increases in performance pressure on employee engagement; and (2) to explore whether a higher level of mindfulness can act as moderator in this relationship.

To illuminate the implications of increases in performance pressure for employees' extra-role performance, we study the indirect relationship created through employee engagement. To the best of our knowledge, the published literature does not support drawing a clear and direct line between performance pressure and discretionary work behavior such as extra-role service behaviors. It is possible, however, to draw a theoretical line that indirectly relates these variables through work engagement. Self-determination theory (SDT) has demonstrated that work situations with stressor effects on employees (e.g., work overload, role ambiguity) affect employees' motivation to focus on their work, which in turn affects their engagement level (Karatepe et al., 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Some studies point to engagement, rather than to other concepts such as satisfaction or involvement, as a decisive construct when attempting to predict job performance, since engaged individuals dedicate more energy to fulfilling tasks (Rich et al., 2010). We thus believe that engagement may mediate between a stressor such as performance pressure and extra-role service. Further, a recent study by Gallup (2017) presents engaged employees as a source of competitive advantage, arguing that business units composed of employees who score in the first quartile of the engagement scale double their potential for business success. Further, units that score in the highest 1% quadruple their success rate. Yet only one third of

employees stated that they were engaged in their company, and this fraction was even smaller for employees who had direct contact with customers (Gallup, 2017). This finding seems to indicate that “*the world at large is in the midst of an employee engagement crisis*” (Gallup, 2017, p. 61). These data suggest that we have not yet achieved effective results that produce more engaged employees. Further research is needed to clarify murky areas surrounding this problem. For example, we must identify the factors that block the emergence of engagement (Karatepe et al., 2018). Following the literature that points to stress factors as factors determining engagement (Karatepe et al., 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000), our study seeks to shed light on areas that remain unexplained by considering increases in performance pressure as an obstacle to engagement, and indirectly to extra-role service.

Finally, since research on the effects of pressuring employees to achieve better performance has obtained inconsistent results in the literature (Mitchell et al., 2019), we also try to understand how some workers manage this specific stressor easier than others. Various studies suggest that mindfulness could help employees to focus on performing the task at hand without thinking of the possible consequences, whether positive or negative, that follow from their performance (Glomb et al., 2011; Hülshager et al., 2013; Jimenez et al., 2010; Wu & Chen, 2019). It is thus worth asking whether mindfulness

can moderate employees' reaction to performance pressure in a stressful work environment such as hospitality. Further, although companies such as LinkedIn, Ford, Google, and Apple have begun to use mindfulness-based programs to foster wellbeing in their employees, the results on the benefits of such programs for organizations show mixed results (Hülshager et al., 2013; Li et al., 2017; Remmers et al., 2015; Stillman et al., 2014). Academia thus still takes no clear position on the effects of mindfulness on organizations (Glomb et al., 2011). This absence of such a position is especially striking in the field of tourism organizations (Wu & Chen, 2019). We respond to this gap by delineating the effect of mindfulness as moderator in pressure processes in the hospitality work context.

This study contributes to hospitality research by improving understanding and control of the effects of performance pressure on extra-role service. To achieve this goal, we identify performance pressure as a stressor that blocks the emergence of engagement, and indirectly of extra-role service. We also respond to the need to advance research on engagement (Karatepe et al., 2018), since the number of engaged employees to date is still lower than the number desired (Gallup, 2017). We therefore study how increases in performance pressure can determine the emergence or maintenance of engagement. For a more complete view, we analyze the effects of performance

pressure on extra-role service as an expected result of engagement. Finally, we identify mindfulness as a moderator of the negative influence of performance pressure on engagement. This moderation may explain employees' differing responses to performance pressure (Mitchell et al., 2018). Thus, our work offers empirical support to the line of research affirming the positive effects of mindfulness that can be aligned with organizational objectives even beyond personal ones (e.g., Babalola et al., 2019; Hülshager et al., 2013; Li et al., 2017).

Next, we describe the theoretical framework and the study hypotheses. We then present the data analysis and contrast the hypotheses. Finally, we present and discuss the main findings of our study and highlight the theoretical and practical implications, study limitations, and future lines of research.

3.2. Literature review and hypotheses

3.2.1. Self-Determination Theory

SDT explains how and why stressors that employees perceive as threats can frustrate basic universal needs for autonomy and competence or achievement, with irremediable consequences for employees' engagement due to decrease in intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This phenomenon then translates into a decrease in employees' intrinsic motivation (Kahn, 1990; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

From a theoretical perspective, the employee's intrinsic motivation is the source of behaviors tied to the physical, emotional, and cognitive aspects of engagement (Kahn, 1990). SDT can explain both the frustration of the employee's intrinsic motivation and the difficulty that the previous process generates in producing efforts to achieve high-quality performance (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

In line with this perspective, SDT could explain the mechanism through which increases in performance pressure are indirectly related to extra-role service behavior and how, by acting on that same mechanism, we can modify or moderate this relationship.

3.2.2. Performance pressure

Performance pressure is “a specific type of pressure based on the belief that striving for performance excellence is needed and that performance efforts will be scrutinized and tied to significant consequences” (Mitchell et al., 2019, p. 534). It is thus a matter of the employee's subjective perception that occurs when the demand for results that fulfill high standards is linked to consequences, both positive and negative. Employees who experience performance pressure feel impelled by the need to obtain the positive results of excellent achievement (e.g., better pay, promotion, recognition) and/or to avoid the negative consequences of not achieving such performance (e.g., ostracism, loss

of benefits, being fired). Starting with the study by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), various studies agree that the feeling of urgency employees experience, combined with the characteristics of the work environment, leads them to evaluate performance pressure as a threat, adding a significant job stressor (e.g., Gutnick et al., 2012; Mitchell et al., 2018).

It is widely accepted in the tourism management literature that the different characteristics of hospitality service could explain the way frontline employees face different job demands as stressors (Garg & Dhar, 2014; Karatepe et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2019). For Zohar (1994), hotel work is associated with ambiguous expectations of the employee concerning the task to perform or role to play, work overload, lack of autonomy in decisions, and lack of control of the process. For example, requiring front desk staff to provide detailed personalized attention to guests during the check-in process while also requiring them to perform this process quickly creates ambiguity on how to perform the task. What must the front desk clerk prioritize to achieve an excellent performance evaluation: quality or speed? The urgency of achieving both goals, combined with uncertainty about their compatibility, can translate into performance pressure. Further, since the “product” delivered to the customer is for instantaneous consumption and it is sometimes difficult to compensate satisfactorily for delayed attention or quality below that expected by the guest, it is crucial to live up to the

customer's expectations in every service interaction. Thus, the consequences of committing an error or being careless, increase the pressure employees feel about achieving the performance required, that is, increases their performance pressure. Although the hospitality industry has not been characterized as a sector with high performance pressure, it is a sector where work takes place in a stressful context. Several researchers who describe the hospitality work environment as especially stressful agree on this point (e.g., Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019; Karatepe et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2019). Some stressors that justify this characterization are service provision 24/7, face-to-face work, high turnover, emotional work, and role inconsistency. Our study adds performance pressure as a yet another stressor present in hospitality work.

3.2.3. Engagement

Schaufeli et al. (2006) define work engagement as “*a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption*” (p. 702). Drawing on the physical, emotional, and cognitive aspects described by Kahn (1990) in a study of engagement, Schaufeli et al. (2006) define the construct through three dimensions: (1) dedication represents the emotional aspect of engagement, in which engaged workers feel a strong emotional connection to their work and thus enthusiasm and pride of belonging. This emotional bond translates

into (2) vigor as a physical aspect of engagement. Vigor represents unique willingness of engaged employees to dedicate their best effort and energy to fulfilling the tasks entrusted to them. Finally, the cognitive aspect of engagement is represented as (3) absorption, the dimension in which it is common for engaged workers to become so absorbed in and concentrated on their tasks that they have difficulty paying attention to anything except their job activity (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli et al., 2006).

The management literature has spilled rivers of ink on the significant benefits of engagement, especially for firms in the tourism environment. For example, engagement has been related to increased job performance (Karatepe et al., 2014), innovative behavior, and organization engagement (Kim & Koo, 2017), as well as service behavior (Kim et al., 2019). Yet the evidence shows that the number of disengaged employees is still double that of engaged ones, especially among workers in direct contact with customers (Gallup, 2017). This inability to achieve engaged employees shows that our knowledge is still insufficient and may indicate that research has neglected important elements of the problem. Further research is needed on engagement to decipher the phenomenon more precisely (Karatepe et al., 2018). Better understanding of the stressors that impede emergence of engagement,

such as performance pressure, can contribute to better focus of efforts to achieve engaged employees.

The employee's intrinsic motivation is the source of behavior tied to the physical aspects of engagement (vigor), its emotional aspects (dedication), and its cognitive aspects (absorption) (Kahn, 1990). Based on the study by Ryan and Deci (2000), SDT indicates that contextual stressors such as evaluation pressure, imposition of unshared goals, or tangible compensation systems undermine employees' self-determination, frustrating their basic needs for autonomy and competence or achievement. This phenomenon translates into a decrease in employees' intrinsic motivation, which can in turn decrease their engagement by affecting its dimensions of vigor, dedication, and absorption (Kahn, 1990; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Empirical evidence shows similar phenomena in the hospitality industry. Some works have demonstrated the negative effect of different contextual stressors on workers' engagement. For example, Kim et al. (2019) linked work tension measured by conflict, overload, and role ambiguity to decrease in engagement. A negative relationship between stress caused by emotional work in frontline employees and their engagement has also been recorded (Lee & Madera, 2019). Performance pressure is a significant job stressor (Mitchell et al., 2018) that could block the physical, emotional, and cognitive dimensions that

characterize engagement. We therefore expect increases in performance pressure to have unfavorable effects on engagement.

Therefore, SDT helps us to hypothesize that the stressor effect of performance pressure will make it harder for workers to satisfy their needs for achievement or competence and autonomy. This negative effect decreases their self-determination and intrinsic motivation, both of which are sources of engagement. Ultimately, when employees perceive any level of performance pressure, the stress they experience erodes their intrinsic motivation, blocking their emotional connection (dedication), energy (vigor), and concentration (absorption) at work. We thus propose that employee engagement will decrease when employees experience performance pressure, which leads us to formulate the following hypothesis:

H1. Performance pressure is negatively related to engagement.

3.2.4. Extra-role Service

Bettencourt and Brown, (1997) define extra-role service as a set of “discretionary behaviors of contact employees in serving customers that extend beyond formal role requirements” (p. 41). In hospitality work, extra-role service represents the highly proactive behavior of employees willing to apply all of their resources to satisfy guests’ demands, even if this means exceeding their job duties (Garg & Dhar,

2016). Extra-role service is thus a construct that indicates excellent job performance in frontline employees in hospitality firms. It has been related to improvement in organizational performance, customer satisfaction, and perceived service quality (Kim & Brymer, 2011; Limpanitgul et al., 2013; Tsaur & Lin, 2004).

Bettencourt and Brown (1997) have described extra-role service as a discretionary behavior, indicating that not all employees are willing to perform it. Given the relevance of these discretionary behaviors for hotel sector performance, various authors have been calling for greater understanding of the circumstances that encourage such service (Garg & Dhar, 2016; Karatepe, 2013b).

In considering the discretionary nature of extra-role service, it is worth asking what inclines employees to depart from their formal role to satisfy guests' demands, as opposed to remaining in their formal role and strictly fulfilling the prescribed task. We could surmise that staying within the prescribed role gives employees greater security than venturing to take on a role not assigned to them. For example, when a guest expresses special interest in the city's artistic heritage during the check-in process, the clerk will need to manage the customer's check-in as efficiently, quickly, and cordially as possible, providing a brochure the hotel has available on the city's heritage. With this action, the clerk complies with what was expected, whether with implicit hotel

or brand standards or explicit obligations specified in employment contract, job description, or performance evaluation process. From an extra-role perspective, however, the clerk could take time to share information with the guest on unadvertised aspects of the city's cultural heritage usually known only to residents and not included in the tourism offerings. This second option could mean that the clerk delays pending tasks and must make a greater effort to complete these tasks on time, but it would certainly better meet the expectations of this particular guest. Extra-role behavior is not, therefore, a matter of complying with what is expected, but of going further, at one's discretion, when what is prescribed could be insufficient to achieve excellent service capable of exceeding the guest's expectations. Some authors argue that employees' degree of engagement affects their willingness to help, as explained by their greater empathy for the customer's needs (Kahn, 1990)—undoubtedly a seed of extra-role service behavior.

The results of some recent studies of the hospitality industry enable us to consider employees' engagement level as a potential basis for their inclination to extra-role service behavior. Some authors have indicated that engaged employees can achieve greater levels of quality in the service delivery process due to the greater physical energy they dedicate to their tasks, as well as greater dedication and concentration (Karatepe, 2013a; Zhu et al., 2019). In addition to quality service, extra-

role service in the hotel industry involves employees' capability autonomously to seek and find solutions to unexpected situations that arise during interaction with guests. For example, Kim and Koo (2017) indicate that engaged employees can involve themselves intensely in performing tasks, facilitating the emergence of more innovative service behavior and autonomous search for solutions. Such involvement could translate into employees' broader perception of their role and thus into an increase in their extra-role service behavior. Other authors have pointed out, however, that employees' expression of some commitment to their organizational role does not necessarily imply their willingness to go beyond this prescribed role during service. Some authors argue that departing from the prescribed role can create problems for employees (Bolino et al., 2003, 2004). These contradictions associated with extra-role behaviors can lead employees to play it safe, focusing strictly on their work duties (Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2021). The relationship between engagement and extra-role service behaviors must thus be tested in our model.

Therefore, the foregoing research helps us to hypothesize that engaged employees will put an amount of physical, cognitive and emotional energy into their work that will lead to an increase in their capability to empathize with the guest's needs, offering guests discretionary behavior to guarantee their wellbeing. We thus propose

that engagement acts as a turning point that bends the employee's will to discretionary, autonomous, and innovative service behavior in an effort to satisfy the guest, even beyond the employee's formal role. We suggest that engagement facilitates extra-role service behavior. In view of this thinking, we propose:

H2. Work engagement is positively related to extra-role service.

Additionally, we consider engagement as a mediator in the main relationship. This analysis enables us to advance understanding of the effects of performance pressure on employees' extra-role performance and to identify performance pressure as a stressor capable of determining employee engagement in the hospitality context (Karatepe et al., 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Prior studies have consistently indicated that employee engagement can act as a mediator in the relationship between a stressor (such as performance pressure) and some kinds of workers performance. In hospitality research—and more specifically in the recent study by Karatepe et al. (2018) of stressors, engagement, and job outcomes in hotel employees—the authors analyze a variety of relationships among various constructs. Among other results, they find that hindrance stressors are negatively related to employee engagement, which in turn is positively related to extra-role job

performance. Analysis of the direct relationships between stressors and extra-role job performance did not always obtain significant results, however; some types of stressors were reduced, but not all. One of the authors' explanations for this result is the nature of each type of stressor (challenge vs. hindrance). In a study of frontline employees in five-star hotels in Cyprus, Karatepe et al. (2014) showed that employee engagement fully mediated the relationship between work overload and job responsibility—as two challenge stressors—influence workers' overall job performance. The authors proposed different alternate models, however, in which they could not find evidence of a significant direct relationship between the stressors studied and employees' overall job performance. This full mediation occurs because employees tend to invest more energy, absorption, and vigor—in sum, greater engagement—to meet stressful demands when they evaluate the demands as challenging. This tendency in turn translates into greater efforts to meet performance requirements in the service delivery process. Although Karatepe et al. (2014) did not analyze this issue, we can deduce that a similar process but with a negative effect will occur due to hindrance stressors. Taking a different approach, Garg and Dhar (2014) examine how stressors affect employees' organizational engagement level and its consequent impact on the quality of hotel services, based on a sample of employees of small and medium-sized

hotels in India. Their study indicates that there “*is hardly any study which has shown the direct relationship between job stress and service quality with specific reference to the hospitality industry*” (Garg & Dhar, 2014, p.67). They thus suggest that it may be necessary to analyze mediating variables to reveal possible indirect relationships. Disregarding the challenging/hindrance classification of stressors, these authors also indicate that organizational engagement can fully mediate the relationship between job stressor and quality service. However, their testing for the direct relationship between job stressor and quality service obtained a nonsignificant result. Engagement thus became a crucial element for revealing the relationship between job stressors and quality service. The authors suggest that the employee’s lack of engagement may be caused by stressors present in the context of hotel work, and that this process may have a negative impact on service quality.

Following these studies’ line of argument and based on SDT, it seems logical that employee engagement plays a full mediating role in the relationship between a stressor (such as performance pressure) and extra-role service behavior. At the same time, we can expect increases in performance pressure not to have a direct effect on employee extra-role service behavior. That is, engagement becomes the channel through which the presence of performance pressure in the hospitality

work environment affects extra-role service. We thus expect that experiencing some level of performance pressure is related to a decrease in employee engagement levels, and that this decrease in engagement is in turn related to a decrease in extra-role behavior. This is the case because engagement acts as a force that bends the employee's will to discretionary service behavior in an effort to satisfy the guest, even beyond the employee's formal role. Experiencing increases in performance pressure is related indirectly to a decrease in extra-role service through its negative effect on engagement, while the direct relationship between the two variables is not significant. Based on the foregoing, we propose the following hypotheses:

H3a. Work engagement negatively mediates the relationship between performance pressure and extra-role service.

H3b. There is no significant relationship between performance pressure and extra-role service.

3.2.5. The moderating role of mindfulness

The term mindfulness represents an individual's capability to stay focused on present events and experiences, without prejudging what motivates them or their possible consequences. It has been defined as the capability to maintain "*a state of nonjudgmental attentiveness to and awareness of moment-to-moment experiences*" (Hülshager et al., 2013,

p. 310). Mindfulness thus exhibits the properties of a personality trait, differentiating the way each individual naturally faces everyday experiences (Glomb et al., 2011). Further, mindfulness must be considered as a psychological state, such that an individual's mindfulness capability can vary at different moments or in different situations (Brown & Ryan, 2003).

Mindfulness has had mixed effects on organizations. The positive effects of mindfulness have been analyzed extensively. For example, some studies report that mindfulness reduces the negative effects of stress and emotional work (Li et al. 2017), combats negative states of mind (Babalola et al., 2019), and improves job satisfaction (Hülshager et al., 2013). Other research reports negative results or results that contradict these positive effects. Stillman et al. (2014) find a negative relationship between mindfulness and implicit learning, which threatens effective social interactions and learning. Remmers et al. (2015) detect a negative influence of mindfulness on intuitive performance, which is necessary for decision-making in stressful contexts. Some authors have thus called for analysis to go beyond the effects mindfulness on the individual to evaluate its consequences at organizational level (Glomb et al., 2011). Hafenbrack and Vohs (2018) found that mindfulness increased employees' interest in proper performance of their tasks but did not alter their performance levels.

Glomb et al. (2011) have also called attention to the fact that employee behavior with high mindfulness can be more intentional and deliberate. Is necessary to ensure that such intentionality aligns with the organization's objectives, not with personal ones, which may depart from the organization's. These authors thus call for more research on the topic.

In a stressful work context such as hospitality, the presence of mindfulness has been explained as a stable characteristic or a psychological state of the individual that endows employees with greater effectiveness in modulating their reaction to stress (Jimenez et al., 2010; Li et al., 2017; Wu & Chen, 2019), especially in jobs that require in face-to-face interaction with the customer (Hülshager et al., 2013). Stress can arise not only in a specific situation but also in the evaluations individuals make of the situation, of the consequences they infer, and of their capability to face the situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). When employees' mindfulness capability leads them to focus objectively on an event, it also removes them from making speculative or dramatic evaluations of the event's consequences. In light of this fact, it seems logical that mindfulness could help to mitigate the effects of performance pressure.

As explained above, performance pressure is an employee's subjective perception. It originates from the employee's speculation

about the consequences (positive or negative) that will result from his or her performance. Consistent with the foregoing, we expect mindfulness to foster the employee's objective concentration on the task without making positive or negative attributions about possible future consequences. Following SDT, such focus will help to decrease the stress caused by performance pressure. We therefore propose that a higher level of mindfulness acts as a moderator that reduces the effect of increases in performance pressure on employee engagement. We propose the following hypothesis:

H4. The negative effect of performance pressure on engagement is lower when mindfulness level is higher (not lower).

Figure 3.1 illustrates both the relationships hypothesized and the measurement schema for the constructs.

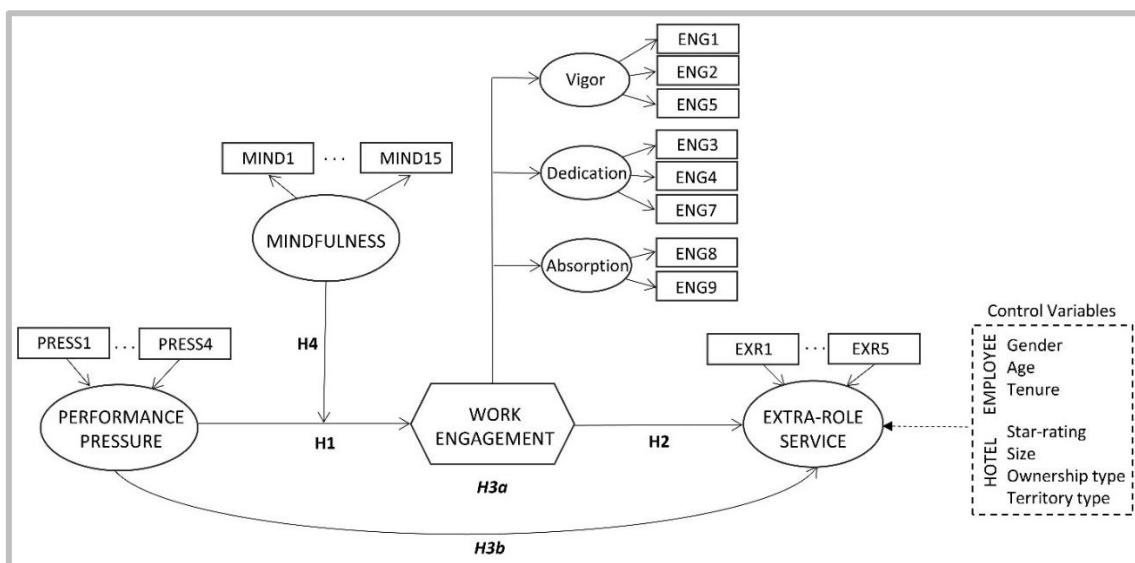


Figure 3.1. Research model

Notes: $H3a = \text{Performance Pressure} \rightarrow \text{Work Engagement} \rightarrow \text{Extra-Role Service} = H1H2$

3.3. Methodology

3.3.1. Sample and procedure

The study was performed from October to December, 2019. The sample was composed of frontline workers from 3-, 4-, and 5-star tourist hotels in cities with large numbers of tourists in Spain. The importance of the tourism industry to Spain's economy (tourism was the largest contributor to Spain's GDP in 2019) and Spain's great importance to world business as a receptor of tourists (WTO, 2019) make Spanish hotels especially good subjects for research in the hospitality sector.

The participants were chosen based on their willingness to participate. The number of participants from each hotel visited thus depended on two criteria: (1) participants had to show willingness to participate and be geographically accessible to researchers; (2) participants had to have direct contact with guests during most of their tasks (that is, be front desk clerks, reservations staff, concierges, bell attendants, or waiters/waitresses). We therefore omitted managerial employees. Convenience sampling is appropriate for studies of employee attitudes and behavior in the tourism industry (e.g., Dai et al., 2019; Elhoushy & El-Said, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019; Kanwal & Van Hoya, 2020; Kim et al., 2020; Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2021, 2022). Further, in terms of age, contract type, and education level, the employees in our sample were distributed similarly to the Spanish

National Statistics Institute's Economically Active Population Survey 2019: 43.6% of employees in hotel lodging services were 30-44 years old (48% in our sample), 71% had an indefinite-term job contract (71% in our sample), and 91.4% held secondary or higher education degrees (91.7% in our sample). Finally, we discarded incomplete questionnaires, ultimately obtaining 300 valid cases. The characteristics are summarized in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Sociodemographic characteristics of the sample

Respondent Demographics	Frequency(%)	Hotel Characteristics	Frequency(%)
Gender		Hotel Star rating	
Female	154(51.3)	Three-star	129(43)
Male	146(48.7)	Four-star	147(49)
Age		Five-star	24(8)
<29	119(40)	Hotel size (no. employees)	
30-44	164(48)	<20	185(61.7)
>45	36(12)	22-49	78(26)
Education		>50	37(12.3)
Compulsory education	25(8.3)	Average number of rooms	
Noncompulsory and higher education	275(91.7)	80	
Contract term		Average organizational tenure	
Indefinite	213(71)	57 months	
Fixed-term	87(29)		

Sample size n=300

The data collection strategy was designed to avoid common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). First, we met face to face with each participant to give them general information about the research, anonymity, and confidentiality of their responses and the voluntary character of their participation. Next, we gave the employees the

questionnaire and instructions in an envelope (e.g., there are no wrong answers). We stayed on the premises to collect the sealed envelope with the responses in person. Further, the questionnaire was designed to include measures to guarantee quality of the data. To avoid influencing responses, we did not identify the study variables and created separate sections with independent instructions to provide a feeling of psychological separation and avoid fatigue that could decrease the effort to answer all questions precisely (Ogunmokun et al., 2020; Terglav et al., 2016). To avoid participants' temptation to try to guess the right answer, we grouped the items into sections that were not related to the study hypotheses (Malhotra et al., 2006). We used Harman's factor analysis to ensure that common method bias is not a problem in our study. This analysis showed that common method variance should not be a concern in our data since a single factor is well below 50% of the total variance, more specifically it was 38.9% (Ogunmokun et al., 2020). In addition, we applied the correlation marker technique following Lindell and Whitney's (2001) guidelines and examined the correlations between variables and measurement model fit following Gutierrez-Gutierrez et al. (2018). None of these tests suggests that method bias could affect our results.

3.3.2. Measurements

The data collection instrument was a questionnaire designed from different scales developed in the management literature. A list of items used and main descriptive statistics are presented in Appendix A1. Prior to general administration of the test, we performed a pretest with academics and hospitality professionals to avoid confusing or inappropriate questions. A 7-point Likert type scale was used to measure all constructs. *Performance Pressure*: We adapted the 4-item instrument developed by Mitchell et al. (2018). *Engagement*: Measured using the short 9-item version of the UWES-Scale developed by Schaufeli et al. (2006). *Extra-role Service*: Evaluated using the 5-item scale developed by Bettencourt and Brown, (1997). *Mindfulness*: Measured using the 15-item instrument developed by Brown and Ryan (2003). Control variables (CVs): We included age (years), gender (male; female), and tenure (months) as CVs related to characteristics of the employee. Moreover, star rating (number of stars), hotel size (number of rooms), ownership type (network; independent brand), and territory type (interior; coastal) were included as CVs related to characteristics of the hotel. Accumulated knowledge due to age, stronger orientation to care as a result of gender, and organizational tenure may facilitate employees' access to personnel resources to perform extra-role service successfully (Elche et al., 2020; Huertas-

Valdivia et al., 2019). Further, hotels with higher star ratings or strong brand service quality policies could focus on extra-role service as a source of competitive advantage. Larger hotels or those capable of better stabilizing seasonality due to the regional climate in which they are located could also have more effective mechanisms to control desired extra-role service (Karatepe et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2020; Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2022).

3.3.3. *Analytic strategy*

We analyzed the data using *Partial Least Squares* structural equation modeling technique (PLS-SEM), with the help of Smart-PLSv3.2.9 software, in four stages: (1) measurement model's reliability and validity, (2) examination of the structural model and relationships hypothesized, (3) analysis of the mediation effects, and (4) moderation effects.

PLS-SEM has been indicated as an ideal method for studies like ours, which are based on a model of constructs or composites (Dijkstra & Henseler, 2011). Further, various authors indicate this method as the best option when the defined model includes mediations, moderations, or second-level constructs (Hair et al., 2019). For Hair et al. (2014), the statistical properties of PLS-SEM produce more robust estimations for both normal and non-normal data distributions, making it unnecessary to undertake additional measures in treating non-normal data. Since we

discarded incomplete responses, there are no lost data. Finally, we performed robustness analyses by estimating two alternative models, whose results suggest that the proposed model provides the best explanation of the data (results in Appendix A2).

As to the nature of our study constructs, performance pressure, engagement, extra-role service, and mindfulness represent theoretical concepts that are not directly observable and that are linked to employees' behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions. Following the existing literature, we thus analyzed them as reflective (Hair et al., 2019; Henseler, 2017). Further, Schaufeli et al. (2006) describe engagement as a second-order or multidimensional construct that we evaluated using a disjoint two-stage approach (Sarstedt et al., 2019).

3.4. Results

3.4.1. Measurement model

To evaluate the first- and second-order measurement model, we examined its reliability or internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Table 3.2 presents the results.

First, the model's internal consistency was ensured by two criteria: (1) all values obtained for the Cronbach's α were between 0.733 and 0.980, above the recommended threshold of 0.7 (Cohen, 1992).

Similarly, (2) all values for composite reliability were above 0.7, ensuring a satisfactory level of reliability (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 3.2

Reliability and convergent validity

	Cronbach's α	Dijkstra-Henseler's (Rho_A)	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Absorption	0.733	0.733	0.882	0.789
Dedication	0.880	0.881	0.926	0.808
<i>Engagement</i>	<i>0.852</i>	<i>0.860</i>	<i>0.910</i>	<i>0.772</i>
Extra-Role Service	0.911	0.933	0.935	0.736
Mindfulness	0.980	0.980	0.981	0.779
Performance Pressure	0.885	0.893	0.907	0.704
Vigor	0.784	0.791	0.874	0.700

Note: Italics used for second-level construct.

Second, convergent validity was guaranteed through two complementary perspectives: (1) individual reliability of each indicator was ensured through factor loading values above 0.707 for all items, with a statistical significance level above 99% ($p < 0.001$) (Hair et al., 2014). The only exception was the item ENG6, which was eliminated following the criterion established by Hair et al. (2014) after analyzing the impact of purifying it on the scale's internal consistency and content validity. Appendix A1 presented the factor loadings for each item. (2) Average variance extracted (AVE) always showed values above the threshold marked at 0.5 es, guaranteeing convergent validity at construct level (Gefen et al., 2000).

Finally, we evaluated discriminant validity using the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) matrix (Table 3.3). This statistic has been considered the best for evaluating discriminant validity in PLS-SEM, as it provides analysis at indicator level and thus greater sensitivity when detecting problems of discriminant validity than alternatives such as the Fornell-Larcker or cross-loading criterion (Hair et al., 2014). The constructs included in the model achieved discriminant validity that was guaranteed by values for the HTMT ratio of the correlations below 0.90 and significantly different from 1 (Franke & Sarstedt, 2019).

Table 3.3

Discriminant validity assessment

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Absorption							
2. Dedication	0.860						
3. <i>Engagement</i>	-	-					
4. Extra-Role Service	0.423	0.378	<i>0.449</i>				
5. Mindfulness	0.321	0.456	<i>0.442</i>	0.372			
6. Performance Pressure	0.127	0.160	<i>0.195</i>	0.081	0.105		
7. Vigor	0.744	0.870	-	0.419	0.422	0.248	

Note: Italics used for second-level construct.

3.4.2. Structural model

To evaluate the quality of the results for the structural model, we examined the collinearity of the constructs, the significance and relevance of the hypothesized relationships, and the level of R^2 . A summary of the results is shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4
Structural model evaluation

	VIF	Path Coefficient ^a	t-Value	Confidence Interval ^b	Decision
<i>H1:</i> <i>Performance Pressure-> Engagement</i>	1.016	-0.170(0.001)	-3.328	[-0.252,-0.098]	Supported
<i>H2:</i> <i>Engagement-> Extra-Role Service</i>	1.065	0.415(0.000)	6.813	[0.303,0.501]	Supported
<i>H3a:</i> <i>Performance Pressure-> Engagement-> Extra-Role Service</i>		-0.069(0.004)	-2.733	[-0.113,-0.035]	Supported
<i>H3b:</i> <i>Performance Pressure-> Extra-Role Service</i>	1.081	-0.001(0.497)	0.019	[-0.103,0.095]	Supported
<i>H4:</i> <i>Performance Pressure*Mindfulness-> Engagement</i>		0.168(0.004)	2.502	[0.127,0.261]	Supported
Control Variables					
<i>Age-> Extra-Role Service</i>	1.773	-0.025(0.363)	-0.350	[-0.145,0.094]	
<i>Gender-> Extra-Role Service</i>	2.083	0.037(0.336)	0.423	[-0.109,0.183]	
<i>Tenure-> Extra-Role Service</i>	1.770	0.049(0.220)	0.771	[-0.052,0.153]	
<i>Star Rating-> Extra-Role Service</i>	1.197	0.066(0.150)	0.782	[-0.039,0.17']	
<i>Hotel Size-> Extra-Role Service</i>	1.195	-0.046(0.204)	-0.827	[-0.136,0.047]	
<i>Ownership Type -> Extra-Role Service</i>	2.021	-0.049(0.278)	-0.590	[-0.185,0.085]	
<i>Territory Type -> Extra-Role Service</i>	1.136	0.075(0.081)	1.402	[-0.013,0.160]	
Overall fit					
<i>SRMR Saturated Model</i>	0.037				Supported
<i>SRMR Estimated Model</i>	0.065				Supported

Notes: ^ap-values are presented in parentheses; ^bone-tailed test.

We examined collinearity as a starting premise for the structural analysis. The VIF values were far below 3, confirming that collinearity

is not a problem in our model and indicating absence of bias (Hair et al., 2019). To confirm that the structural relationships hypothesized were statistically significant, we performed a one-tailed bootstrapping test with 5000 subsamples. None of the confidence intervals contained zero, confirming the statistical significance of all relationships, as shown in Table 3.4.

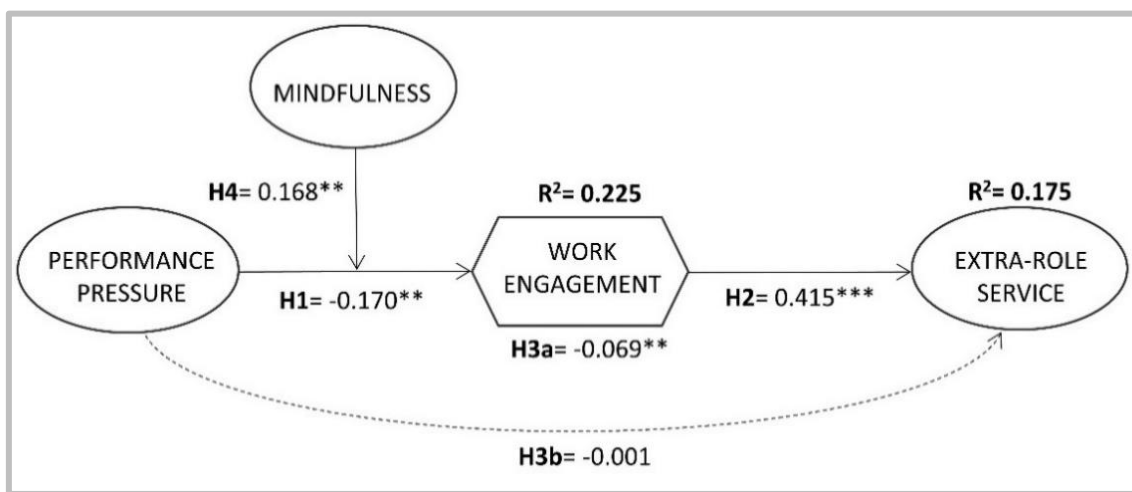


Figure 3.2. Results of hypothesis testing

Notes: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Analysis of the structural model provided support for our study hypotheses (Figure 3.2). First, as expected, experiencing performance pressure was negatively related to employee engagement ($\beta = -0.170$, $p = 0.001$, $f^2 = 0.037$), confirming H1. The results also supported our expectations for H2 ($\beta = 0.415$, $p = 0.000$, $f^2 = 0.191$), showing a positive and significant relationship between engagement and extra-role service. None of the control variables used (gender, tenure, age, star rating, hotel size, ownership type, territory type) reached a significant

relationship with extra-role service. Given the importance of the mediation and moderation hypotheses, we analyze them in independent sections in the following.

Evaluation of the determination coefficient R^2 varies based on complexity of the model and discipline studied. In studies that analyze behaviors or attitudes, such as engagement or extra-role service, values for R^2 close to or higher than 0.2 are considered high (Hair et al., 2019). Since the effect size f^2 was 0.037 (H1) and 0.185 (H2), following Cohen (1992), we confirm weak and moderate effect sizes, respectively. In the case of interaction (H4), different standards must be used for effect size, in light of the findings of Aguinis et al. (2005). Medium effect size in moderation relationships has been shown to be 0.009, making values higher than 0.025 (in our case 0.038) indicative of a strong effect (Hair et al., 2014). Finally, we tested the value of the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) to evaluate fit of the empirical data to the theoretical model, following the criterion in Hair et al. (2019). Since our model obtained values of 0.037 for the saturated model and 0.065 for the estimated model, the SRMR shows good fit (<0.08) from a conservative perspective (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

3.4.3. Mediation analysis

To analyze the mediating effect, we considered both the full mediation hypothesis proposed in the theoretical framework (H3a) and the direct

effect of performance pressure on extra-role service (H3b) to classify the mediation type, following the decision tree developed by Zhao et al. (2010). To determine both direct and indirect effects, we used bootstrapping (5000 subsamples, one-tailed).

Table 3.5

Analysis of mediation effect

	Path Coefficient ^a	Confidence Interval ^b	t-Value	VAF	Conclusion
Direct Effect					
Performance Pressure-> Extra-Role Service	-0.001(0.497)	[-0.103,0.095]	0.019		No direct effect
Indirect Effect					
Performance Pressure-> Engagement-> Extra-Role Service	-0.069(0.004)	[-0.113,-0.035]	2.733	98.56%	Full mediation
TOTAL EFFECT	-0.070(0.011)	[-0.100,-0.096]	2.299		

Notes: ^ap-values are presented in parentheses; ^bone-tailed test; VAF=Variance Accounted For

As Table 3.5 shows, the direct relationship between performance pressure and extra-role service was not significant ($\beta=-0.001$, $p=0.497$), confirming H3b, but the indirect effect of engagement on this relationship was ($\beta=-0.069$, $p=0.004$), confirming H3b. We also conducted a Variance Accounted For (VAF) examination to check the effects of H3b mediation. Following Hair et al. (2014), a VAF value greater than 80% indicates full mediation. These results suggest that employee engagement acts as a mediator, becoming a mechanism that can explain the relationships between performance pressure and extra-

role service. We thus find a situation of full mediation in the terms described by Hair et al. (2014), meaning that the model variables behave exactly as proposed in the theoretical model.

3.4.4. Moderation analysis

This section analyzes the presence of the moderating effect described in H4. Given the reflective character of the moderating and independent variables, we used orthogonalization to test the interaction effect (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler & Chin, 2010). The results obtained ($\beta=0.168$, $p=0.003$, $f^2=0.038$) confirm that mindfulness moderates the relationship between performance pressure and engagement. Figure 3 represents this influence visually through slope plot analysis. Following the approach proposed by Hair et al. (2014) to analyze moderation using slope plot analysis, the continuous gray line in Figure 3.3 represents the relationship between performance pressure and engagement for medium values of mindfulness. The dotted black line shows the same relationship at low levels of mindfulness (medium values - 1 standard deviation). The continuous black line shows how the performance pressure on engagement behaves when mindfulness takes high values (medium values + 1 standard deviation). As observed, high values of mindfulness moderate the relationship of performance pressure on engagement counteracting nearly all the negative effect.

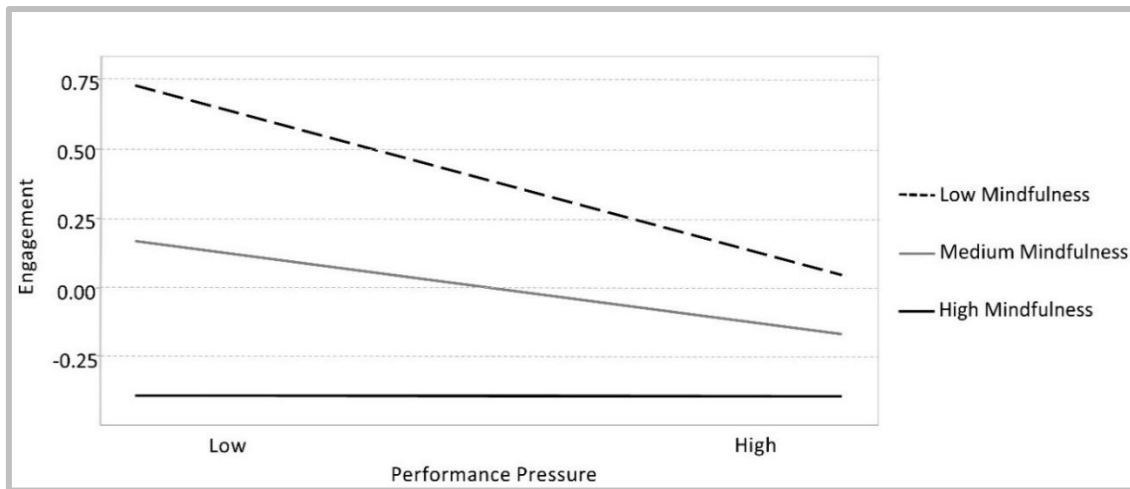


Figure 3.3. *Slope analysis*

3.5. Discussion

3.5.1. Theoretical implications

Our study offers some important contributions to hotel research. First, our study seeks to understand the effects of increases in performance pressure on the tourism sector by providing a dynamic model to show that this stressor has a negative impact on some desired behaviors in hospitality service employees. To construct our model, we theorize that the reaction of frontline employees to performance pressure is influenced by the feeling of urgency or tension that comes from characteristics inherent in hospitality work. The negative effect of performance pressure is consistent with Lazarus and Folkman (1984), who propose that the feeling of urgency employees experience makes performance pressure a threat for them, activating job stress processes (Gutnick et al., 2012; Mitchell et al., 2019). With this finding, our study

extends and confirms the findings of prior studies. We confirm and complement the findings of Garg and Dhar (2014), whose study showed that job stressors impact service quality negatively due to characteristics of the hotel itself. Their study did not consider the possibility that different stressors could have contradictory effects on employee performance—that is, could act as either a challenge or a hindrance. Our results extend Garg and Dhar's (2014) findings by considering the effects of performance pressure as a stressor with negative effects that stem from its threatening nature. Karatepe et al. (2014), in turn, identified work overload and job responsibility as two stressors capable of challenging employees and thus producing positive effects on employee performance. Our results now provide empirical evidence from the opposite extreme to complement this prior research. The finding that experiencing increases in performance pressure reduces employee engagement—and by extension reduces employees' extra-role service—confirms that this stressor is evaluated as a threat in the hotel work environment. Hospitality service often presents employees with a high degree of personal involvement and commitment. Experiencing performance pressure can prevent employees from feeling proud, energetic, and involved in excellent service. These results support the stream of literature that argues the presence of two subgroups of stressors, classified as hindrance and

challenge stressors based on their effects on employee motivation (e.g., Karatepe et al., 2014; Mitchell et al., 2019). The results also classify performance pressure as a hindrance stressor.

Second, although it could seem that we fully understand the phenomenon of engagement, a need has recently been identified for more work to unveil the mechanisms that help hospitality businesses to achieve a higher number of engaged employees (Gallup, 2017; Karatepe et al., 2018). Our study responds to this call by extending the research on engagement to provide better knowledge of the factors that hamper its emergence. To this end, we present empirical evidence of the negative effect caused on employees' engagement by performance pressure. This finding can be explained through SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000). SDT's theoretical framework proposes that stressful demands prevent employees from satisfying their basic needs for autonomy and competence, thereby undermining their self-determination. This phenomenon decreases the intrinsic motivation from which employee engagement springs. Our study contributes to extending SDT by providing empirical evidence of this phenomenon in the hospitality industry. The results for H1 suggest that frontline employees become distanced from the feeling of pride or involvement in their work when they feel pressure in a stressful environment such as hospitality. Performance pressure thus becomes an obstacle preventing hospitality

employees from finding personal or professional growth potential in their jobs—the potential that leads to their self-determination. The context established here helps to explain the process described by SDT and thus provides empirical evidence for this theory. Our results also align with findings of other authors that have linked different stressors such as overload, role ambiguity, and emotional work to decreased engagement in the hospitality work environment (Kim et al., 2019; Lee & Madera, 2019).

Third, since the emergence of extra-role service has extensive implications for hospitality service quality and enables better service delivery than the competition (Langford & Weissenberg, 2018; Terglav et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2019), it is important to investigate the work circumstances that encourage or jeopardize the emergence of these behaviors. Our results show that employees' perception of some level of performance pressure is not directly related to an increase or decrease in their extra-role service behavior (H3b). The analyses do reveal, however, a significant indirect and negative relationship between performance pressure and extra-role service through employee engagement (H3a). This finding indicates the need for a third variable (in our case, engagement) to explain the main relationship. Our results indicate that decreased engagement makes employees who perceive performance pressure less willing to channel their efforts to

face guests' demands proactively. These results are consistent with the findings reported by Kim et al. (2019), according to which the pressure hotel employees experience from role conflict, role overload, and role ambiguity behaves as a threat to engagement. These authors' study in turn reports a significant and positive association between engagement and service performance. But the existence of these two relationships need not imply a mediating effect of engagement on the main relationship. The authors report nothing on this option. Our results provide evidence of engagement's ability to mediate the relationship between performance pressure and extra-role service. They also align with the results reported by Karatepe et al. (2018), whose study finds a mediating capability of engagement to transmit the negative effect of a hindrance stressor caused by work demands for extra-role job performance. Our study provides an explanation based on SDT. A hindrance stressor such as performance pressure can erode individuals' intrinsic motivation and derail their willingness to commit themselves to make an extra effort that produces high-quality performance (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The mediating effect of engagement detected in our study lends empirical support to this idea, suggesting that the process of performance pressure-> engagement-> extra-role service limits hospitality organizations' potential to use extra-role service as a source of competitive advantage.

Our fourth contribution is the empirical evidence that the employee's level of mindfulness positively moderates the negative effect of performance pressure on engagement. Therefore, mindfulness emerges as a valuable tool to correct the effects of this stressor; employees with high levels of mindfulness show greater capability to manage these stressful effects on their engagement levels in the hospitality environment. These results support the line of research that affirms positive effects of mindfulness on organizations. For example, they agree with other closely related results that describe mindfulness' capability as a reducer of states of negative mood (Babalola et al., 2019) or of the effects of emotional work on service sector employees (Li et al., 2017). Our findings contribute to contextualizing the effects of mindfulness in a work context with hospitality-type characteristics. Along these lines, Glomb et al. (2011) have called attention to the need to ensure that the positive effects of mindfulness align with the organization's objectives, beyond the personal objectives of the employee. Our study responds to this call by clarifying that the moderating effect of mindfulness improves the negative effect of performance pressure on employee engagement, and thus on extra-role service. Both are considered as a source of competitive advantage in hospitality organizations (Gallup, 2017; Terglav et al., 2016). The mechanism that explains this moderation could derive from the

fundamental proposition of SDT. SDT argues that stressful demands frustrate achievement of basic needs, endangering the intrinsic motivation that is the seed of employee engagement (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The capability of mindfulness to reduce the stress caused by performance pressure could protect the individual's intrinsic motivation and thus prevent development of a process that distances the employee from engagement. Ultimately, mindfulness could act as a firewall in the process described by SDT.

3.5.2. Practical implications

The results of our study have several practical implications for the hospitality industry. First, our results prove empirically that increases in performance pressure have a direct and negative impact on workers' engagement. Even when the levels employees report of a hindrance stressor such as performance pressure are not very high (e.g., in our results or the data reported by other authors such as Karatepe et al. (2018) or Lee and Duffy (2019)), increases in this type of stressor can have a negative effect on employee engagement. From a practical point of view, it is important for managers to make some decisions that avoid increases in performance pressure. One such managerial action would be to design the objectives for each job position or performance evaluation. The characteristics of hospitality service can influence performance pressure due to the difficulty of predicting service

encounters properly or the impact of the other colleagues' work on the client satisfaction metric. For example, when a guest evaluates his/her satisfaction with the waiter's job, the experience and appreciation could be influenced by the table assigned by the maître or the amount of salt in the soup that the chef cooked. This lack of control over the process could produce increases in the waiter's performance pressure, since it might not be clear how others' work will influence his/her own performance. Similarly, since it is not possible to provide quick check-in and to answer the guest's questions about the city's tourist attractions simultaneously, what should the receptionist prioritize to obtain an excellent performance evaluation: speed or personalized attention? Organizations and managers who are extremely careful to state goals and performance evaluation criteria clearly can prevent employees from experiencing increases in performance pressure as an obstacle course full of traps between them and their goal.

Second, in our study increases in performance pressure are not directly related to improved extra-role behavior. Rather, work engagement could act as a transmitter that indirectly threatens extra-role service. That is, a reduction in work engagement produced by increases in performance pressure, in turn has negative effects on extra-role. Managers must thus make decisions to prevent a deterioration in employee engagement from translating into a

deterioration in extra-role service. But how? They might, for example, (1) establish job objectives that not only to seek maximum integration of the employee's and the organization's objectives, but also to avoid monotony or irrelevance of the objectives established to prevent them from causing disinterest in the employee or making the job unchallenging or uninteresting, and (2) combine this measure with efforts to establish clear, direct, accessible communication channels (both upward and downward). Good communication both reduces misunderstandings that can increase performance pressure and facilitates integration of employees' proposals and suggestions into work protocols as well as better understanding of those protocols. Emphasizing these simple actions can have a positive effect on employees' motivation, which is the basis for their engagement.

Third, our results have shown that employees with higher levels of mindfulness can reduce the stress increases caused by performance pressure, probably due to their ability to concentrate exclusively on the task without attributing future consequences to their performance. That is, from a practical point of view, a sufficient level of employee mindfulness can become a valuable tool to counteract the negative effect of performance pressure. Although the most direct way to mitigate the negative effects of performance pressure should be to work directly on this stressor (through the actions described in the previous

paragraphs), our findings for H4 provide an additional resource to complement these actions—when possible, implement HR policies that enable to improve employees' mindfulness capability. The continuous training policies developed by HR in hotel organizations should include training that, first, helps those employees who have mindfulness skills to increase this ability, and, second, enables the organization to identify employees who lack this ability but have the conditions or willingness to develop it. One example of such trainings is termed mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR). Although some studies have shown that the effectiveness of MBSR depends on the personality traits of the employees (e.g., Vibe et al., 2015), our results clearly indicate the moderating potential of mindfulness on the negative effect of the stressor analyzed. Managers should thus consider the advantages of including this type of training in their organizational or departmental training programs as an additional tool (along with others) to compensate the effects of performance pressure on extra-role service in the context of hospitality work.

3.5.3. Limitations and future research

In considering the results of our study, we must consider some limitations that in turn establish lines for future research. Using a convenience sample can make it hard to generalize the results obtained. Although this sampling method is frequently used in

hospitality (e.g., Dai et al., 2019; Elhoushy & El-Said, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2018; Kanwal & Van Hove, 2020; Kim et al., 2020) and our sample was distributed similarly to the sector in Spain during the study year, generalization of our findings may be limited for this reason. Future works could test our model with representative samples to guarantee generalization of results.

The self-report character of the questionnaires raises the possibility that the data show common method bias (CMB). Although this is a limitation, self-report questionnaires are an especially useful method for measuring employees' perceptions (Alfes et al., 2013). Both the questionnaire design and the data collection process followed the recommendations by Podsakoff et al. (2003) to avoid the problem of CMB, as explained in Section 3.1. Despite these measures, future studies should evaluate the empirical results of the proposed model using data from various sources to minimize the risk of CMB. They could, for example, use a result variable based on data provided by managers. Also, a longitudinal sample from several moments in time to measure the variables is encouraged to circumvent our cross-sectional limitation. Such a study could gather the data to measure performance pressure and extra-role service through temporal separation.

Our study evaluated the impact of performance pressure on service quality represented through extra-role service behaviors. To

do so, it treated performance pressure as a hindrance stressor explained through the characteristics of hospitality service described in the literature (e.g., Garg & Dhar, 2014; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019). It is worth indicating, however, that employees may evaluate job stressors such as performance pressure as either hindrances or challenges. The influence of personal traits or emotions (e.g., resilience, loneliness, envy) or organizational resources (different cultures, leadership styles) can cause the same stressor to be evaluated as a hindrance or challenge (Karatepe et al., 2018; Mitchell et al., 2019) in different organizations or countries, producing different effects. Future studies should analyze frontline employees' reactions to these different stressors, which impact service quality, to determine their differing effects. Further, our study followed the methodology used by other authors to study the effects of different stressors (e.g., Karatepe et al., 2014; Mitchell et al., 2018, 2019) in not measuring employees' stress level, but rather the stressor itself. Future studies could use a scale to measure participants' stress level empirically and test the relationship between stress and the specific stressor. For example, how much of the stress experienced by a frontline employee comes from a stressor such as performance pressure in hospitality work?

Finally, some clinical research has indicated that the effectiveness or acceptance of mindfulness-based techniques as a stress reduction tool

may depend on personality traits and other individual characteristics. For example, the results of Vibe et al. (2015) suggested that mindfulness was more effective in women whose prominent personality traits were neuroticism and conscientiousness, but less effect in men with the same personality traits and on participants who scored high on extroversion. In other words, mindfulness is not always an option for helping employees to moderate the effects of performance pressure. This finding should be considered a limitation of our study. We therefore propose revisiting our study model and including employee gender or different personality traits (for example, through the Big Five personality traits) as a boundary condition. This extension of previous research will help us better to understand the potential (and limitations) of mindfulness in its role as moderator of the effects of a stressor such as performance pressure.

3.6. Conclusion

Our study aimed to analyze empirically the effect of increases in performance pressure on extra-role service through employee engagement, testing the moderating capacity of mindfulness in this relationship. The results show that hospitality employees' perception of performance pressure can trigger a process that decreases their engagement and indirectly jeopardizes their extra-role service behavior. Our findings also identify the important regulating role of

mindfulness in the proposed model. In this sense, the study shows that mindfulness can work as a firewall blocking the effects of performance pressure on engagement, and thus also its negative influence on extra-role service.

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3.8. Appendix A1

Table 3.A1

Measurement construct items and descriptive statistics

Code	Means	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Factor Loadings	t-Values
PERFORMANCE PRESSURE (from Mitchell et al., 2018)						
PRES1	2.683	1.765	0.697	-0.722	0.955	15.774
PRES2	2.513	1.698	0.858	-0.435	0.936	15.582
PRES3	2.983	1.916	0.507	-1.053	0.742	6.821
PRES4	3.427	1.933	0.220	-1.207	0.709	5.620
ENGAGEMENT (from Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006)						
Vigor						
ENG1	5.567	1.125	-0.626	-0.075	0.879	45.155
ENG2	5.557	1.137	-0.708	0.476	0.863	33.302
ENG5	4.560	1.745	-0.490	-0.662	0.763	22.026
Dedication						
ENG3	5.580	1.340	-1.035	0.910	0.916	72.148
ENG4	5.450	1.488	-0.955	0.421	0.929	81.216
ENG7	5.717	1.340	-1.308	1.663	0.849	29.249
Absorption						
ENG8	5.817	1.106	-1.044	1.388	0.890	31.099
ENG9	5.430	1.248	-0.837	0.808	0.887	37.821
MINDFULNESS (from Brown & Ryan, 2003)						
MIND1	2.570	1.423	0.810	0.253	0.849	33.360
MIND2	2.607	1.465	0.972	0.705	0.876	48.056
MIND3	2.577	1.425	0.997	0.810	0.897	60.477
MIND4	2.583	1.489	1.013	0.686	0.909	66.990
MIND5	2.503	1.348	1.097	1.217	0.853	38.156
MIND6	2.530	1.350	0.982	0.796	0.863	44.680
MIND7	2.567	1.336	0.931	0.668	0.887	61.944
MIND8	2.630	1.461	0.951	0.515	0.901	70.070
MIND9	2.660	1.432	0.900	0.428	0.892	64.990
MIND10	2.607	1.442	1.046	0.883	0.891	61.963
MIND11	2.577	1.444	0.928	0.466	0.872	49.644
MIND12	2.567	1.476	1.063	0.725	0.906	80.968
MIND13	2.517	1.358	0.884	0.483	0.837	32.455
MIND14	2.630	1.431	0.938	0.546	0.909	75.043
MIND15	2.693	1.579	1.005	0.413	0.893	48.145
EXTRA-ROLE SERVICE (from Bettencourt & Brown, 1997)						
EXR1	6.123	1.129	-1.683	3.479	0.884	45.839
EXR2	6.120	1.051	-1.867	5.007	0.899	53.417
EXR3	5.950	1.158	-1.274	1.794	0.856	30.289
EXR4	6.097	1.023	-1.508	3.366	0.884	53.422
EXR5	5.673	1.299	-1.009	0.655	0.761	20.184

Note: SD=Standard Deviation; (R) Reverse scored

3.9. Appendix A2

We tested the robustness of the proposed model by estimating alternative models. Table A3 presents the results.

In the first alternative model, mindfulness acts a moderator in the relationship between engagement and extra-role service. In this case, the SRMR value exceeded the threshold of 0.08 established for the saturated model (Hair et al., 2017; Hu & Bentler, 1998). The discrepancy between the mean square among the correlations observed and the others implicit in alternative model 1 indicate that the fit is not good. In the second alternative model, the relationships proposed in our study were tested after eliminating the set of atypical data, or outliers, which could influence the results because of their distance from the standardized values. With the help of IBM SPSS Statistics software v.24, we identified and purified these values. The results of the analysis discounted the idea that the outliers had sufficient influence to determine the relationship and significance of our hypotheses or the saturated and estimated fit of the proposed model. In the third alternative model, we tested the relationships proposed in our study after replacing extra-role service with a result variable obtained from secondary data published in the SABI database (Iberian Balance Sheet

Analysis System).¹ This database provides accounting information and indicators of financial strength for firms that operate in Spain and Portugal. We chose as our variable the indicator Return On Capital Employed (ROCE), for the fiscal year 2019. ROCE indicates the efficiency with which an organization manages its funds in the long term—in other words, the percentage of profit per euro of capital, taken before taxes. Other researchers have used this measure as a proxy for the firm's results in studies that seek to understand the impact of HR policies on the firm (Bloom et al., 2011; Martínez-León et al., 2019). We used these criteria to identify valid data for a total of 173 cases in our sample. The results discount the possibility that including in the proposed model variables obtained from additional data sources in the employee's self-assessment could produce results that oppose or contradict our findings. These results suggest that the proposed model is solid.

¹ Available in the SABI Database at: <https://sabi.bvdinfo.com/version2022211/Home.serv?product=sabineo>

Table 3.A2
Robustness Analyses

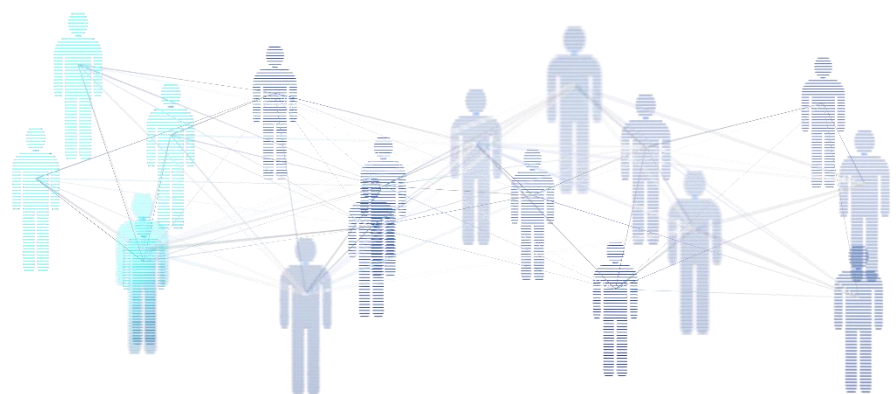
<i>Paths</i>	1 st Alternative Model	2 nd Alternative Model	3 rd Alternative Model
<i>H1</i>	-0.220**	-0.165**	-0.210***
<i>H2</i>	0.310***	0.365***	-
<i>H3a</i>	-0.068**	-0.060**	-
<i>H3b</i>	-0.005	-0.014	-
<i>H4</i>	-	0.155*	
<i>Engagement*Mindfulness-> Extra-Role Service</i>	0.153	-	0.192*
<i>Engagement->ROCE</i>	-	-	-
<i>Performance Pressure-> Engagement->ROCE</i>	-	-	0.264***
<i>Performance Pressure->ROCE</i>	-	-	-0.055**
<i>R²</i>			
<i>Engagement</i>	0.048*	0.225***	0.218***
<i>Extra-Role Service</i>	0.236***	0.156***	-
<i>ROCE</i>	-	-	0.065*
<i>f²</i>			
<i>Performance Pressure-> >Engagement</i>	0.051	0.035	0.054
<i>Engagement->Extra-Role Service</i>	0.101	0.148	-
<i>Performance Pressure*Mindfulness-> Engagement</i>	-	0.030	0.047
<i>Engagement*Mindfulness-> Extra-Role Service</i>	0.028	-	-
<i>Performance Pressure->Extra-Role Service</i>	0.000	0.000	-
<i>Engagement->ROCE</i>	-	-	0.069
<i>Performance Pressure->ROCE</i>	-	-	0.010
<i>Overall fit</i>			
<i>SRMR Saturated Model</i>	0.037	0.040	0.056
<i>SRMR Estimated Model</i>	0.105	0.070	0.065

Note: *p < 0.05 **p < 0.01 ***p < 0.001; Italics used for non-significant values.

ROCE=Return On Capital Employed

4

LEADER BEHAVIOR, PROACTIVITY AND THEIR EFFECTS ON HOTEL EMPLOYEES' EXTRA-ROLE SEERVICE BEHAVIOR: THE MODERATING ROLE OF CULTURAL TIGHTNESS-LOOSENESS



4. Leader behavior, proactivity and their effects on hotel employees' extra-role service behavior:

The moderating role of cultural tightness-looseness.

ABSTRACT

The pertinent literature presents no evidence of the simultaneous effects of leader task-, relations-, or change-oriented behaviors on employee proactivity and extra-role customer service. Nor does it present evidence of cultural tightness-looseness as a moderator of the effect of proactivity on extra-role customer service. Our paper thus proposes and tests the mediating effect of proactivity in the association between three types of leadership behavior and extra-role customer service. It also tests cultural tightness-looseness as a moderator of the impact of proactivity on extra-role customer service. Data gathered from hotel employees in Spain were used to gauge the aforesaid relationships. The results from structural equation modeling reveal that employee proactivity mediates the effects of leader task- and relations-oriented behaviors on extra-role customer service. The results also demonstrate that cultural tightness-looseness strengthens the linkage between proactivity and extra-role customer service. The paper subsequently discusses the implications for theory and practice.

Keywords: Cultural tightness-looseness; extra-role customer service; hotel frontline employees; leader behavior; proactivity

4.1. Introduction

In a fiercely competitive market environment, delivery of superior services to customers, accomplishment of customer satisfaction and retention, and achievement of high profitability are vital to hospitality firms' survival and success. Frontline employees' (FLEs) close interactions with customers place them among the most important actors helping hospitality firms to reach the aforesaid goals. FLEs' importance is not surprising. The extra-role customer service expected of them, considered as a proactive behavior, enables them voluntarily to help customers with problems in order to exceed customers' expectations (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997). Proactivity, defined as "...a stable disposition to take personal initiative in a broad range of activities and situations" (Seibert et al., 2001, p. 847), contributes positively to employee capability (Zhang and Edgar, 2022), service recovery performance (Zhaoor, 2020), proactive customer service performance (Sumaneeva et al., 2021), and group creativity (Lee et al., 2019).

Research reveals that different types of leadership positively or negatively influence employee proactivity or extra-role customer service. The absence of leader-follower congruence—that is, the incongruence between leadership style and employee personality—reduces employee proactivity (Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2022). The leader's use of empowerment practices, in contrast, activates employee

proactivity (Sing and Rangnekar, 2020). Further, different leadership styles (such as paradoxical leadership and authentic leadership) may positively influence FLEs' extra-role customer service directly or indirectly (Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2021; Teng and O-Yang, 2022).

Research also highlights other leader behaviors that could promote or discourage employee attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Elkhwesky et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2021; Zia et al., 2022). Leader task-oriented (LT-O) behavior, for example, focuses on improving the efficiency of various tasks and activities performed by followers, whereas relations-oriented leader (LR-O) behavior signifies achievement of a high degree of commitment, trust, and cooperation from followers (Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl, 2012). Leader change-oriented (LC-O) behavior implies the promotion and visualization of change, encouragement of innovation, and facilitation of learning for followers (Yukl, 2012). Evidence shows that LT-O and LR-O behaviors enhanced job performance (Rehman et al., 2020), while LC-O behavior promoted job satisfaction and task performance (Mikkelsen and Olsen, 2018).

Although some empirical studies have explored the effects of different leadership styles on employee attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Rehman et al., 2020; Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2021), to the best of our knowledge, no evidence exists of the *simultaneous* effects of LT-, LR-, and LC-oriented behaviors on employee proactivity and extra-role

customer service. This gap is surprising because, while “...a leader’s behavior may have multiple objectives, it is more accurately described in terms of three independent dimensions than in terms of three mutually exclusive behavior categories” (Yukl et al., 2002, p. 17).

The pertinent literature also includes studies of the effect of proactivity on employee behavior (e.g., Sumaneeva et al., 2021; Zahoor, 2020). Cultural tightness-looseness (T-L), defined as “...how behavior is influenced by the strength of social norms and sanctioning” (Gelfand et al., 2006, p. 1227), can, however, strengthen the positive impact of proactivity on extra-role customer service.

4.1.1. Purpose

Against the backdrop and gaps in the literature described above, our paper proposes and tests a research model in which proactivity mediates the *simultaneous* effects of LT-, LR-, and LC-oriented behaviors on hotel employees’ extra-customer service. The model also gauges cultural T-L as a moderator of proactivity’s impact on extra-role customer service.

4.1.2. Contribution

Studying the aforesaid linkages contributes to hotel research in several ways. First, recent studies have warned of construct redundancy in some of the most widely used leadership styles (Banks et al., 2018;

Gerpott et al., 2019). Studying LT-, LR-, and LC-oriented behaviors has proven a parsimonious and appropriate approach that can eliminate the “noise” created by conceptual overlap (Gerpott et al., 2019; Yukl et al., 2019). Our results shed light on how some of the most widely used leadership styles in hospitality research include contradictory or redundant behaviors. This approach could also help to understand better why we are failing to achieve more proactive employees (Parker et al., 2019). Finally, although previous research notes the need to give hotel employees freedom to promote extra-role customer service behaviors (e.g., Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2021; Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2022, 2021), our findings complement these results by demonstrating that cultural tightness plays a role in delineating characteristics of the environment conducive to the emergence of proactive service behaviors.

4.2. Literature review and hypothesis development

4.2.1. Leader-oriented behavior and employee proactivity

Bakker et al. (2012) describe proactive employees as those who identify opportunities and anticipate them by launching self-initiated initiatives to improve themselves or their environment. Employee proactivity contributes to the emergence of positive results in hospitality firms, such as work engagement, organizational identification (Buil et al., 2019), individual and team creativity (Du et al., 2021), and proactive

customer service performance (Sumaneeva et al., 2021). Different leader-oriented behaviors can, however, condition or promote employee proactivity.

LT-O behavior focuses on planning follower activities, clarifying roles and objectives, monitoring tasks and performance, and solving problems (Yukl, 2012). Research suggests that leadership based on supervision or evaluation of tasks can reduce employees' motivation to implement their own ideas, harming employees' proactivity (e.g., Parker et al., 2006; Wu and Parker, 2017). A leader who focuses on tasks and performance sees employee proactivity as a threat to achieving objectives and a detriment to their image, which would explain why they are not open to proactivity (Parker et al., 2019). Ohly et al. (2006) reports that leadership that focuses on task routinization was negatively related to employee proactive voice behavior.

Although the study of negative effects of leadership is not common in hospitality research, recent research by Rescalvo-Martin et al. (2022) notes that the expected positive effect of leadership can become negative when the style used is not congruent with the employee's personality (as occurs between LT-O behavior and employee proactivity). Such lack of congruence translates into decreased employee service proactivity.

Support from the leader empowers employees significantly to unleash their proactivity, since employee proactivity ultimately implies searching for and creating new ways of doing that challenge the status quo and may be unwelcome. LT-O behavior could send employees a message that performing the task according to the leader's prescriptions, without considering alternatives or innovating, is of central importance—that is, a message disapproving of proactive behaviors. Based on these arguments, we propose that:

H1a. Leader task-oriented behavior is negatively related to employee proactivity.

LR-O behavior strives for a high degree of commitment, trust, and cooperation from followers (Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl, 2012). Leaders with relations orientation support, develop, recognize, and empower employees (Yukl, 2012). Such LR-O behaviors offer employees a higher level of trust and support in developing their role and autonomy when fulfilling various duties. Parker (2007) explained that a work environment that fosters autonomy and encourages employees to take initiative by configuring flexible roles activates employee proactivity. The author's argument was based on the idea that employee proactivity is likely to be essential to achieving objectives in a context of greater autonomy. In this line, Ohly et al. (2006) proved empirically that greater autonomy in one's professional role is related to increase in employee

proactivity. In their study of emotional competence and interpersonal proactivity in hotel employees and supervisors in South Korea, Kim et al. (2009) showed that the interaction between job autonomy and leader feedback increased employee voice proactivity.

A work environment that provides support and encourages employees' initiative and autonomy to determine the best way to handle a service interaction could activate employee proactivity. We thus expect LR-O behavior to send a clear message that employee proactivity is welcome. Based on these arguments, we propose that:

H1b. Leader relations-oriented behavior is positively related to employee proactivity.

Finally, the main objective of change-oriented leader (LC-O) behavior is to identify and implement the necessary changes (Yukl, 2012; Yukl et al., 2002). To achieve this goal, LC-O behavior focuses on promoting and visualizing change, encouraging innovation, and facilitating learning for followers (Yukl, 2012). Conceptually, being change-oriented seems fundamental to individuals' proactive orientation. The literature shows consensus on the idea that employee proactivity seeks to generate changes that focuses on the future (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012; Seibert et al., 2001; Wu and Parker, 2017). From an empirical point of view, the recent review by Cai et al. (2019) used a multilevel approach to integrate and synthesize current knowledge on

the influence of contextual factors (such as leadership) on employee proactivity. Examining 152 empirical works on employee proactivity published in top management journals, the authors argue that openness to change is a leader characteristic capable of increasing employee proactivity (Cai et al., 2019).

We thus expect a leader whose behavior promotes change, innovation, or learning to facilitate the emergence of the same behaviors in the employee. Consistent change-orientation between leaders and employees makes it easier for employees to feel free to be proactive. Based on these arguments, we propose that:

H1c. Leader change-oriented behavior is positively related to employee proactivity.

4.2.2. Employee proactivity and extra-role customer service

Extra-role customer service is a proactive behavior specifically aimed at achieving higher-quality service interactions, even beyond the employee's duties (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997; Garg and Dhar, 2016). Extra-role service is a highly desired behavior in hotel employees, since it has been shown to be related to greater guest satisfaction (Kang et al., 2020) and enhance business results (Teng and O-Yang, 2022).

The relationship between a personal resource such as employee proactivity and extra-role performance is well established in the literature. For example, the meta-analytic review by Fuller and Marler

(2009) identified employee proactivity as a strong predictor of different proactive behaviors such as role innovation, voice, or taking charge. Hospitality research also supports this premise. A recent study by Sumaneeva et al. (2021) showed a positive relationship between hotel employee proactive personality and proactive behaviors such as creative performance and proactive customer service performance. In his recent study of proactivity and creativity in FLEs from hotels in China, Du et al. (2021) reported a strong positive relationship between employee proactivity and proactive behaviors to search for creative solutions. Finally, the meta-analytic review of 105 articles by Doan et al. (2021) found that employee proactivity was consistently related to organizational citizenship behavior in a hospitality context.

Based on the abovementioned information, we expect a personal resource such as employee proactivity to facilitate the emergence of proactive service behavior such as extra-role customer service.

H2. Employee proactivity is positively related to extra-role customer service.

4.2.3. The mediating role of employee proactivity

As argued above, employee proactivity is a personal resource that can be influenced by contextual circumstances such as the leader's behavior (H1a-c) and may thus improve proactive behavior, as hypothesized in (H2). We now consider employee proactivity as a

mediator between three leadership behaviors and extra-role customer service.

It is commonly accepted that the leader's role is to guide followers towards behaviors the organization desires. Yet proactive behaviors share the quality of being self-initiated and discretionary—very different from prescribed roles (Parker et al., 2019). Proactive behaviors are thus especially difficult for leadership to promote (Parker and Collins, 2010). Some scholars have suggested that fostering proactive behavior may require activation not only of extrinsic motivation (for example, through leadership style), but also of intrinsic motivation (Parker et al., 2019; Ruiz Moreno et al., 2021). A person's individual resource, such as their natural inclination to be proactive (i.e., their proactivity), can be an element of intrinsic motivation that is also necessary for the emergence of proactive behavior. Scholars have therefore stated that employee proactivity alone cannot determine the employee's behavior. Rather, the contextual characteristics created around a certain leadership style produce effects on employees' proactive behavior (Ruiz Moreno et al., 2021). These arguments from the literature help us to understand why an employee's personal resource (employee proactivity) may be necessary to explain the relationship between leader behaviors (LT-O, LR-O, and LC-O) and subsequent proactive behaviors such as extra-role customer service.

We expect employee proactivity to mediate the relationship between leader orientation and extra-role customer service due to its nature as determinant of employee willingness to engage in this type of proactive behavior. Thus, when the leader's behavior impairs employment proactivity, as in the case of LT-O behavior, the relationship between LT-O behavior and extra-role customer service is also negatively mediated by employment proactivity. In line with the argumentation presented above, we propose that strengthening the personal resource of leader behaviors that activate employee proactivity (such as LR-O and LC-O) will positively mediate the relationship with extra-role customer service. Based on these arguments, we propose that:

H3a. Employee proactivity negatively mediates the relationship between leader task-oriented behavior and extra-role customer service.

H3b. Employee proactivity positively mediates the relationship between leader relations-oriented behavior and extra-role customer service.

H3c. Employee proactivity positively mediates the relationship between leader change-oriented behavior and extra-role customer service.

4.2.4. The moderating role of cultural tightness-looseness

Finally, we consider how employees' perceptions of the behavioral norms and behaviors expected by the work context (leader and coworkers) affect the relationship between employee proactivity and proactive behavior (i.e., extra-role customer service). Cultural T-L is a good construct for assessing the influence of behavioral norms on this relationship. Based on Gelfand et al. (2006), cultural T-L evaluates the level of rigidity and definition of the norms applied in a given context. It involves "how behavior is influenced by the strength of social norms and sanctioning" (p. 1227). In a tight work environment, employees perceive clear well-defined rules and regulations and expect others to disapprove if these rules are broken. In a loose work context, in contrast, employees are confused about the rules and thus lack clear knowledge of what behaviors are inappropriate (Di Santo et al., 2021; Gelfand et al., 2006).

Some findings help us understand how cultural T-L influences the relationship between employee proactivity and extra-role customer service. For example, based on a sample of service sector workers that included hotel workers, Li et al. (2010) found that proactive employees who trust that the environment welcomes their proactive behaviors, understanding them not as a challenge to the rules but as a positive contribution, are more willing to develop proactive behavior. In their

review of the factors that influence proactive behavior, Parker et al. (2019) suggest that knowledge of the work context (such as knowledge of the rules and their consequences) can improve the relationship between employee proactivity and extra-role customer service, as employees achieve better fit of this proactive behavior in work context. Di Santo et al. (2021) have recently shown that ensuring that employees perceive clear well-defined rules eliminates the stress associated with uncertain norms, increasing employees' investment efforts so that they can devote all their resources and personal capacities to service to the organization.

Based on these findings, we expect the relationship between employee proactivity and extra-role customer service to increase in situations where employees perceive clear well-defined norms regarding expected service behaviors—that is, a high level of cultural T-L. In other words, a set of clear rules will eliminate the uncertainty associated with whether or not to deploy employee proactivity and encourage the emergence of proactive service behavior. Based on these arguments, we propose that:

H4. Cultural tightness-looseness positively moderates the relationship between employee proactivity and extra-role service.

Figure 4.1 represents the measurement and research models developed from the theoretical framework described.

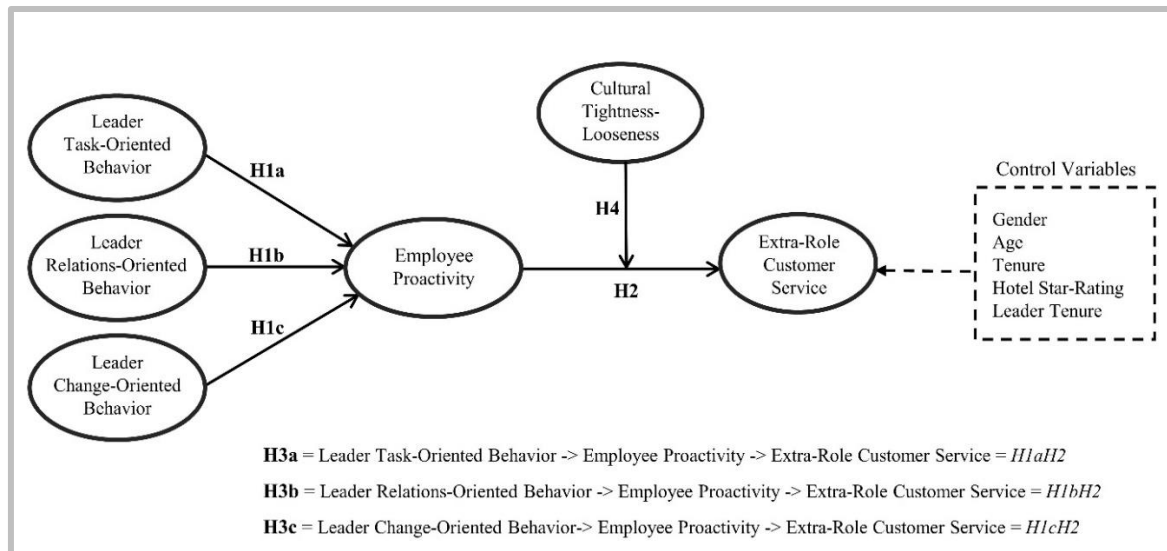


Figure 4.1. *Research model.*

4.3. Method

4.3.1. Sample and procedure

The data were obtained from FLEs who work in hotels located in Andalusia (Spain). According to the Spanish National Institute of Statistics (INE), Andalusia is one of the regions in Spain with the largest supply of hotel beds. We started our research from the Hotel Occupancy Survey (available at www.ine.es), which shows that three cities in Andalusia accounted for around 75% of overnight traveler stays, and 253 4- and 5-star hotels were open to the public. We contacted the hotels and invited them to participate, following a previously used procedure to build a judgmental sample (e.g., Eluwole et al., 2022; Karatepe et al., 2022; Ozturk et al., 2021; Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2022). Seventy-nine hotels authorized data collection. We used

three criteria to select participants, requiring them to (1) occupy positions involving direct daily contact with guests, such as desk clerk, concierge or reservations staff; (2) have full-time jobs; and (3) not hold supervisory positions. These criteria produced a sample of employees with high face-to-face interaction with guests to assess our result variable, extra-role customer service. The questionnaires were delivered personally by the researchers to obtain 289 valid answers. Data were collected during the first months of 2020. Table 4.1 summarizes participant characteristics.

Table 4.1

Sample characteristics (n = 289).

Variables	Frequency(%)
<i>Gender</i>	
Female/Male	138(47.7)/151(52.3)
<i>Age</i>	
< 25/26-44/>45	50(17.3)/178(61.6)/61(21.1)
<i>Education</i>	
Above or below/University study	93(32.2)/196(67.8)
<i>Hotel Star rating</i>	
4-star/5-star	198(68.5)/91(31.4)
<i>Hotel size (no. employees)</i>	
<20/20-40/>40	136(47)/107(37)/46(16)
Average number of rooms	70
Average organizational tenure	59 months
Tenure average with the leader	40 months

Procedural and statistical solutions were employed to avoid common method bias (CMB) (Podsakoff et al., 2003). We used the following procedural measures. To avoid confusing terms, three academics and professionals evaluated the questionnaire prior to

administration. We personally delivered and collected the questionnaires to ensure anonymity and understanding of the attached instructions. We sought to prevent biased answers by informing participants that there were no right or wrong answers. Finally, the variables were not identified or presented in the order of the hypothesized model. The following statistical measures were taken. We used Harman's single-factor test. The results show that a single factor extracted 30.28% of the total variance, a value clearly below the recommended threshold of 50% (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). We also used the correlation marker technique proposed by Lindell and Whitney (2001), which assumes that CMB affects a theoretically unrelated variable (marker variable) as much as it does the variables of interest in the study. As in other similar studies, we used place of birth (2 categories) as a variable marker. The marker variable behaved as expected (Gutierrez-Gutierrez et al., 2018). None of these tests suggested problems with CMB.

4.3.2. Measures

The items used to measure the variables of the theoretical model came from scales previously developed and used in the management literature. The items from the original scales were translated into Spanish. A native English speaker fluent in Spanish, and two native speakers academicians fluent in English supervised the back-translated

questionnaire. Finally, to ensure that all items were appropriate and understandable, we performed a pretest in collaboration with academics and hospitality professionals. Participants selected responses on a scale from 1 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree).

Task-, relations- and change-oriented leader behaviors were measured following Yukl (2012). Other empirical studies have used this scale to measure and classify leader behaviors into three variables (e.g., Gerpott et al., 2019; Yukl et al., 2019). LT-O behavior is described through four leader behaviors related to planning, clarifying, monitoring, and problem solving. A sample item for LT-O behavior reads, “During my work, my direct supervisor identifies work-related problems, makes a systematic but rapid diagnosis, and takes action to resolve problems.” LR-O behavior was comprised of four behaviors related to supporting, developing, recognizing, and empowering. One item for LR-O behavior reads, “My direct supervisor shows concern for my needs and feelings, provides support and encouragement when there is a difficult or stressful task, and expresses confidence I can successfully complete it.” LC-O behavior was described through four leader behaviors related to advocating change, envisioning change, encouraging innovation, and facilitating collective learning. A sample item for LC-O behavior reads, “My direct supervisor communicates a

clear and appealing vision of what could be accomplished, links vision to my values and describes a proposed change with enthusiasm and optimism.”

To measure employee proactivity, we used the scale developed by Seibert et al. (2001). Previous research has used a version of this scale inside and outside the hospitality context (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012; Buil et al., 2019). Seibert et al. (2001) developed a ten-item version of the PPS scale to measure an individual’s predisposition to proactive behavior. One sample item reads, “I am always looking for better ways to do things.”

Five items from Bettencourt and Brown (1997) were used to measure extra-role service. Other empirical research in the hospitality context has applied this scale (e.g., Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019; Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2022). One sample item reads, “While I work, I often goes above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.”

We measured level of cultural T-L perceived by each employee using the scale developed by Gelfand et al. (2006). Recent research has used this scale in individual-level analysis (e.g., Akyürek et al., 2022; Moon and Sánchez-Rodríguez, 2021). One sample item reads, “At my work, there are many norms that I am supposed to abide.”

We also included variables that could provide alternative explanations for the hypothesized relationships. Due to the

characteristics of our model, we used variables that control for characteristics of the employee, hotel, and leader. As in previous research on employee behavior in hospitality, we included age (3 categories), gender (male, female), employee tenure (4 categories), hotel star-rating, and leader tenure (4 categories) (e.g., Garg and Dhar, 2016; Ozturk et al., 2021; Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2019).

4.3.3. Analytic strategy

To test the proposed theoretical model, we use partial least squares structural equation modeling. This technique is suitable for our study for several reasons: (1) It has been shown to be a robust technique for testing theoretical effects proposed from unobservable constructs included in complex models (Henseler et al., 2015). (2) It can consistently estimate reflective constructs such as those in our model (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015). (3) It provides robust estimates for models from data with both normal and nonnormal distributions (Hair et al., 2014).

We used SmartPLS v.3. to evaluate both measurement and structural models, following a two-step process. First, as in Hair et al. (2017) and because the model variables were conceptualized as reflective, we evaluated their reliability (for each composite) using the Dijkstra-Henseler statistic (ρA), Cronbach's Alpha (α), and Composite Reliability (CR), as well as factor loadings (for each individual item

reliability). We also used Average Variance Extracted (AVE) to confirm convergent validity and heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) criteria to ensure discriminant validity. Once the measurement model criteria were evaluated and confirmed, we used bootstrapping tests based on 4999 subsamples to assess the results of the structural model.

4.4. Results

4.4.1. Measurement model assessment

Table 4.2 shows the results for reliability and convergent validity. We used three different criteria to evaluate composite reliability: ρ_A , α , and CR. The results of these statistical tests were between 0.7 and 0.95, providing evidence of composite reliability (Hair et al., 2019). To evaluate individual item reliability, we ensured that the loading factor for each item took significant values greater than 0.707 (Hair et al., 2014). All items used reached this threshold, except two items for employee proactivity and two for cultural T-L. Research suggests that items with values below 0.7 can be kept when they do not affect fallibility and validity (Hair et al., 2014). Because our study did not meet this criterion, we dropped the four items. To assess convergent validity, we used AVE. All constructs took values higher than the established lower limit of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 4.2

Reliability and convergent validity assessment.

	FL	α	ρA	CR	AVE
LT-O behavior	0.819*** - 0.909***	0.845	0.935	0.903	0.757
LR-O behavior	0.729*** - 0.866***	0.891	0.940	0.919	0.694
LC-O behavior	0.830*** - 0.858***	0.868	0.875	0.909	0.715
Employee proactivity	0.708*** - 0.836***	0.896	0.898	0.917	0.580
Extra-role service	0.701*** - 0.871***	0.875	0.903	0.908	0.664
Cultural T-L	0.767*** - 0.875***	0.867	0.872	0.909	0.716

Notes: LT-O= Leader Task-Oriented; LR-O= Leader Relations-Oriented; LC-O= Leader Change-Oriented; Cultural T-L= Cultural Tightness-Looseness; FL= Factor loadings; α = Cronbach's Alpha; ρA = D-H's Rho; CR= Composite Reliability; AVE= Average Variance Extracted.

Finally, to ensure discriminant validity we used the HTMT criterion. Research consistently indicates that this criterion is better suited than other methods to ensuring discriminant validity in PLS (e.g., Hair et al., 2017; Henseler et al., 2015). As the HTMT ratio was below 0.9 for all construct combinations, the variables achieved discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014). Table 4.3 presents the results.

Table 4.3

Discriminant validity assessment using HTMT criterion.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
(1) LT-O						
(2) LR-O	0.869					
(3) LC-O	0.867	0.886				
(4) Employee proactivity	0.151	0.235	0.245			
(5) Extra-role service	0.335	0.439	0.380	0.514		
(6) Cultural T-L	0.372	0.278	0.276	0.433	0.258	

Notes: LT-O= Leader Task-Oriented Behavior; LR-O= Leader Relations-Oriented Behavior; LC-O= Leader Change-Oriented Behavior; Cultural T-L= Cultural Tightness-Looseness; HTMT= heterotrait-monotrait ratio.

4.4.2. Structural model evaluation

For Hair et al. (2017), structural model evaluation must rule out collinearity problems between constructs in order subsequently to test the path coefficients, observing their sign and level of significance, coefficients of determination (R^2), and effect size (f^2). This procedure enabled us to consider the mediation and moderation effects proposed in our hypotheses. We also evaluated model fit following the recommendations of Henseler et al. (2016).

To test for possible collinearity between the model constructs, we used the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Critical values of this parameter suggest collinearity problems that can cause errors when estimating relationships. All VIFs took values between 1.111 and 2.967, below the critical threshold of 3 recommended from a strict perspective (Hair et al., 2019). Collinearity is not a concern for our results.

We evaluated the path coefficients using a bootstrapping test based on 4999 subsamples (one-tailed). Our data showed that LT-O behavior was negatively related to employee proactivity ($\beta = -0.282$, $p_{\text{one-tailed}} < 0.001$), whereas the relationship between LR-O behavior and employee proactivity was positive and significant ($\beta = 0.200$, $p_{\text{one-tailed}} < 0.030$), confirming H1a and H1b. The analysis did not provide support for H1c, however, as we could not establish a significant relationship between LC-O behavior and employee proactivity

($\beta=0.176$, $p_{\text{one-tailed}}<0.067$). For H2, we obtained a positive and significant relationship between employee proactivity and extra-role customer service ($\beta=0.506$, $p_{\text{one-tailed}}<0.000$), confirming the hypothesized relationship. As none of the control variables was significantly related to the outcome variable, no further analysis was necessary to understand the effect of these variables on the model.

Evaluation of the coefficient of determination R^2 varies depending on the nature of the variables in the theoretical model. In models containing constructs that represent behaviors or attitudes, such as the constructs included in this study, values around 0.2 demonstrate the model's sufficient explanatory capacity (Hair et al., 2014). All significant hypotheses also show a sufficient value of f^2 , enabling us to consider effects of differing intensity in the model. f^2 ranged from 0.025 to 0.250, revealing effects classified as weak to medium according to Cohen (1992). One exception should be applied in evaluating interactive effects. Previous research has shown that the average size of the moderation effects is around 0.009 (Aguinis et al., 2005). Research suggests that effect sizes between 0.01 and 0.025 in interaction relationships (0.017 in our case), should be considered as medium effects to avoid underestimating them (Hair et al., 2014; Kenny, 2016).

Table 4.4

Structural model evaluation.

Path	Coefficient	t-value	CI	Decision	
H1a: LT-O->Employee Proactivity	-0.282(0.001)	-3.007	-0.398;-0.109	Supported	
H1b: LR-O->Employee Proactivity	0.200(0.030)	1.887	0.021;0.373	Supported	
H1c: LC-O-> Employee Proactivity	0.176(0.067)	1.502	-0.022;0.360	Not supported	
H2: Employee Proactivity->ERS	0.506(0.000)	7.030	0.388;0.624	Supported	
H3a: LT-O->Employee Proactivity->ERS	-0.135(0.003)	-2.737	-0.213;-0.051	Full mediation	
H3b: LR-O->Employee Proactivity->ERS	0.101(0.037)	1.789	0.010;0.197	Partial mediation	
H3c: LC-O->Employee Proactivity->ERS	0.089(0.074)	1.447	-0.011;0.191	Not supported	
H4: Employee Proactivity*Cultural T-L-> ERS	0.104(0.016)	2.150	0.021;0.181	Supported	
(CV)Age->ERS	0.036(0.278)	0.589	-0.064;0.133		
(CV)Gender->ERS	-0.080(0.058)	-1.575	-0.162;0.006		
(CV)Tenure->ERS	-0.011(0.459)	-0.103	-0.184;0.167		
(CV)Star Rating->ERS	0.064(0.094)	1.317	-0.019;0.144		
(CV)Le-Tenure->ERS	-0.040(0.350)	-0.386	-0.131;0.211		
Endogenous variable	R ²		Adjusted R ²		
Employee Proactivity	0.192		0.180		
ERS	0.248		0.241		
Discrepancy	Saturated Model		Estimated Model		
	Value	HI ₉₉	Value	HI ₉₉	
SRMR	0.049	0.095	0.057	0.103	Supported
d _{ULS}	0.789	2.904	1.057	3.423	Supported
d _G	0.353	0.372	0.372	0.384	Supported

Notes: LT-O= Leader Task-Oriented Behavior; LR-O= Leader Relations-Oriented Behavior; LC-O= Leader Change-Oriented Behavior; ERS= Extra-Role Customer Service; Cultural T-L= Cultural Tightness-Looseness; CV= Control Variable; SRMR= Standardized Square Root Mean Residual; d_{ULS}= Unweighted Least Squares distance; d_G= Geodesic distance.

Based on t[4999] one-tailed test; p-value in parentheses; CI= Bootstrapping 95% confidence interval bias corrected.

To assess fit, we tested the discrepancies between the empirical matrix and the correlation matrix for our model (saturated and estimated models). Confirmatory composite analysis enables us to assess fit of the structural model (i.e., number of constructs and indicators assigned to each are appropriate) (Henseler et al., 2016). We considered three criteria jointly: the Standardized square Root Mean Residual (SRMR), Unweighted Least Squares distance (d_{ULS}), and Geodesic Distance (d_G). In our results, the values for SRMR were below the threshold of 0.8 established in the literature (Henseler, 2017). Our bootstrapping process verified that the values for d_{ULS} and d_G were below the 99% quantile (HI_{99}) (Henseler et al., 2016). Together, these parameters suggest that the model fits the data well (Table 4.4).

As Table 4.4 shows, the analysis returned values that partially support our mediation hypotheses (H3a and H3b). Employee proactivity negatively mediates the relationship between LT-O behavior and extra-role customer service ($\beta=-0.135$, $p_{\text{one-tailed}}<0.003$) and positively mediates the relationship between LR-O behavior and extra-role customer service ($\beta=0.101$, $p_{\text{one-tailed}}<0.037$). Following the guidelines in Hair et al. (2017, 2014), we performed complementary analyses to classify both mediations. For H3a, we found no significant direct relationship between LT-O behavior and extra-role customer service ($\beta=-0.035$, $p_{\text{one-tailed}}<0.349$). Employee proactivity thus acts as a full

mediator between the variables. That is, employee proactivity is necessary to explain the relationship between the constructs. In the case of H3b, the direct relationship between LR-O behavior and extra-role customer service was significant ($\beta=0.323$, $p_{\text{one-tailed}}<0.000$). In this case, therefore, employee proactivity is a partial mediator. Our data did not, however, confirm the mediation hypothesized in H3c.

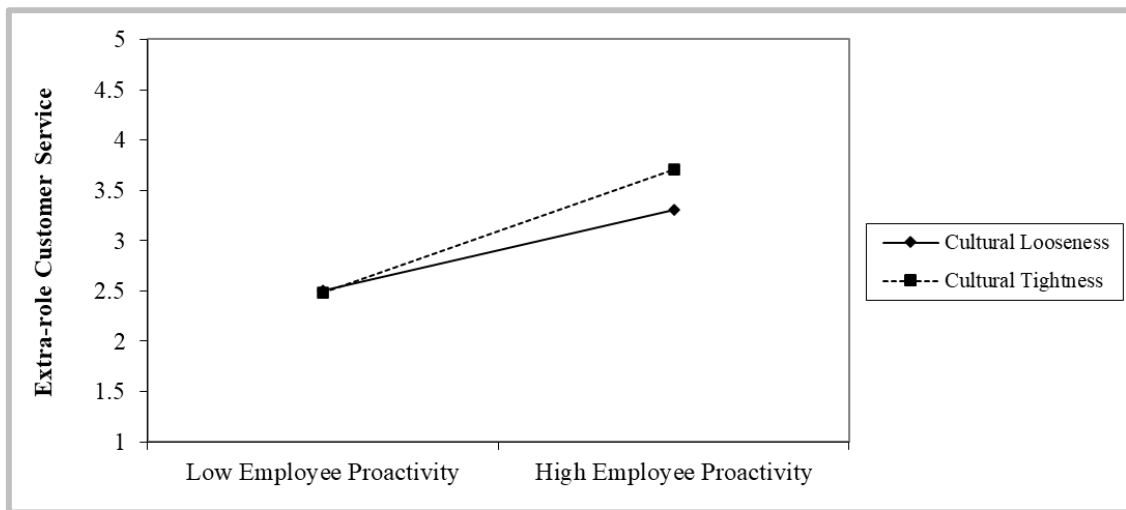


Figure 4.2. *Moderating effect of cultural tightness-looseness on the relationship between employee proactivity and extra-role customer service.*

Finally, we evaluate the proposed moderation effect following the two-stage approach proposed by Hair et al. (2017). As shown in Table 4.4, the hypothesized interactive effect was positive and significant ($\beta=0.140$, $p_{\text{one-tailed}}<0.016$), confirming H4. The relationship between employee proactivity and extra-role customer service is thus moderated by the level of cultural T-L perceived by the employee. Graphical analysis of the slope of this moderation (represented in Figure 4.2) represents this effect visually, showing how the slope that

represents the relationship between employee proactivity and extra-role customer service changes when cultural T-L is high (cultural tightness; dotted line) or low (cultural looseness; solid line).

4..4.3. Complementary analysis

Because the result for H1c was unexpected we performed complementary analysis. Before concluding that no relationship exists between LC-O behavior and employee proactivity in our data, we analyze the possibility that this relationship is nonlinear instead of linear following the recommendations of Hair et al. (2017).

We tested for the possibility of a nonlinear relationship by creating a quadratic term using a two-stage approach (Hair et al., 2017). This approach is most appropriate when analysis aims to identify the statistical significance of the nonlinear effect between variables measured reflectively (Hair et al., 2017, 2014). Because we had not proposed any hypothesis on the sign of this effect, we evaluated the nonlinear relationship using a bootstrapping test based on 4999 subsamples (two-tailed). The results of the alternative model showed a non-linear positive effect ($\beta_{\text{quadratic effect}}=0.130$, $p_{\text{two-tailed}}<0.000$) that used as reference point a linear effect that was also positive ($\beta_{\text{linear effect}}=0.277$, $p_{\text{two-tailed}}<0.009$).

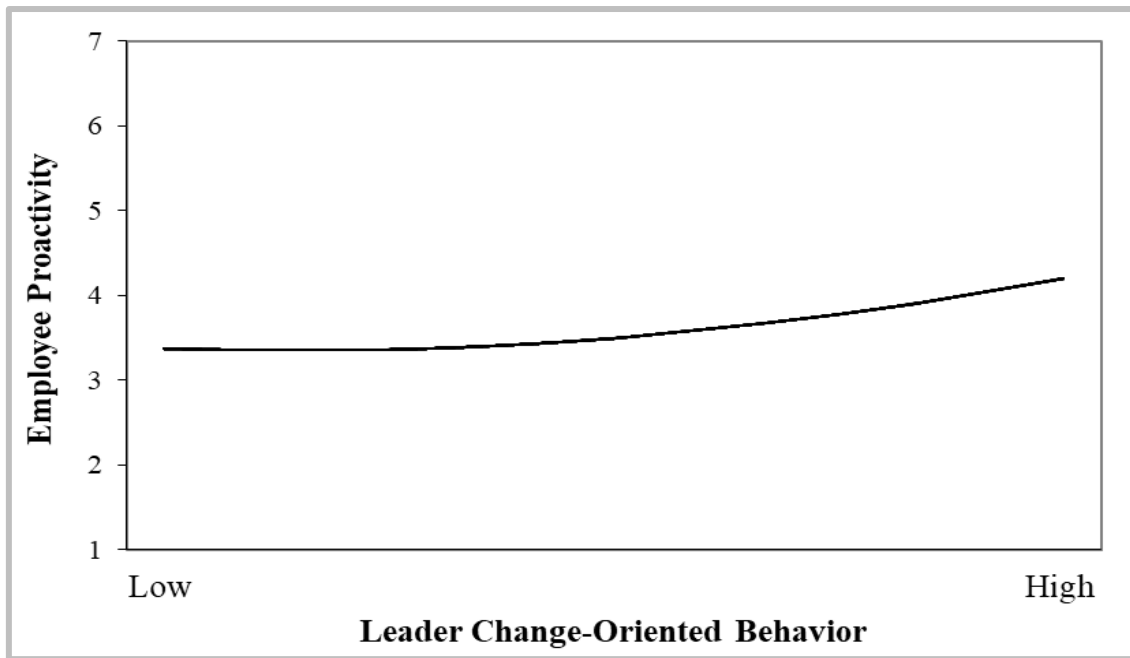


Figure 4.3. *Curvilinear effect of Leader Change-Oriented Behavior on employee proactivity.*

We used the graphical representation in Figure 4.3 to better understand this relationship. As expected, the inclusion of a positive quadratic effect created a convex curve (Hair et al., 2017). Since sinification does not always imply relevance (Hair 2014, 2017), we evaluated the strength of the non-linear effect using the formula: $R^2_{\text{alternative model}} - R^2_{\text{proposed model}} / 1 - R^2_{\text{alternative model}}$ that offered a value of 0.036 (0.220-0.192/1-0.220). According to Aguinis et al. (2005) and Kenny (2016), we can consider that including of the quadratic effect had a strong effect on the R^2 alternative model increase.

The significance of the quadratic effect of LC-O on employee proactivity, along with the strength of the non-linear effect and higher

explained variance (R^2) clearly indicate a nonlinear rather than linear relationship between the variables. Since the aim of this post-hoc analysis was to provide an explanation for the unexpected result of H1c, confirming the existence of a quadratic relationship is considered sufficient without the need for further testing. However, in the future research section, we add a call for future works to hypothesize this relationship based on theory and deeply study its nature.

4.5. Discussion and conclusion

4.5.1. Theoretical implications

Our study makes important contributions to the hospitality literature. First, the results show LT-O behavior to be negatively related to extra-role customer service through employee proactivity. This result provides empirical support for authors who argue that a leader who focuses on monitoring or operationalizing tasks and objectives can send a message that employee proactivity is not necessary and may not even be unwelcome (Ohly et al., 2006; Parker et al., 2006; Wu and Parker, 2017).

Our study also highlights the difficulties of understanding the leader's influence on employee proactivity clearly when we use constructions that mix different leader-oriented behaviors. For example, empowerment leadership has been identified as the leadership style that can solve major problems in hospitality work by

achieving employees who can handle service interactions autonomously (Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2019b; Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2022). Empowerment leadership is generally associated with higher LR-O behavior (Derue and Humphrey, 2011; Yukl, 2012; Yukl et al., 2019). When measuring this leadership style, we value LR-O behaviors such as developing employee confidence. For example, empowerment leadership encourages employees to undertake tasks on their own initiative (Amundsen and Martinsen, 2014), take initiative in problem solving, and make important decisions (Ahearne et al., 2005). However, the description of empowerment leadership also includes behaviors such as facilitating access to information, which are closely related LT-O behavior such as clarifying (Derue and Humphrey, 2011; Yukl, 2012). In view of our results, this way of measuring empowerment leadership (mostly LR-O but in exceptional cases some LT-O behavior) may mask the negative effects of LT-O behavior on different proactive behavior of employees in the hospitality sector. In measuring this construct, the positive effect of more focus on LR-O behavior would minimize the negative effect of LT-O behavior.

Second, we found both direct and indirect positive effects of LR-O behavior on extra-role customer service. This result is supported theoretically and empirically by previous studies suggesting that promoting employee safety, autonomy, and self-initiative can activate

employee proactivity and thus proactive behaviors such as extra-role customer service (e.g., Kim et al., 2009; Ohly et al., 2006; Parker, 2007; Parker et al., 2019). The result also supports previous research conclusions suggesting that a leadership style consistently comprised of LR-O behaviors, such as servant leadership, is more suitable for the hospitality industry (e.g., Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2021; Kaya and Karatepe, 2020; Ozturk et al., 2021).

These results also shed light on problems with constructs that mix different leader-oriented behaviors—for example, transformational leadership, one of the most studied styles in hospitality research over the last seven decades (Arici et al., 2021). Although transformational leaders are conceived as using LC-O behavior (Derue and Humphrey, 2011; Yukl, 2012; Yukl et al., 2019), this description includes behaviors such as individualized consideration towards followers, an LR-O behavior (Derue and Humphrey, 2011). Our results, in contrast, indicate that only high values for LC-O behavior are related to employee proactivity; we find no relationship at low values of LC-O behavior. Taken together, the results obtained for LR-O and LC-O behavior shed light on the mixed results of some studies of transformational leadership in the hospitality industry. While research generally reports positive effects of transformational leadership on the proactive behavior of hospitality employees (see review by Arici et al. (2021)), some studies

do not follow this line. For example, in a study of FLEs from 5-star hotels in China, Yang et al. (2020) recently reported that the interaction between transformational leadership and employee proactivity had a negative effect on service performance. The unexpected effects of this leadership style could be explained through detailed analysis of the evaluations of the different LR-O and LC-O behaviors.

Finally, our results suggest that maintaining cultural tightness can be positive for better results through proactive service behavior of hotel FLEs. Several authors have argued that hotel employees need greater freedom of decision to promote extra-role customer service behaviors (e.g., Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2021; Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2022, 2021). Although our result for H4 might seem to contradict this current of opinion, the two views are compatible if seen through the lens of hospitality work. Hospitality work is often characterized by role inconsistency, stress, and long working hours both night and day (Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2021). Performing extra-role customer service behavior in this work environment can create tension between FLEs, colleagues, and supervisors due to such issues as envy or social undermining (e.g., Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2021). Despite this problem, hotel organizations encourage extra-role customer service because it contributes to business results and employee satisfaction (Kang et al., 2020; Teng and O-Yang, 2022).

In view of our results, cultural tightness can give FLEs a clear safe framework in which to perform proactive service behavior such as extra-role customer service without creating problematic situations for them. Cultural T-L is thus a boundary condition that can help hotel FLEs avoid ambiguity and define their margin of action clearly to make proactive decisions during service interactions. In other words, extra-role customer service requires not only more flexible hierarchical structures and greater freedom of decision, as has been argued (e.g., Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2021; Rescalvo-Martin et al., 2022, 2021), but also margins of action clear to all (colleagues and supervisors). These characteristics help employees develop extra-role customer service without fear that their work environment frowns on these behaviors.

4.5.2. Practical implications

Our empirical study provides useful implications for practice. First, our findings suggest that the three classical leader behavior orientations (LR-O, LR-O and LC-O) have very different, even opposing, influences on employee proactivity and extra-role customer service in hotel work. These findings, together with a review of the leadership literature, show that hotel managers must identify how leader-oriented behavior contributes to service quality in their companies, beyond leadership styles. We thus recommend that hotel managers seeking to promote proactivity and extra-role service behavior implement leadership

styles that focus primarily on LR-O behavior. Managers could also promote LC-O behavior only when they can ensure that the leader's behavior is perceived clearly as strongly oriented to change. Various practices can promote such assurance, including short leadership training programs to increase supervisors' knowledge of the influence of their behavior on employees' proactive behaviors.

Second, our findings enhance hotel managers' awareness of the significant role of cultural T-L on employees' willingness to develop extra-role customer service behaviors. Our results suggest that avoiding ambiguity and defining FLE's leeway clearly helps them engage in proactive decisions during service interactions. Hotel managers interested in promoting extra-role customer service must know that it is not enough to provide more flexible hierarchical structures and greater freedom of decision. They must also ensure that all (colleagues and supervisors) know that they are guaranteed clear margins of action, within which employee proactivity is welcomed and encouraged. Not doing so could discourage the emergence of proactive service behaviors. To achieve this goal, management can use both direct HRM tools (e.g., job descriptions or reward systems) and indirect tools (e.g., formal and informal meetings).

4.5.3. Limitations and future lines of research

The results of our research must be interpreted with consideration of some limitations that also open lines of future research. First, our cross-sectional sample did not allow us to understand the causality of the effects found. Future researchers can use longitudinal design to help test cause-effect patterns between different leader-oriented behaviors and implementation of service behaviors such as extra-role customer service in hotels.

Second, we measured the constructs included in the model from self-reported data. This method required caution when considering CMB as a potential problem in our analysis. Although the various procedural and statistical remedies used suggest that CMB was not a problem, future research could strengthen confidence in the study results—for example, by using data collected in different waves or from different sources.

Third, because the curvilinear relationship between LC-O behavior and employee proactivity was an unexpected result of our work, it was not one of our hypotheses and still needs theoretical support. Future research should consider the possibility of this nonlinear relationship when developing its hypotheses and provide theoretical support to advance knowledge of the effects of leadership in hotel work.

Finally, our research was designed to understand employee behavior. Consistent with this design, we used individual-level analysis. Study of both the leader's influence and the moderating effect of cultural T-L could be enriched by comparing our results to different levels of analysis. For example, future researchers could analyze these relationships using a group, organizational, or multi-level approach, enabling examination of possible differences from our results at employee-level.

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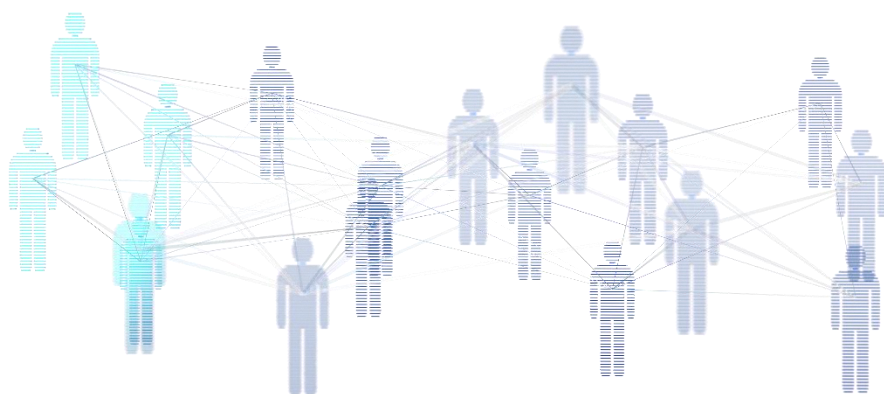
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5 | CONCLUSIONES E IMPLICACIONES



5. Conclusiones e implicaciones

5.1. Conclusiones

El comportamiento extra-rol de los empleados es un activo esencial para las organizaciones que, como los hoteles, basan buena parte de su estrategia competitiva la prestación de un servicio “marque la diferencia”. Conocer el potencial impacto que diferentes elementos presentes en el contexto de trabajo de la organización tienen sobre la formación de la voluntad del empleado para comprometerse en este tipo de comportamientos de servicio discrecionales es un aspecto crítico para los hoteles en un escenario competitivo y dinámico como el actual. La literatura previa sobre los comportamientos extra-rol de los empleados viene demostrando de manera consistente el impacto positivo que estos comportamientos, desarrollados por empleados de primera línea, tienen sobre los resultados organizacionales. Sin embargo, aún se necesitan nuevas investigaciones que nos ayuden a entender qué factores determinan la voluntad del empleado para comprometerse, o no, con este tipo de servicios discrecionales. Esto convierte el estudio de los comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los

empleados de primera línea en una de las líneas de investigación de mayor interés tanto para los académicos vinculados al estudio del *management* y la gestión de recursos humanos, como para las profesionales del sector hotelero. La presente tesis doctoral construye sobre el conocimiento teórico logrado durante las últimas décadas en relación al comportamiento extra-rol de los empleados y presenta tres investigaciones empíricas que contribuyen a aclarar el modo en que, diferentes elementos que forman parte del todo que constituye un ambiente de trabajo, son capaces de contribuir a la construcción de un servicio flexible y adaptados a los deseos del huésped mediante la aparición de comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados de primera línea. Cada uno de las tres investigaciones empíricas que componen el núcleo de esta tesis aborda este objetivo desde un punto de vista novedoso e inexplorado. Algunas de las preguntas de investigación que buscan respuesta en este trabajo son: ¿Qué papel juega en la aparición del servicio extra-rol un estilo de liderazgo novedoso para el sector como el liderazgo paradójico? ¿Es posible que el empleado se comprometa con comportamientos voluntarios más allá del rol formalmente asignado cuando experimenta presión? ¿La orientación a la tarea, a las relaciones o al cambio de un líder puede fomentar de igual modo la actitud proactiva del empleado y con ello, también, sus comportamientos proactivos extra-rol? Si bien a

continuación, se detallan las conclusiones principales de cada uno de los tres estudios empíricos que componen esta investigación doctoral, de manera general, los resultados obtenidos nos permiten concluir que, debido a su naturaleza discrecional, la disposición de los empleados de primera línea a desarrollar comportamientos de servicio más allá de su deber formal, se forma a partir de procesos complejos que involucran diferentes elementos del entorno de trabajo, y cuya comprensión y desarrollo requiere la consideración de estos mecanismos. Por lo tanto, una estrategia competitiva centrada en el comportamiento extra-rol del empleado de primera línea no puede ser exitosa sin considerar factores que van desde los presentes en el propio individuo a otros que constituyen la cultura o el estilo de liderazgo de la organización.

En primer lugar, esta investigación doctoral presenta un modelo teórico que probamos empíricamente para examinar la influencia de un estilo de liderazgo paradójico en el comportamiento de servicio extra-rol de los empleados de primera línea. Para ello analizamos no solo su efecto directo, sino también su influencia indirecta a través de dos mecanismos de mejora continua. De este modo nuestro modelo de doble mediación exploró la capacidad mediadora de comportamientos del empleado destinados a la superación personal (automejora) y destinados a la mejora organizacional (voz del empleado). En definitiva, ¿qué papel juega en la aparición del servicio extra-rol un

estilo de liderazgo novedoso para el sector como el liderazgo paradójico? Algunos autores han argumentado que los comportamientos extra-rol de los empleados que ayudan a los hoteles a competir pueden tener implicaciones paradójicas para los empleados (e.g., Bolino *et al.*, 2003, 2004). Nuestro estudio produjo algunos hallazgos significativos en este sentido. Nuestros resultados mostraron un efecto positivo del liderazgo paradójico en la intención del empleado de involucrarse en comportamientos de servicio extra-rol. La razón puede ser que el liderazgo paradójico muestra a los empleados cómo manejar las contradicciones asociadas a comportamientos de servicio fuera del rol asignado y requerido. Este efecto directo, también está parcialmente mediado por comportamientos de superación personal y de los destinados a la mejora organizacional, como las sugerencias y la participación activa mediante opiniones (voz del empleado). Este hallazgo ofrece evidencia empírica de la capacidad del liderazgo paradójico para guiar activamente a los empleados hacia la mejora continua. Por lo tanto, es posible concluir que un estilo de liderazgo paradójico favorece comportamientos de aprendizaje, mejora y participación de los empleados que contribuyen a crear un ambiente de trabajo basado en la mejora continua, que permite al empleado superar las paradojas asociadas a comportamientos extra-rol

y aumenta su intención de ir más allá de lo estrictamente obligatoria durante las interacciones de servicio.

En segundo lugar, buscamos entender el impacto que un ambiente de trabajo que presiona al empleado tiene sobre su intención de comprometerse en comportamientos voluntarios de servicio extra-rol. Más concretamente, ¿Qué papel juega la presión en la intención de los empleados de participar en comportamientos de servicio extra-rol? ¿Puede el nivel de concentración plena o *mindfulness* del empleado ayudarle a controlar los efectos de la presión en un entorno estresante como es el trabajo de hotel? Para ello analizamos empíricamente el efecto de los aumentos en la presión de desempeño experimentada por el empleado de primera línea sobre su comportamiento de servicio extra-rol. Este efecto se estudió directa e indirectamente a través del nivel de *engagement* del empleado, probando además como el nivel de atención plena o *mindfulness*, un rasgo presente en el individuo, puede moderar la relación anterior. Los resultados mostraron que cuando el empleado de primera línea se siente presionado por las consecuencias (positivas o negativas) de su desempeño el estrés experimentado desencadena un proceso que disminuye su *engagement* y reduce su disposición a involucrarse en comportamientos que excedan de lo estrictamente asignado a su rol. Es decir, experimentar presión puede evitar que los empleados se sientan orgullosos, enérgicos e

involucrados en construir un servicio excelente. Sin embargo, esta influencia no se produce directamente, sino que identificamos la necesidad de una tercera variable (en nuestro caso el *engagement*) para explicar esta influencia. Esto sugiere un proceso en el cual el *engagement* del empleado se convierte en correa transmisora de los efectos negativos de la presión. Esto puede ser explicado a partir de los postulados de la Teoría de la Autodeterminación, la cual postula que un factor estresante puede erosionar la motivación intrínseca de los individuos y hacer desaparecer su voluntad de comprometerse con esfuerzos adicionales. Nuestros hallazgos también identifican el importante papel regulador de la atención plena o *mindfulness* sobre el proceso anterior. En este sentido, nuestros resultados muestran que un nivel elevado de *mindfulness* en el empleado puede funcionar como un cortafuegos que bloquea los efectos de la presión sobre el *engagement* del empleado evitando que el proceso de destrucción de su voluntad para ir más allá durante el servicio se desencadene, o al menos, reduciéndolo casi por completo.

En último lugar, nuestra investigación muestra que los comportamientos del líder orientados a la tarea, a las relaciones o al cambio tienen efectos simultáneos y contradictorios sobre la actitud y el comportamiento proactivo de servicio extra-rol del empleado de primera línea. Más concretamente el último trabajo que compone esta

investigación doctoral responde a, ¿cómo influyen los diferentes tipos de comportamiento del líder (orientados a la tarea, al cambio o a las relaciones) en la aparición de comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados de hotel? Y, ¿puede el nivel percibido por el empleado de rigidez cultural condicionar la capacidad del líder para influir en la aparición de comportamientos proactivos de servicio más allá del rol formal? Investigaciones recientes advierten sobre la redundancia o sobreposición de constructo en algunos de los estilos de liderazgo más utilizados en la investigación de gestión hotelera (Banks *et al.*, 2018; Gerpott *et al.*, 2019; Yukl *et al.*, 2002). Nuestros resultados arrojaron luz sobre el modo en que algunos de los estilos de liderazgo más utilizados en el trabajo de hotel pueden incluir comportamientos que producen efectos contradictorios sobre el comportamiento de servicio extra-rol del empleado de primera línea. En este sentido comprobamos que el comportamiento del líder orientado a la tarea tiene un efecto negativo sobre los comportamientos extra-rol a través de la proactividad del empleado, mientras que encontramos una influencia positiva, tanto directa como indirecta, de los comportamientos del líder orientados a las relaciones. Además, el análisis reveló que la relación entre los comportamientos orientados al cambio y la proactividad del empleado no es lineal, sino curva. Este enfoque de estudio, además, nos ayuda a comprender por qué después de décadas de investigación sobre

liderazgo, estamos fallando en el objetivo de lograr fomentar la proactividad del empleado a través de los estilos de liderazgo más usuales. Además, nuestros resultados sugieren que mantener la rigidez cultural, puede ser positivo para obtener mejores resultados a través de un comportamiento proactivo de servicio extra-rol. Aunque investigaciones anteriores han señalado la necesidad de dar libertad a los empleados de hotel en contacto con el huésped para promover comportamientos de servicio autónomos y proactivos durante las interacciones de servicio, estos resultados muestran que lejos de ser perjudicial para la aparición de comportamientos voluntarios de los empleados durante las interacciones de servicio, la rigidez cultural desempeña un papel en la definición y clarificación de las condiciones de trabajo que regula la disposición del empleado, favoreciendo la aparición de comportamientos proactivos de servicio más allá de los requeridos formalmente.

5.2. Implicaciones de la investigación para el ámbito académico

5.2.1. Contribuciones teóricas

Esta tesis doctoral hace algunas contribuciones importantes a la gestión de recursos humanos en organizaciones hoteleras, y más concretamente, a la línea de investigación que trata de desentrañar las incógnitas en torno a los comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados. A través de las investigaciones empíricas que forman parte

de este trabajo doctoral proporcionamos nuevos sustentos teóricos que ayudan a construir nuestro conocimiento sobre los comportamientos de los empleados de primera línea más allá del rol prescrito que ayudan a mejorar el servicio hotelero.

En nuestro primer artículo, se teoriza y pone de manifiesto la naturaleza paradójica del comportamiento de servicio extra-rol en el contexto hotelero. Esto es, desarrollar comportamientos de servicio fuera del rol prescrito enfrenta a los empleados con situaciones contradictorias que condicionan su disposición para desarrollar, o no, este tipo de comportamientos voluntarios. Las necesidades que deben cubrir los empleados de primera línea durante el servicio hotelero son, por lo general inconsistentes y contradictorias. En su reciente informe “ *The age of I*” (IGH, 2017) sobre tendencias actuales del huésped de hotel, el grupo hotelero IHG identificó cuatro paradojas que definen los deseos de los huéspedes de hoy, y por lo tanto, el servicio hotelero. (1) Los huéspedes quieren, a la vez, que sus elecciones sean únicas y originales mientras desean sentirse conectados a una marca. (2) Quieren recibir un servicio exclusivo y a la vez asequible. (3) Desean tanto tener la capacidad de controlar el servicio, como recibir un servicio a su gusto sin necesidad de controlarlo. (4) Buscan tanto que sus intereses sean prioritarios, como contribuir al interés general. En definitiva, para satisfacer a un huésped que presta estas

contradicciones, los empleados de hotel de primera deben resolver enormes paradojas. Pero además de lo anterior, los comportamientos que se salen del rol estrictamente prescrito pueden producir respuestas contradictorias por parte de supervisores y compañeros (Bolino *et al.*, 2003). Cuando los empleados abandonan su rol formal para involucrarse en un comportamiento no requerido, puede percibir que sus compañeros rechazan esta actitud por considerarla un modo de competencia, convirtiéndose en un foco de conflictos interpersonales. Sin embargo, ese mismo comportamiento no requerido será probablemente bien recibido por el huésped y el supervisor. Si mantenerse dentro el rol significa para el empleado moverse en un terreno más seguro y menos conflictivo, cumpliendo con las obligaciones asignadas, ¿qué anima al empleado a ir más allá? ¿cuál es el incentivo para hacer más de lo obligado cuando adherirse estrictamente a función prescrita es además un modo de evitar conflictos? Proponemos que el estudio de los comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados necesita contemplar su naturaleza paradójica. De otro modo, estaríamos invisibilizando una importante parte del fenómeno que puede condicionar nuestra comprensión del mismo.

Construyendo sobre la teoría organizacional de la paradoja utilizada por Zhang *et al.* (2015) para desarrollar los fundamentos teóricos del

estilo de liderazgo paradójico y la teoría del aprendizaje social propuesta por Bandura (1997), este estudio explica teóricamente el mecanismo a través de cual un líder paradójico se convierte en un modelo a seguir mostrando a los empleados de hotel de primera línea como enfrentar las tensiones y contradicciones propias del servicio hotel de manera efectiva. El argumento teórico se centra en la idea del líder como modelo de rol para explicar cómo a través de su propio manejo de las paradojas es capaz de mostrar a los empleados el camino a seguir. Mas allá, nuestro trabajo introduce y conceptualiza un modelo teórico de mejora continua en el que la influencia del líder paradójico tiene un efecto positivo sobre la aparición del comportamiento de servicio extra-rol orientado al huésped por las razones aquí presentadas, pero no solo sobre él y no solo directamente, sino también a través otros comportamientos dirigidos a la mejora organizacional (como la voz de los empleados) o dirigidos a la mejoras personal y de las relaciones (como la automejora). La explicación para este proceso de mejora continua no es otro lo que todos estos comportamientos tienen en común, su naturaleza extra-rol. Todos ellos son desarrollados voluntariamente más allá del rol formal y todos ellos comparten la existencia de consecuencias paradójicas para el empleado. Por lo tanto, la influencia del liderazgo paradójico es positiva sobre todos ellos, lo que lo revela como una herramienta especialmente en un contexto de

servicio como el hostelero que basa en los comportamientos extra-rol de los empleados gran parte de su estrategia competitiva.

En el segundo trabajo de investigación que forma parte del núcleo de esta tesis doctoral ofrecemos implicaciones respecto de la clasificación teórica de un estresor como es la presión de desempeño como un estresor amenazante. Este estudio introduce, conceptualiza y operacionaliza la variable presión de desempeño en el contexto de estudio de la gestión hotelera. Para construir nuestro modelo, teorizamos que la reacción de los empleados de primera línea a la presión de desempeño está influenciada por el sentimiento de urgencia o tensión que proviene de las características inherentes al trabajo de hospitalidad. El efecto negativo de la presión de desempeño es consistente con Lazarus and Folkman (1984), quienes proponen que el sentimiento de urgencia que experimentan los empleados hace que la presión de desempeño sea una amenaza para ellos, activando procesos de estrés laboral (Gutnick *et al.*, 2012; Mitchell *et al.*, 2019). Con este hallazgo, nuestro estudio amplía y confirma los hallazgos de estudios previos. En este sentido, nos unimos a la corriente de literatura que argumenta la presencia de dos subgrupos de estresores, clasificados como estresores amenazantes y desafiantes en función de sus efectos en la motivación de los empleados (e.g., Karatepe *et al.*, 2014; Mitchell *et al.*, 2019).

Además, este estudio contribuye a extender la Teoría de la Autodeterminación (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Este marco teórico propone que las demandas estresantes impiden que los empleados satisfagan sus necesidades básicas de autonomía y competencia, socavando así su autodeterminación. Nuestros hallazgos sugieren que los empleados de hotel de primera línea se distancian del sentimiento de orgullo o participación en su trabajo cuando experimentan presión en un entorno estresante como el trabajo de hotel. La presión de rendimiento se convierte así en un obstáculo que impide que los empleados de hotel encuentren en sus puestos de trabajo un potencial de crecimiento personal o profesional, el potencial que conduce a su autodeterminación. El contexto establecido aquí ayuda a explicar el proceso descrito la Teoría de la Autodeterminación.

La influencia de estilos de liderazgo tradiciones sobre el trabajo de hotel podría ser uno de los temas más estudiados en la literatura de gestión hotelera. Con nuestro último artículo de investigación contribuimos a esclarecer el modo en que algunos de estos constructos se sobreponen teóricamente. Así, nuestro enfoque de análisis en comportamientos del líder enfocados a la tarea, las relaciones y el cambio (Yukl, 2012; Yukl *et al.*, 2002), ofrece un marco de estudio parsimonioso que permite delinear algunas implicaciones teóricas respecto de la sobreposición conceptual de algunos de los estilos de

liderazgo más comúnmente utilizados en la gestión hotelera. En este sentido, el liderazgo empoderante se ha identificado como un estilo capaz de resolver los principales problemas en el trabajo de hospitalidad al lograr empleados que puedan manejar las interacciones de servicio de manera autónoma (e.g., Boukis *et al.*, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019; Karatepe, 2013; Raub and Robert, 2012). El liderazgo empoderante generalmente se asocia con un mayor comportamiento del líder orientado a las relaciones (Derue and Humphrey, 2011; Yukl, 2012; Yukl *et al.*, 2019). Al medir este estilo de liderazgo, valoramos diferentes comportamientos del líder orientados a las relaciones, como el desarrollo de la confianza de los empleados. Por ejemplo, el liderazgo de empoderamiento alienta a los empleados a realizar tareas por iniciativa propia (Amundsen and Martinsen, 2014) (Amundsen y Martinsen, 2014), o tomar la iniciativa en la resolución de problemas o decisiones importantes (Ahearne *et al.*, 2005). Sin embargo, la descripción del liderazgo de empoderamiento también incluye comportamientos como facilitar el acceso a la información, que están estrechamente relacionados con comportamientos del líder orientados a la tarea como aclarar (Derue and Humphrey, 2011; Yukl, 2012; Yukl *et al.*, 2019). Nuestro trabajo teoriza y pone de manifiesto que esta forma de medir el liderazgo empoderante (principalmente a partir de comportamientos del líder orientados a las relaciones, pero en casos

excepcionales algún comportamiento orientado a la tarea) puede enmascarar los efectos negativos que el comportamiento orientado a la tarea tiene sobre los comportamientos proactivos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados. Es decir, al medir este constructo, el efecto positivo de un mayor enfoque en el comportamiento orientado a las relaciones estaría ocultando el efecto negativo de sus comportamientos orientados a la tarea. Por su parte, el liderazgo transformacional, uno de los estilos más estudiados en la investigación hotelera durante las últimas siete décadas (Arici *et al.*, 2021). Aunque el líder transformacional se concibe en general a partir de comportamientos orientados al cambio (Derue and Humphrey, 2011; Yukl, 2012; Yukl *et al.*, 2019), esta descripción incluye también comportamientos como la consideración individualizada hacia los seguidores que son, en esencia, comportamientos orientados a las relaciones (Derue and Humphrey, 2011). Si bien la investigación generalmente informa efectos positivos del liderazgo transformacional en el comportamiento proactivo de los empleados de la industria hotelera (Arici *et al.*, 2021), algunos estudios no siguen esta línea. Por ejemplo, el trabajo de Yang *et al.* (2020) informó recientemente que la interacción entre el liderazgo transformacional y la proactividad de los empleados tuvo un efecto negativo en el desempeño del servicio. Una explicación de estos efectos inesperados podría obtenerse a partir de un análisis detallado

de las evaluaciones de los diferentes comportamientos orientados a las relaciones y al cambio incluidos en este constructo. En definitiva, a partir de nuestros resultados este tercer trabajo contribuye desde un plano teórico al esclarecimiento de las teorías de liderazgo más usadas en la gestión hotelera.

5.2.1. Contribuciones empíricas

Son pocos los estudios que han analizado la influencia del estilo de liderazgo paradójico en la industria hotelera. Nuestro primer artículo trabajo obtiene evidencia empírica de que el liderazgo paradójico proporciona ventajas para estas organizaciones. Nuestros resultados amplían los escasos estudios anteriores. Por una parte, se había demostrado la capacidad del líder paradójico para fomentar la flexibilidad del empleado, logrando empleados más autónomos y creativos (Huertas-Valdivia, Gallego-Burín, *et al.*, 2019). Ampliamos estos resultados ofreciendo evidencia empírica que confirman que el líder paradójico produce esos mismos efectos sobre una variable expresamente ligada al servicio. Así, confirmamos que el líder paradójico crea un entorno de trabajo que alienta a los empleados de primera línea a desarrollar comportamientos extra-rol dirigidos a la mejora organizacional (voz del empleado), a la automejora y a la mejora del servicio al huésped (Çelen *et al.*, 2010; Morrison, 2011). Estos resultados son también consistentes con los informados previamente

por otros autores y que vincula el liderazgo paradójico con el desempeño del empleado durante el servicio (She *et al.*, 2020). Sin embargo, estudiar el desempeño in-rol puede ser radicalmente opuesto al estudio de los comportamientos extra-rol debido a sus características propias. Nuestros resultados ampliaron esta investigación confirmando explícitamente los efectos directos e indirectos del liderazgo paradójico sobre el comportamiento de servicio extra-rol dirigido al huésped. Finalmente, nuestro trabajo ofrece nuevas evidencias empíricas de los efectos del liderazgo paradójico en un contexto de trabajo occidental. Dado que la teoría del liderazgo paradójico ha sido desarrollada en un contexto de trabajo asiáticos, sus efectos podrían diferir en otras culturas. Aunque en su desarrollo se propone que el pensamiento paradójico y el manejo de la complejidad son universales (Zhang *et al.*, 2015), esta afirmación requiere confirmación empírica. Nuestro estudio se suma a los escasos precedentes, descontextualizando este estilo de liderazgo de la cultura asiática en la que se originó para ofrecer evidencia empírica de su eficacia en un contexto general (Fürstenberg *et al.*, 2021; Huertas-Valdivia, Gallego-Burín, *et al.*, 2019).

El segundo artículo que forma parte de esta tesis doctoral ofrece también algunas evidencias empíricas que contribuyen a la literatura del sector. Confirmamos y complementamos los hallazgos de Garg and

Dhar (2016, 2014), cuyo estudio mostró que los factores estresantes del trabajo impactan negativamente en la calidad del servicio debido a las características propias del trabajo de hotel. Sin embargo, este interesante trabajo no consideró la posibilidad de que diferentes factores estresantes pudieran tener efectos contradictorios en el desempeño de los empleados, es decir, podrían actuar como un desafío o un obstáculo. Nuestros resultados ofrecen evidencia empírica de los efectos negativos de un estresor de naturaleza amenazante, como es la presión de desempeño. Karatepe *et al.* (2014), a su vez, identificaron la sobrecarga de trabajo y la responsabilidad laboral como dos factores estresantes capaces de desafiar a los empleados y, por lo tanto, producir efectos positivos en el desempeño de los empleados. Nuestros resultados ahora proporcionan evidencia empírica del extremo opuesto para complementar esta investigación previa.

Además, nuestros hallazgos ofrecieron evidencia empírica sobre la necesidad de considerar una variable mediadora, el *engagement*, para lograr comprender el efecto de este estresor amenazante sobre los comportamientos de servicio extra-rol debido a la falta de relación directa entre ambos constructos. El servicio de hospitalidad a menudo presenta a los empleados un alto grado de participación y compromiso personal. Por lo tanto, mostramos empíricamente que experimentar presión del desempeño impide que los empleados se sientan

orgullosos, enérgicos e involucrados en un excelente servicio. Estos resultados se alinean con los hallazgos de otros autores que han relacionado diferentes factores estresantes como la sobrecarga, la ambigüedad de roles y el trabajo emocional con un menor nivel de *engagement* de los empleados de primera línea (e.g., Kim *et al.*, 2020; Lee and Madera, 2019).

Finalmente, este trabajo contribuyó con la evidencia empírica de los efectos moderadores de la atención plena o *mindfulness* del empleado, que lo posiciona como una valiosa herramienta capaz de corregir los efectos negativos de la presión sobre el comportamiento de servicio extra-rol. Este hallazgo concuerda con otros resultados cercanos que describen el potencial del *mindfulness* como reductor de los estados de ánimo negativos (Babalola *et al.*, 2019) o de los efectos del trabajo emocional en los empleados del sector servicios (Li *et al.*, 2017). Ofrecemos evidencia empírica a la idea de que el *mindfulness* es capaz de actuar como un cortafuegos que elimina, o en todo caso limita casi por completo, el proceso que desencadena la presión de desempeño, y a través del cual se daña la motivación intrínseca del empleado y por tanto su *engagement*.

Las evidencias empíricas obtenidas a partir del tercer artículo abren un interesante abanico de posibilidades respecto de la perspectiva de estudio del liderazgo en la gestión hotelera. Primero, nuestros

resultados muestran que el comportamiento de del líder orientado a la tarea está negativamente relacionado con los comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados a través de su proactividad. Este resultado brinda apoyo empírico a los autores que argumentaron desde un plano teórico que un líder que se enfoca en monitorear u operacionalizar tareas y objetivos puede enviar un mensaje al empleado de que la proactividad su proactividad no es necesaria, o incluso, deseada (Ohly *et al.*, 2006; Parker *et al.*, 2006; Wu and Parker, 2017). En segundo lugar, encontramos efectos positivos tanto directos como indirectos del comportamiento del líder orientado a las relaciones sobre el comportamiento de servicio extra-rol. Este resultado está respaldado teóricamente por estudios previos que sugieren que promover la seguridad, la autonomía y la iniciativa propia de los empleados puede activar su proactividad y, por lo tanto, comportamientos proactivos como el servicio extra-rol (e.g., Cai *et al.*, 2019; Kim *et al.*, 2009; Ohly *et al.*, 2006; Parker, 2007). El resultado también respalda las conclusiones de investigaciones anteriores que sugieren que un estilo de liderazgo consistentemente compuesto por comportamientos orientado a las relaciones, como el liderazgo de servicio, es especialmente adecuado para la industria hotelera (e.g., Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2021; Kaya and Karatepe, 2020; Ozturk *et al.*, 2021).

Finalmente, nuestros resultados sugieren que mantener la rigidez cultural puede ser positivo para obtener mejores resultados de servicio a través del comportamiento de servicio extra-rol de los empleados. Varios autores han sugerido que es necesario fomentar una mayor capacidad de decisión entre los empleados de hotel de primera línea como medio para promover comportamientos extra-rol de servicio al huésped (e.g. Boukis *et al.*, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019, 2022; Ro and Chen, 2011). Aunque nuestros parezcan contradecir esta corriente de opinión, los dos puntos de vista son compatibles si se observan a través de la lente de las características del trabajo de hotel. El trabajo de hotel a menudo se caracteriza por la inconsistencia de roles, el estrés y las largas jornadas de trabajo tanto de día como de noche (Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2022). Desplegar discrecionalmente comportamientos más allá del rol formal en este entorno de trabajo puede crear tensión entre los empleados de primera línea y sus compañeros debido a que alimentan la competitividad y las comparaciones (Bolino *et al.*, 2003, 2004; Zhao and Ghiselli, 2016). Proponemos que la aparición de comportamientos de servicio extra-rol requiere no solo de estructuras jerárquicas más flexibles y mayor libertad de elección durante las interacciones de servicio como se ha argumentado (e.g. Boukis *et al.*, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia *et al.*, 2019, 2022; Ro and Chen, 2011), sino también de reglas claramente establecidas que marquen unos

márgenes bien definidos para todos (empleados y mandos) que ayuden a los empleados a desplegar estos comportamientos voluntarios sin ambigüedad ni dudas sobre cómo serán recibidos.

5.3. Implicaciones para la práctica empresarial

Cuando el presidente de una cadena hotelera tan lujosa como Ritz-Carlton afirma que *“the amenity that matters most to our guest is not a fancy cholate on the pillow but a dedication to service that never wavers”* (Michelli, 2008), está señalando la importancia de ofrecer un servicio único al cliente, incluso por delante de la calidad de instalaciones o productos. Revela que el lujo en el servicio, por encima del lujo en lo tangible, es clave para el éxito en hoteles. Con ello está mostrando el camino a otros establecimientos hoteleros. Para aquellas organizaciones interesadas en seguir este camino los hallazgos y contribuciones de esta tesis doctoral brindan algunas implicaciones prácticas que pueden presentar oportunidades para el desarrollo y puesta en marcha de políticas de recursos humanos que busquen contribuir a la estrategia competitiva de la empresa. Dado que estas organizaciones depositan en los comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados de primera línea buena parte de sus estrategias para competir, conocer los mecanismos a través de que se fortalece o debilita la voluntad de los empleados para involucrarse en este tipo de comportamientos discrecionales, puede marcar la diferencia. Esta

investigación doctoral tres principales bloques de implicaciones que gerentes y directivos de recursos humanos de hotel pueden aprovechar para conseguir diferenciar su servicio de un modo sólido y sostenible.

En primer lugar, nuestro trabajo sugiere que un liderazgo paradójico puede fomentar el comportamiento de servicio extra-rol tanto directa como indirectamente. En este sentido, recomendamos a los gerentes de la industria hotelera que al seleccionar o formar a los líderes, especialmente aquellos que trabajarán con empleados de primera línea, busquen o procuren las características del líder paradójico. Para Zhang et al. (2015) el líder paradójico responde a situaciones contradictorias con un comportamiento estable alejado de improvisaciones, no polarizado. Por ejemplo, ofrece un trato uniforme a todos sus seguidores y al mismo tiempo atiende las individualidades de cada uno, exige el cumplimiento de las tareas y al mismo tiempo es percibido por los empleados como flexible, mantiene el control de las decisiones a la vez que permite autonomía a los empleados. Estos comportamientos del líder presentan un nuevo enfoque que puede ofrecer un aporte singular en la tarea de construir organizaciones hoteleras más adaptables a la realidad compleja y competitiva actual y, particularmente, a las contingencias que se derivan de la gestión de personas, una necesidad prioritaria para la industria como han puesto

de manifiesto numerosos autores (e.g., Baum, 2015; Brownell, 2010; Elkhwesky et al., 2022; Huertas-Valdivia et al., 2022). En otra dirección, las organizaciones también pueden trabajar la aparición de comportamientos voluntarios de servicio más allá del rol formal través de un contexto de trabajo orientado a la mejora. Nuestro trabajo sugiere que el liderazgo paradójico influye sobre algunos comportamientos voluntarios del empleado orientados a la automejora, como el aprendizaje observacional y la búsqueda de consejo, o los comportamientos de voz orientados a la mejora de la organización. Estos resultados dan credibilidad a la idea de que un empleado que busca su propia mejora y la mejora de la organización, también prestará un mejor servicio al cliente. Un programa de mentoría construido a partir del liderazgo paradójico, servirá para alentar en los empleados de primera línea comportamientos de automejora y mejora organizativa. La presencia continua de este grupo de comportamientos voluntarios del del empleado, permitirá a los gerentes contar con equipos de trabajo orientados hacia una mejora permanente, lo que facilitará la aparición de comportamientos de servicio extra-rol orientados al huésped, además de otros resultados positivos para la organización (Shamim et al, 2017).

En segundo lugar, aunque los directivos podrían caer en la tentación de pensar que una mayor presión conducirá a un mejor desempeño de los

empleados, nuestros resultados sugieren que esto no ocurre en el caso de los comportamientos de servicio extra-rol. Más allá, encontramos que un aumento de la presión de desempeño experimentada por el empleado, perjudica la aparición de este tipo de comportamientos de servicio voluntarios debido a su impacto negativo sobre el *engagement* del empleado. Desde un punto de vista práctico, es importante que los gerentes consideren este hallazgo para el diseño de los objetivos de cada puesto de trabajo y durante las entrevistas de evaluación del desempeño. Por una parte, los objetivos periódicos deben ser diseñados de manera que ayuden a disminuir la incertidumbre del empleado. Aunque la presión de desempeño es una percepción del empleado y, por tanto, una valoración subjetiva, esta valoración puede estar influenciada o incrementada por inconsistencias o contradicciones entre las políticas organizacionales y los requerimientos del puesto de trabajo. Para evitarlo, los empleados deben participar en el proceso de establecimiento de objetivos siempre que sea posible o, al menos, conocer los criterios utilizados para fijarlos y tener la posibilidad de alertar sobre posibles contradicciones. Por otra parte, el empleado debe saber que durante la evaluación de su desempeño se tendrá en cuenta el modo en que las características propias del servicio hotelero pueden influir en el desempeño individual. Por ejemplo, la dificultad para prever

adecuadamente cada interacción de servicio o la influencia del trabajo de todo el equipo en la métrica de la de satisfacción del huésped. Las organizaciones deben ser muy explícitas sobre estas cuestiones para evitar que el empleado experimente presión de desempeño como una carrera repleta de obstáculos y trampas para llegar a la meta. Además, nuestros resultados han señalado que el nivel de mindfulness del empleado puede convertirse en una valiosa herramienta para contrarrestar el efecto negativo de la presión de desempeño. Este hallazgo puede tener distintas implementaciones en las organizaciones hoteleras. Por ejemplo, los gerentes pueden diseñar programas de formación con el objetivo de mejorar la capacidad de mindfulness de los empleados. En esta línea, los programas *Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction* (MBSR) presentan un enfoque adecuado a este fin (Grossman et al., 2004). Un programa de formación de este tipo, integrada en un plan de acogida de nuevos empleados podría, no solo puede ayudar a mejorar esta capacidad a nivel individual, sino que podría contribuir a integrarla como parte de la cultura organizacional.

Finalmente, recomendamos a los gerentes de hotel que busquen clarificar la orientación de los comportamientos de aquellos mandos que lideran equipos de empleados de primera línea. Nuestros resultados sugieren que promover la proactividad y la aparición de comportamientos voluntarios de servicio que exceden el rol formal,

requiere de líderes que se alejen de comportamientos centrados en la tarea y se centren principalmente en aquellos centrados en las relaciones. Varias prácticas pueden promover tal orientación, incluidos los programas breves de capacitación en liderazgo para aumentar el conocimiento de los supervisores sobre la influencia de su comportamiento en los comportamientos proactivos de los empleados. Además, nuestros hallazgos presentan una oportunidad para que los directivos de recursos humanos tomen conciencia de la importancia que el establecimiento de un margen claro de actuación tiene para la aparición de comportamientos voluntarios de servicio extra-rol. Nuestros resultados sugieren que evitar la ambigüedad y definir el margen de maniobra claramente de los empleados de primera línea les ayuda a tomar decisiones proactivas durante las interacciones de servicio. Los directores de hotel interesados en potenciar la mejora del servicio mediante comportamientos de servicio más allá de rol prescrito deben saber que no basta con dotar de estructuras jerárquicas más flexibles y mayor libertad de decisión. También deben asegurarse de que todos (compañeros y supervisores) sepan que tienen garantizados márgenes claros de acción, dentro de los cuales se agradece y fomenta la proactividad de los empleados. No hacerlo podría desalentar el surgimiento de conductas proactivas de servicio. Para lograr este objetivo, la gerencia puede utilizar tanto herramientas

directas de gestión de recursos humanos (e.g., descripciones de puestos o sistemas de recompensas) como herramientas indirectas (e.g., reuniones formales e informales).

5.4. Limitaciones y futuras líneas de investigación

Los hallazgos y contribuciones de este trabajo de investigación doctoral no están exentos de limitaciones que obligan a considerar los hallazgos aquí presentados con cautela.

5.4.1. Reflexiones sobre limitaciones presentes en la investigación científica y prevención de sesgos

En primer lugar, es necesario hacer un reconocimiento expreso al hecho de que cualquier modelo de investigación tiene una naturaleza limitada o incompleta. El estudio de las ciencias sociales, y especialmente del comportamiento humano, es demasiado complejo para ser capturado por completo a partir de un modelo teórico basado en las relaciones entre un grupo limitado de variables. Contemplar en su totalidad un fenómeno complejo como el comportamiento de grupos de personas organizadas que actúan en entornos dinámicos, mediante un modelo de investigación limitado, es como tratar de capturar la técnica de vuelo de un grupo de aves con una fotografía fija. Por lo tanto, es una reflexión comúnmente aceptada reconocer que cualquier modelo de investigación es siempre imperfecto y presenta una limitación consustancial a la investigación científica.

Además, el estudio de los comportamientos de los empleados requiere, generalmente, contemplar modelos de investigación formados por constructos o variables latentes que representan realidades no observables, y por tanto, no susceptibles de medición (e.g., percepciones, comportamientos, rasgos, habilidades), que se operacionaliza mediante *proxies* o ponderaciones de los indicadores vinculados a cada constructo. En este sentido, una limitación generalmente aceptada es la existencia de una brecha de validez entre el concepto que el investigador trata de medir y el constructo concreto que resulta de la combinación de los indicadores o variables manifiestas utilizadas a tal fin (Hair *et al.*, 2019; Rigdon *et al.*, 2017). Sin embargo, las propias características de la investigación en ciencias sociales hacen que este enfoque basado en constructos que se aproximan a la realidad o *proxies*, o sea en realidad bastante realista debido a la naturaleza no observable de una considerable cantidad de las variables de interés (Hair *et al.*, 2017).

Finalmente, de forma general los trabajos de investigación, y particularmente los que examinan comportamientos, rasgos o percepciones, son susceptibles de incurrir en sesgos (ver Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003 para una completa recopilación de las tipologías y efectos de los distintos sesgos). Por ello, es necesario considerar el potencial efecto que sesgos provenientes de fuentes diversas puedan tener sobre

los resultados de la investigación. Desde un punto de vista preventivo, la planificación del trabajo de investigación debe considerar cuidadosamente y tratar de limitar el potencial peligro que representan sesgos tan variados como los provenientes del método de recogida de datos, de las características de los individuos participantes o incluso de los propios investigadores. Desde una óptica confirmatoria, es necesario descartar la posibilidad de que los sesgos que potencialmente afectan a cada investigación debido a sus características tengan un efecto capaz de condicionar los resultados obtenidos mediante pruebas estadísticas. Todas estas consideraciones fueron tomadas en cuenta de acuerdo a las particularidades de nuestro trabajo de investigación y se presentan detalladamente en los capítulos 2, 3 y 4. A continuación se expone someramente el tratamiento de esta y otras limitaciones que presenta particularmente esta tesis doctoral y se consideran la oportunidad de investigación futura que representan.

5.4.2. Limitaciones de esta investigación y futuras líneas de investigación

Nuestra investigación adoptó un enfoque de análisis basado en el individuo. Dado que buscamos entender cómo se construye o qué afecta a la voluntad del empleado para ir más allá de su obligación cuando el servicio lo requiere para cumplir con las expectativas del huésped, un análisis basado en el individuo es la opción más adecuada. Es el propio individuo, el empleado en este caso, quien puede hacer

una mejor valoración de sus propias percepciones, actitudes o comportamientos, para a su vez, construir la aproximación más exacta de constructos que representen su disposición a desarrollar comportamientos de servicio extra-rol, su *engagement*, su proactividad o el modo en que percibe los comportamientos del líder. Si bien existe evidencia de que cuando el objetivo es medir los comportamientos y actitudes de una fuente focal, los datos de autoinforme son más precisos que otros métodos (Carpenter *et al.*, 2017), no es menos cierto que este método de recopilación de datos requiere considerar un potencial sesgo de método común (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2012).

Con esto en mente, el trabajo de investigación que da soporte a esta tesis doctoral abordó esta posible injerencia en los resultados mediante soluciones procedimentales y estadísticas que se detallaron exhaustivamente en los capítulos 2, 3 y 4. En primer lugar, se siguieron varias recomendaciones establecidas para garantizar que se eliminara o minimizara el sesgo del método, siguiendo los métodos de procedimiento sugeridos por las directrices de Podsakoff *et al.* (2003). Como resultado, las variables independientes y dependientes se organizaron de modo que no replicaran el orden de las hipótesis, lo que hacía poco probable que los encuestados intuyeran el modelo de investigación específico. Además, si no se conoce la pregunta de investigación, los encuestados son menos capaces de manipular sus

respuestas para satisfacer las expectativas sobre las relaciones asumidas. Se incluyeron diferentes instrucciones y elementos de relleno para crear una separación psicológica entre los conjuntos de variables. En segundo lugar, usamos remedios estadísticos para tratar de identificar la presencia de efectos potenciales de los sesgos del método en los resultados de nuestra investigación. Para garantizar que el sesgo del método no sea un problema en nuestra investigación, además de los métodos de procedimiento sugeridos por Podsakoff et al. (2003) y la prueba de factor único de Harman, también utilizamos la técnica de marcador de correlación (Lindell and Whitney, 2001). Nuestra investigación incluyó las variables de interés para este estudio y una variable teóricamente ajena a ellas (variable marcadora) pero igualmente susceptible a sesgos de medición. Este método asume que, cuando la varianza del método común está presente, la variable marcadora se verá tan afectada como las variables de interés por los efectos del método. Las correlaciones entre las variables latentes de interés los estudios fueron mayores que la correlación entre la variable marcador y las variables de interés.

Más allá de lo señalado anteriormente, siguiendo a Podsakoff et al. (2012) es posible afirmar que cuando los modelos de investigación ponen de manifiesto efectos interactivos o cuadráticos, como los incluidos en esta tesis doctoral, es poco probable que el sesgo de

método común tenga una influencia preocupante en los resultados dado que, si estuviera presente como estos autores argumentaron, los efectos de interacción interacciones se desinflarían. Aun así, futuras investigaciones pueden tratar de utilizar de incluir variables susceptibles de ser medidas a partir de datos procedentes de fuentes distintas al autoinforme, por ejemplo, alguna variable de desempeño medida por a nivel grupal o evaluada por el superior jerárquico.

Finalmente, nuestros criterios para seleccionar a los informantes no apuntaban específicamente a obtener una muestra representativa, sino a los empleados de hoteles que deseaban participar en nuestro estudio dentro de un área geográfica conveniente. Así, utilizamos una muestra de conveniencia para la cual los sujetos fueron seleccionados por su accesibilidad, proximidad geográfica al equipo de investigación y disponibilidad en un momento dado (Etikan *et al.*, 2016). El número de participantes de cada hotel visitado dependía así de dos criterios: (1) los participantes debían mostrar voluntad de participar y ser geográficamente accesibles; (2) los participantes debían tener contacto directo con los huéspedes durante la mayoría de sus tareas (es decir, ser recepcionistas, personal de reservas, conserjes, botones o meseros). Por lo tanto, omitimos a los empleados administrativos.

Nuestra decisión de utilizar este tipo de muestreo no es un caso aislado en los estudios de gestión de recursos humanos en el sector

turístico. Un gran número de estudios con un enfoque similar al de nuestra investigación y publicados en las principales revistas de gestión hotelera han utilizado muestreo por conveniencia (e.g., Dai *et al.*, 2019; Elhoushy and El-Said, 2020; Huertas-Valdivia, Braojos, *et al.*, 2019; Huertas-Valdivia, Gallego-Burín, *et al.*, 2019; Kanwal and Van Hoya, 2020; Kim *et al.*, 2020). Más concretamente, es una de las técnicas no probabilísticas que utilizan los investigadores cuando estudian las actitudes y el comportamiento de los empleados en la hostelería (e.g., Huertas-Valdivia, Gallego-Burín, *et al.*, 2019; Kanwal and Van Hoya, 2020; Karatepe *et al.*, 2018; Kim *et al.*, 2020). Dado que el objetivo principal de nuestra investigación es probar la veracidad de las relaciones teóricas propuestas, el muestreo de conveniencia el enfoque transversal puede ser suficiente (Assiouras *et al.*, 2019). Por lo tanto, el uso de este tipo de muestreo es una opción para el investigador que depende del objeto de estudio y ofrece ventajas y desventajas.

Durante el diseño de los trabajos de investigación que sustentan esta tesis doctoral, resultó inabarcable la determinación de la población objetivo total de los trabajadores de la hostelería, paso previo para seleccionar un método de muestreo probabilístico. Las principales bases de datos, como SABI, proporcionan información sobre el director general o responsable de recursos humanos de cada empresa, pero no sobre sus trabajadores de contacto con el cliente. El Instituto Nacional

de Estadística (INE) de España contiene información limitada sobre los trabajadores de hostelería en contacto con el cliente (<https://www.ine.es/dyngs/IOE/es/operacion.htm?numinv=16030>), reportando solo una media del total del hotel trabajadores ocupados por mes, sin referencia a sus categorías laborales ni al departamento al que pertenecen. Por lo tanto, no podemos distinguir qué empleados trabajan estrictamente en las áreas de Recepción o Reservas del hotel para definir nuestra población deseada. (Por ejemplo, nuestro estudio no abordó a las camareras de piso de los hoteles visitados, ya que no tienen contacto directo con el cliente). Por otra parte, todos los cuestionarios fueron administrados personalmente a los empleados directamente en sus lugares de trabajo. Este procedimiento nos obligaba a acotar el ámbito geográfico del estudio a un número manejable de ciudades, aquellas situadas entre las diez más visitadas a lo largo del año en España. En definitiva, estas limitaciones nos llevaron a utilizar el muestreo de conveniencia en lugar de métodos de muestreo probabilísticos, adoptando los criterios seguidos por otros investigadores antes que nosotros (e.g. Dai *et al.*, 2019; Deng *et al.*, 2013; Kanwal and Van Hoyer, 2020; Kim *et al.*, 2020).

A pesar de todo esto, es necesario reconocer que esta forma de seleccionar a los empleados participantes constituye una limitación de esta tesis doctoral dado que limita generalización de los resultados a la

población general. En este sentido se hace un reconocimiento expreso de este hecho en cada uno de los artículos de investigación que conforman los capítulos 2, 3 y 4 de esta tesis doctoral, donde también recomendamos que los futuros investigadores utilicen métodos de muestreo probabilístico para avanzar en la comprensión del fenómeno en estudio.

5.5. Consideraciones finales

El surgimiento de comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados de primera línea tiene amplias implicaciones para la calidad del servicio de hotel y permite una mejor prestación de servicios que la competencia. Las investigaciones recientes expresan cada vez más una esperanza de que el campo de estudio vinculado a los comportamientos de civismo organizacional, y más concretamente los comportamientos de servicio extra-rol de los empleados, inicie un cambio de lente o enfoque que promueva el desarrollo de modelos de gestión de recursos humanos que contribuyan a una mejor comprensión de estos comportamientos tomando como base su esencia distintiva fundamental. Tales avances no son solo urgentes para ir más allá de la conceptualización compleja de los comportamientos extra-rol de los empleados y sus consecuencias, generalmente beneficiosas para la organización, sino también para proporcionar contribuciones relevantes para las organizaciones hoteleras que necesitan

implementar equipos eficientes de trabajo formados por empleados de primera línea altamente proactivos durante las interacciones de servicio. Esperamos que esta investigación doctoral ponga luz en el camino de estos profesionales e inspire a futuros doctorandos e investigadores para alcanzar nuevos conocimientos y aplicaciones que desvelen la “magia” detrás de la voluntad del empleado para ir más allá de lo exigido.

5.6. Referencias

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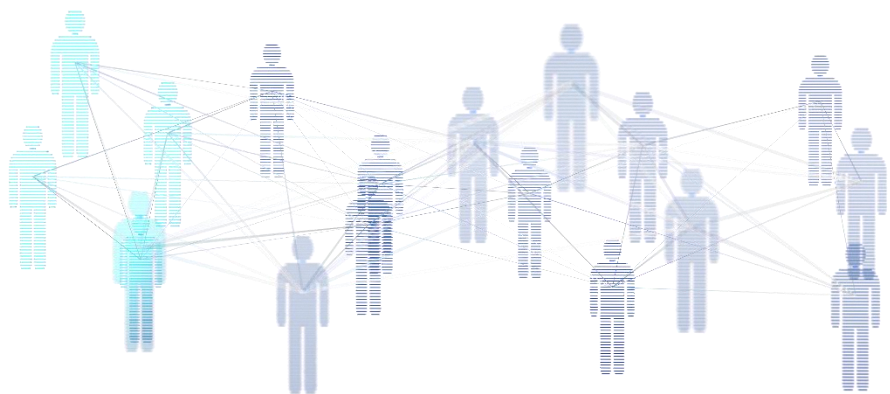
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Apéndice: Cuestionario





UNIVERSIDAD
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Nos dirigimos a usted para pedir su colaboración rellenando el cuestionario adjunto. Este cuestionario forma parte de una investigación desarrollada en el marco del Programa de Doctorado de Ciencias Económicas y Empresariales de la Universidad de Granada, con el objetivo de realizar una tesis doctoral que ayude a mejorar nuestro conocimiento en torno a la gestión de los Recursos Humanos y el Comportamiento Organizacional en empresas del sector turístico.

Su participación y colaboración es realmente valiosa para llevar a cabo esta investigación, ya que nos permitirá comprender el fenómeno estudiado y aportará fundamentos que posibiliten una mejora de los sistemas y la organización del trabajo en empresas hoteleras.

Por favor, responda a las preguntas en el orden que se presentan. Es muy importante que complete el cuestionario en su totalidad. Las tres primeras secciones presentan una serie de afirmaciones con las que deberá expresar su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo según su experiencia personal, por este motivo **no existen respuestas correctas o incorrectas**. Lea cuidadosamente cada afirmación y responda con la máxima sinceridad y franqueza, según sus vivencias. La última parte recoge datos demográficos que serán utilizados con fines estadísticos.

Las respuestas y datos proporcionados por usted serán tratados exclusivamente por el equipo investigador de manera **anónima y confidencial**. En ningún caso se identificará al individuo o la organización durante el estudio.

Para cualquier consulta puede contactar con el equipo investigador en el Dpto. de Organización de Empresas I, de la Facultad de Ciencias Económicas y Empresariales, escribiendo a elirescalvo@urg.es.

Agradecemos sinceramente su colaboración y el esfuerzo por contestar íntegramente el cuestionario que se plantea a continuación.

SECCIÓN 1: EMPLEADO

1.A.- Indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las afirmaciones que se relacionan a continuación, reflexionando sobre **SUS ACTITUDES Y EXPERIENCIAS** en el entorno laboral actual. Para ello, utilice la siguiente escala para puntuar:

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Totalmente en desacuerdo	Bastante en desacuerdo	Algo en desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo, ni en desacuerdo	Algo de acuerdo	Bastante de acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo

En mi trabajo:

Busco constantemente formas de mejorar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mi actitud facilita los cambios.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nada es más emocionante que ver mis ideas convertidas en realidad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Si veo algo que no me gusta, lo soluciono.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Siempre intento conseguir aquello en lo que creo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Defiendo mis ideas, incluso cuando otros se oponen a ellas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Destaco identificando oportunidades.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Siempre busco mejores maneras de hacer las cosas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Si creo en una idea, ningún obstáculo impide que la haga realidad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Puedo detectar una buena oportunidad mucho antes que los demás.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mientras trabajo me siento lleno de energía.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Al trabajar siento que puedo con todo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Me apasiona mi trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mi trabajo me motiva.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Al despertar, me apetece ir a trabajar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trabajar intensamente me hace feliz.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Me siento orgulloso de mi trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cuando trabajo me concentro profundamente en mis tareas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cuando estoy trabajando me siento entusiasmado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.B.- Indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las afirmaciones que se relacionan a continuación, reflexionando sobre **SUS COMPORTAMIENTOS** en el entorno laboral actual. Para ello, utilice la siguiente escala para puntuar:

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Totalmente en desacuerdo	Bastante en desacuerdo	Algo en desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo, ni en desacuerdo	Algo de acuerdo	Bastante de acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo

En mi trabajo:

Ayudo voluntariamente a los clientes, incluso si esto significa ir más allá de las exigencias de mi trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Atiendo a los clientes que lo necesitan, más allá de las expectativas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A menudo voy más allá de mis obligaciones cuando atiendo a los clientes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gustosamente hago todo lo posible para satisfacer a un cliente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Con frecuencia me salgo de lo establecido para ayudar a un cliente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Opino ante mi supervisor sobre temas que afectan al grupo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Comento con mi jefe asuntos generales, y animo a otros compañeros a hacerlo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Expreso mi opinión ante mi supervisor, incluso si otros no la comparten.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intento mantenerme informado para dar opiniones útiles a la organización.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Comento con mi jefe temas que afectan a la calidad de vida en el trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Expongo mis ideas sobre nuevos proyectos o cambios a mi supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pregunto a mis compañeros cómo resolver temas generales de trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pido información a mis compañeros acerca de procedimientos de trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hablo con mis compañeros sobre cómo resolver problemas laborales.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pido consejo a mis compañeros sobre cómo realizar tareas concretas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pregunto a mis compañeros sobre prioridades de trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Pregunto a mis compañeros cómo utilizar equipos o materiales.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pido consejo a mis compañeros sobre cantidad y calidad de trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pregunto sobre obligaciones y trámites.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intento aprender del comportamiento de mis compañeros.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Observo cuidadosamente el comportamiento de mis compañeros.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reflexiono sobre el comportamiento de mis compañeros.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intento asimilar mi comportamiento al de mis compañeros.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.C.- Indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las afirmaciones que se relacionan a continuación, reflexionando sobre **SUS SENTIMIENTOS Y EMOCIONES** en el entorno laboral actual. Para ello, utilice la siguiente escala para puntuar:

① Totalmente en desacuerdo	② Bastante en desacuerdo	③ Algo en desacuerdo	④ Ni de acuerdo, ni en desacuerdo	⑤ Algo de acuerdo	⑥ Bastante de acuerdo	⑦ Totalmente de acuerdo
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En mi trabajo:

En mi trabajo hay fuertes presiones para lograr los resultados.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Me siento muy presionado para producir resultados.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Si tengo un rendimiento bajo, pongo en riesgo mi puesto trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Describiría mi lugar de trabajo como un entorno orientado al cumplimiento de resultados.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mi conducta puede dañar la reputación o socavar el éxito de otros.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
En ocasiones puedo ofender intencionadamente a otros.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
En ocasiones difundo rumores sobre personas de mi entorno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A veces hablo mal de mis compañeros a su espalda.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A veces critico el trabajo de otros sin intención de ayudar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECCIÓN 2: EXPERIENCIA COTIDIANA

Este apartado contiene varias afirmaciones que describen distintas situaciones del día a día. **PIENSE EN SUS EXPERIENCIAS COTIDIANAS** e indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las afirmaciones que se mencionan a continuación, según su propia experiencia. Para ello, utilice la siguiente escala para puntuar:

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Totalmente en desacuerdo	Bastante en desacuerdo	Algo en desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo, ni en desacuerdo	Algo de acuerdo	Bastante de acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo

En mi día a día:

Puedo experimentar emociones sin ser consciente de ellas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A veces rompo o derramo algo por estar despistado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Me cuesta concentrarme en el presente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Camino rápido, sin percatarme de lo que ocurre en el trayecto.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No siento tensión o malestar físico hasta que se hace muy evidente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Olvido el nombre de una persona en cuanto me lo dicen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hago las cosas de manera automática, sin ser consciente de ello.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Me pongo rápidamente con una tarea sin prestarle mucha atención.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Me concentro tanto en mi objetivo, que me olvido del proceso.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Realizo mis tareas automáticamente, sin percatarme de lo que hago.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Escucho a mis compañeros, mientras hago otras cosas a la vez.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Me desplazo en “piloto automático”, y al llegar no recuerdo para qué fui.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Me preocupo por el futuro o el pasado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hago cosas sin prestar atención.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Picoteo sin darme cuenta de que estoy comiendo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECCIÓN 3: PERCEPCIONES SOBRE EL LIDERAZGO

Este apartado contiene distintos comportamientos que describen el estilo de liderazgo de un superior jerárquico, tal y como usted lo percibe. **PIENSE EN SU JEFE DIRECTO** e indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las afirmaciones que se muestran a continuación. Para ello, utilice la siguiente escala para puntuar:

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Totalmente en desacuerdo	Bastante en desacuerdo	Algo en desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo, ni en desacuerdo	Algo de acuerdo	Bastante de acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo

Mi jefe directo:

Trata a todos por igual, pero tiene en cuenta sus diferencias.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pone a todos al mismo nivel, pero analiza sus características personales.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Traslada órdenes a todos, pero varía su estilo según las características de cada trabajador.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Dirige a todos por igual, pero considera la situación de cada uno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Asigna igual carga de trabajo, pero examinando capacidades individuales.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Muestra deseo por liderar, pero permite que otros compartan el rol de líder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Le gusta ser el centro de atención, pero permite que otros destaquen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exige respeto, pero también muestra respeto hacia los demás.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Se muestra seguro de sí mismo, pero es consciente del valor de otros.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Está seguro de sí mismo, pero reconoce que puede aprender de los demás.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Controla cuestiones importantes, pero delega los detalles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Toma la decisión final, pero cede el control de temas concretos.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Decide en asuntos relevantes, pero delega en cuestiones menores.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Conserva el control, pero concede cierta autonomía a sus trabajadores.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Reclama un desempeño excelente, pero contempla excepciones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Establece necesidades, pero no supervisa personalmente cada detalle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Es exigente con el rendimiento, pero sin ser excesivamente crítico.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Quiere un trabajo bien hecho, pero admite que se pueden cometer errores.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mantiene las diferencias jerárquicas, pero no actúa con superioridad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mantiene la distancia, pero sin ser indiferente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Conserva la jerarquía, pero respeta la dignidad de los trabajadores.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mantiene su posición, pero muestra un trato amigable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Asigna tareas explicando responsabilidades, objetivos y expectativas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Revisa el avance y la calidad del trabajo, evaluando el rendimiento.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Establece cómo utilizar los recursos disponibles para el logro de un objetivo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Promueve la participación mediante ideas y sugerencias.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Muestra apoyo y consideración ante una tarea difícil o estresante.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Muestra reconocimiento ante un logro significativo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Brinda consejo, proporcionando oportunidades para el desarrollo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Permite cierta autonomía en el cumplimiento de las tareas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Describe los resultados esperados con entusiasmo y convicción.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Asume riesgos para lograr los cambios deseados.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reta a los trabajadores a mantener una actitud de mejora continua.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Analiza cambios en el entorno, identificando amenazas y oportunidades.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

¿Cuál es el género del jefe inmediato sobre el que acaba de responder?

☐ Masculino

☐ Femenino

¿Cuánto tiempo lleva trabajando con su jefe actual? _____ (años y meses)

SECCIÓN 4: GRUPO DE TRABAJO

Este apartado contiene distintas afirmaciones que describen la cultura de su grupo de trabajo actual, tal y como usted la percibe. **PIENSE EN SU GRUPO DE TRABAJO** e indique su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con las afirmaciones que se mencionan a continuación. Para ello, utilice la siguiente escala para puntuar:

①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Totalmente en desacuerdo	Bastante en desacuerdo	Algo en desacuerdo	Ni de acuerdo, ni en desacuerdo	Algo de acuerdo	Bastante de acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo

En mi grupo de trabajo:

Hay muchas normas que los trabajadores deben cumplir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Existen expectativas muy claras sobre cómo deben actuar los empleados.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Todos saben qué comportamientos son apropiados o inapropiados.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Generalmente, los empleados no pueden decidir cómo comportarse.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Si alguien actúa inapropiadamente, otros lo desaprobarán.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Los trabajadores casi siempre cumplen con las normas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECCIÓN 5: DATOS SOCIODEMOGRÁFICOS

Por último, por favor, proporcione la siguiente información demográfica. Estos datos se tratarán de manera anónima y confidencial, a efectos exclusivamente estadísticos. En ningún caso se emplearán para identificarle a usted a o a su empresa:

Edad: _____ años.

Lugar de nacimiento: _____

Género: ☐ Masculino ☐ Femenino

Estudios terminados:

- ☐ Educación Primaria o inferior
- ☐ Educación Secundaria Obligatoria (Graduado en Secundaria, Graduado Escolar, Bachiller Elemental, Certificados de Profesionalidad de nivel 1)
- ☐ Educación Secundaria Post-Obligatoria (Bachiller, Formación Profesional de Grado Medio, BUP, COU)
- ☐ Educación Superior (Formación Profesional de Grado Superior, Titulación Universitaria de Grado, Diplomatura, Licenciatura, Máster, Doctorado)

Vinculación con la empresa:

- ☐ Indefinido jornada completa ☐ Temporal jornada completa
- ☐ Indefinido jornada parcial ☐ Temporal jornada parcial

Puesto de trabajo actual:

- ☐ Empleado de contacto frecuente con el huésped
- ☐ Mando Intermedio o directivo

Antigüedad en este hotel: _____ (años y meses).

Respecto del hotel, por favor indique:

Número de estrellas: _____ Ciudad: _____

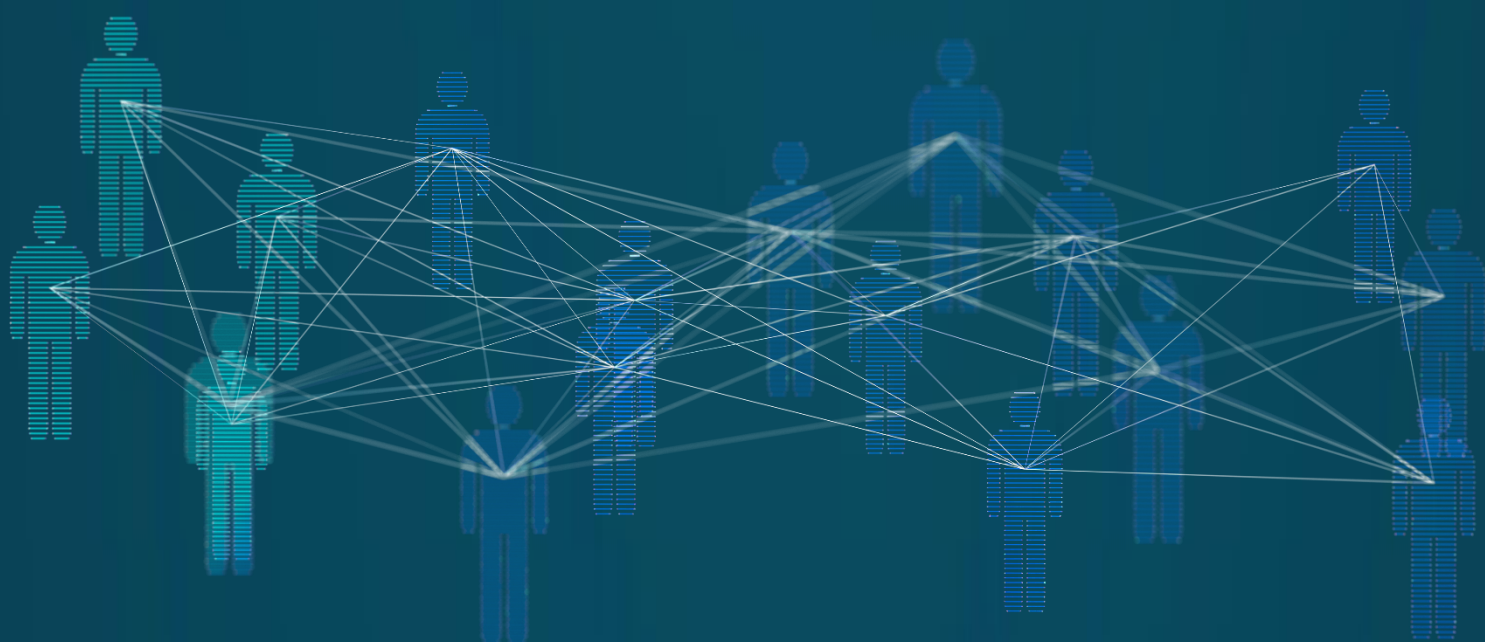
Número de trabajadores incluido usted: _____

Número de habitaciones: _____

¿Cómo opera su establecimiento? Cadena hotelera/ Franquicia /Independiente (indicar): _____

Ha finalizado el cuestionario

¡MUCHAS GRACIAS POR SU COLABORACIÓN!



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