Article

Servant Versus Authentic Leadership: Assessing Effectiveness in China's Hospitality Industry

Qian Ling[1], Fang Liu[2], and Xiaoyi Wu[3]

Abstract

This study compares the effectiveness of servant versus authentic leadership in hospitality firms by examining relationships with group-level trust and individual-level work outcomes (i.e., organizational commitment, work engagement, and work performance), and their influencing mechanisms through trust climate. Using two-wave data from 1,132 employee–supervisor pairs from 80 departments in 16 star-level hotels in China, we find that these two forms of leadership have positive effects on group trust climate and employee work outcomes; however, the magnitudes and paths of their effects are distinct. In comparison with authentic leadership, servant leadership has a more significant effect on creating a trust climate and a more direct effect regarding increasing employees' positive work attitudes (i.e., organizational commitment and work engagement), ultimately influencing work performance. This study also demonstrates the importance of group trust climate in relationships between group-level leadership and individual-level employee work attitudes and performance. These findings extend the scope of servant and authentic leadership research, and advocate servant leadership in the hospitality industry.

Keywords

servant leadership; authentic leadership; trust climate; hospitality industry

As leadership is a decisive factor in promoting the development of employees and organizations, management and leadership scholars have long been devoted to the study of effective leadership (Day & Halpin, 2004; Giampetro-Meyer, Brown, Browne, & Kubasek, 1998). Among various leadership styles, servant and authentic leadership are two promising styles for the hospitality industry (Brownell, 2010; Jacques, Garger, Lee, & Ko, 2015) because both develop harmonious leader–follower relationships by treating followers with authenticity and promoting followers' self-development (Greenleaf, 1977; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011); this is particularly important in the hospitality industry. Hotel employees face numerous problems including low pay, heavy workload, long and irregular work hours, routine and monotonous jobs, and role stress (Burke, Koyuncu, Fiksenbaum, & Tekin, 2013; Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilham, & Buyruk, 2010), and therefore, they are more likely to expect and seek care and support from leaders. A few hotel chains such as the Ritz-Carlton, Starwood, and White Swan in China have adopted servant or authentic leadership principles in their corporate philosophies (Ling, Lin, & Wu, 2016). Numerous traits and attributes of servant (e.g., caring for employees, empowering, and self-sacrifice) and authentic leaders (e.g., integrity, humility, and reliability)

have been identified as competencies of hotel managers, and they are widely applied in leadership training and development programs by hotel companies worldwide. Despite the practical significance, few studies focus on the roles of servant and authentic leadership in the hospitality industry (Brownell, 2010; Jacques et al., 2015; Ling et al., 2016; L.-Z. Wu, Tse, Fu, Kwan, & Liu, 2013).

Several scholars propose that servant and authentic leaders embrace common characteristics, even though they represent distinct styles (Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011). A number of studies suggest the significance of servant and authentic leadership on several common outcome variables such as employee work satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, and work performance (Jensen & Luthans, 2006; Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Herderson, 2008; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008;

[1]South China Normal University, Guangzhou, China
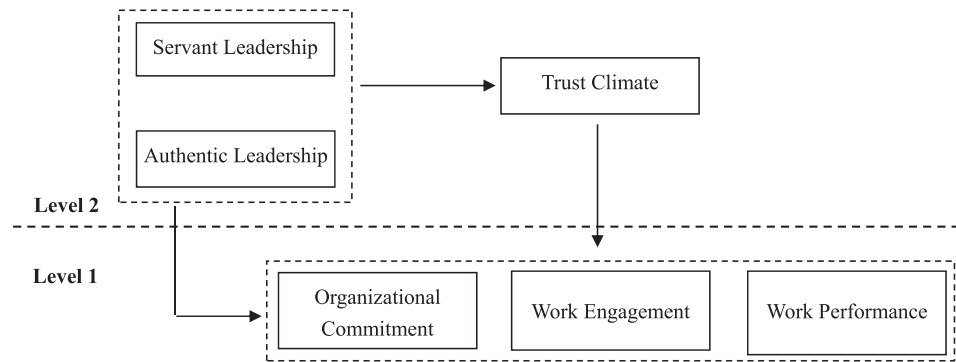[2]Hunan Normal University, Changsha, China
[3]Xiamen University, China

Corresponding Author:
Fang Liu, School of Tourism Management, Hunan Normal University, Changsha, Hunan 410081, China.
Email: tracylf@126.com

Exhibit 1:
A Conceptual Model of Servant and Authentic Leadership.

H. Wang, Sui, Luthans, Wang, & Wu, 2014). Although a few studies distinguish servant and authentic leadership from other styles (e.g., leader–member exchange, transformational, and ethical; Ehrhart, 2004; Joo & Nimon, 2014; Liden et al., 2008; Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004; Tonkin, 2013; Walumbwa et al., 2008), no study comprehensively assesses the conceptual and empirical distinctions of these two leadership styles. In addition, Whetten (1989) proposed that it is necessary for researchers to explain causal relationships in a phenomenon by determining mediators between antecedent and consequence variables. Although previous researchers investigated how servant/authentic leadership affected employee work outcomes (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Goh & Low, 2014; D. M. Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008), it has remained unexplored whether these two leadership styles influence employees through the same or distinct mediation mechanism.

To fill the previously mentioned research gaps, the purpose of this study is twofold. First, this study tests whether servant or authentic leadership is a good predictor of group climate and employee work outcomes. Aside from work performance, two work attitudes (organizational commitment and work engagement) representing an individual's attitudes toward the organization and work, respectively, are used as outcome variables. These outcomes influence service quality, customer satisfaction, loyalty, and profit (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1994). Second, trust climate reflects a common mechanism for how servant or authentic leadership operates within leader–membership exchanges (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; L.-Z. Wu et al., 2013). This study tests whether group trust climate mediates servant and authentic leadership on employees' work attitudes and performance in the same intervention mechanism. A conceptual model is illustrated in Exhibit 1.

Consistent with extant literature (Avolio et al., 2004; Bono & Judge, 2003; Jung & Sosik, 2002; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003), this study treats servant and authentic leadership as group-level variables because we are interested in behaviors that leaders exhibit to a group as a whole. Leadership functions at both individual and group levels (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Liao & Chuang, 2007; Walker, Smither, & Waldman, 2008). Individual-level leadership reflects an employee's experiences and perceived leadership behaviors, whereas group-level leadership refers to overall patterns of leadership behaviors displayed to an entire group. Because leaders often engage in behaviors that are not directed at individuals but toward a work unit, employees working in the same unit are likely to be influenced by group-level leadership (Avolio et al., 2004). Therefore, we focus on trust at the group level because organizational climate represents shared perceptions among employees in work units and might play a role in the effect of group-level leadership on employee work outcomes (Liao & Chuang, 2007). Employees' organizational commitment, work engagement, and work performance are treated as individual-level variables.

Theory and Hypotheses

Contrasting Servant and Authentic Leadership

Since Greenleaf (1977) offered the notion of servant leadership, the theory has gained increasing academic attention. Greenleaf proposes that self-concepts and motivations of servant leaders are different from other leaders. Servant leaders view themselves as servants and stewards rather than leaders or owners, and their leadership motivation is to serve first, as opposed to leading (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). The influence of servant leadership is achieved by emphasizing the ideal of service in the leader–follower relationship (Brownell, 2010; Van Dierendonck, 2011; L.-Z. Wu et al., 2013), whereas the goal of servant leadership is to promote personal growth of followers (Greenleaf, 1977), which incorporates positive aspects of other follower-centered leadership (e.g., empowering leadership and supportive

leadership). Servant leadership stresses individual integrity and morality, which includes positive aspects of other moral leadership styles (e.g., ethical and authentic leadership). Van Dierendonck (2011) offered six distinguishing characteristics of servant leaders—empowering and developing people, humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, providing direction, and stewardship. Consequently, servant leadership carries great potential (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

Proposed by Luthans and Avolio (2003), and developed by both Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, and Walumbwa (2005) and Avolio and Luthans (2006), authentic leadership has become a popular and important leadership construct in the past decade (Gill & Caza, in press) in response to corporate corruption and CEO scandals (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Kiersch & Byrne, 2015). Authentic leadership stems from the psychological concept of authenticity, which means "one acts in accord with the true self, expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings" (Harter, 2002, p. 382). Authentic leadership is "a process that draws from positive psychological capacities and highly developed organizational contexts, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development" (Luthans & Avolio, 2003, p. 243). Authentic leaders fully understand how they think and behave; they display confidence, hope, optimism, resilience, and high moral character (Avolio et al., 2004). According to Walumbwa et al. (2008), authentic leadership is manifested through four dimensions: self-awareness (i.e., understanding one's own strengths and weaknesses, and the influences of one's behavior), balanced processing (i.e., analyzing information objectively and seeking advice from followers before making decisions), relational transparency (i.e., sharing information openly and expressing true thoughts and feelings), and internalized moral perspective (i.e., setting high standards for moral and ethical conducts). According to Avolio and Gardner (2005), authentic leadership is a "root construct" that underlies all positive leadership styles such as transformational, charismatic, servant, and spiritual, but is theoretically distinct from related leadership types.

Descriptions of servant and authentic leadership demonstrate considerable overlap. First, both servant and authentic leaders are positive, with several common, positive psychological traits (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Authenticity, which reflects one's emotions and beliefs, and behaving in accordance with the true self (Walumbwa et al., 2008), constitutes basic characteristics of both servant and authentic leadership styles (Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011). These two forms of leadership represent psychological maturity, with great self-awareness of work values, emotional status, knowledge, and strength (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004). Second, servant and authentic leaders

are moral leaders (L.-Z. Wu et al., 2013) who share moral characteristics such as integrity, honesty, reliability, and humility (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Russell & Stone, 2002; Van Dierendonck, 2011). They act according to high, internal moral standards, as opposed to external pressures from peers and other organizational demands, which guide their decision making and behaviors. Third, these two leadership styles belong to relationship leadership (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011), which emphasizes promoting leader–follower relationships by developing followers, distinguishing them from other leader- or organization-centered leadership (e.g., charismatic and transformational leadership). For example, servant leaders transform followers to "grow healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous" by providing service and support (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 13). Authentic leaders focus on fostering development of authenticity in followers "through increased self-awareness, self-regulation, and positive modeling" (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 317).

Although servant and authentic leadership share many characteristics, they also have some unique aspects. In comparison with authentic leadership, servant leadership includes a positive psychology and moral character, as well as a philosophy of serving others as a core principle implying stronger altruism. Hale and Fields (2007) summarized that servant leadership places the good of others over the leader's own interests through devotion to the organization (e.g., making personal sacrifices to achieve a hotel's goals) and providing service to others (e.g., caring for, facilitation of, and coaching of employees). Therefore, the spirit of self-sacrifice reflects a high degree of moral virtue in servant leadership. In addition, the focus of servant leadership has a broader scope than authentic leadership. In comparison with authentic leaders, who focus on self-development of themselves and followers, servant leaders emphasize responsibilities to the organization, to its customers, to society, and to other stakeholders (Ehrhart, 2004; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010). For example, visioning, pioneering, and creating value for a community are components of servant leaders (Liden et al., 2008; Ling et al., 2016; Sendjaya et al., 2008; Spears, 1995). We propose that servant and authentic leadership are similar but distinct constructs; however, because they vary regarding core traits and characteristics, they influence organizational and individual outcomes disparately.

Contrasting the effect sizes of servant and authentic leadership on individual work outcomes. Leadership greatly influences employees' positive work outcomes. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), one of the most widely used theories in leadership literature, serves as a basis for understanding relationships between servant/authentic leaders and their followers. According to this theory, social exchanges are voluntary actions initiated by an organization's treatment of

employees, with the expectation that such treatment will be subsequently reciprocated. Managers and supervisors are critical agents in social exchange processes; if employees view a manager's actions positively, they reciprocate with attitudes and behaviors that the organization values (Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005).

Based on social exchange theory, both servant and authentic leadership motivate positive, reciprocal attitudes and behaviors from employees. A servant leader places the good of employees over his or her own self-interests, expresses sincere care and concern, and acts in the best interests of employees (e.g., developing their skills, knowledge, and abilities; Walumbwa et al., 2010), which greatly engenders obligation on the part of employees to reciprocate (Ling et al., 2016). An authentic leader establishes leader–follower relationships characterized by high respect, positive affect, and trust through personal integrity, authentic relational orientations, and balanced processing of self-relevant information (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005), which foster follower reciprocation in the form of attitudes and behaviors that the leader values (Avolio & Gardner, 2005).

Extant literature provides empirical evidence regarding positive relationships between servant/authentic leadership and employee organizational commitment (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009; Liden et al., 2008; Peus, Wesche, Streicher, Braun, & Frey, 2012; Walumbwaet al., 2008), work engagement (Carter & Baghurst, 2013; De Clercq, Bouckenooghe, Raja, & Matsyborska, 2014; Walumbwa et al., 2010; D.-S. Wang & Hsieh, 2013), and work performance (Leroy et al., 2012; Liden et al., 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2008; H. Wang et al., 2014). Although the effects of servant and authentic leadership on employee work outcomes have been confirmed both theoretically and empirically, the relative validity of the two effects has been neither noted nor tested empirically.

A meta-analysis from Derue et al. (2011) demonstrated that leader traits and behaviors predict leader effectiveness, but behaviors have greater validity than traits. They explain this phenomenon in two ways. First, leader behaviors are more proximal to the act of leadership than traits are and, therefore, influence effectiveness more directly. Second, given the complexity and ambiguity of leadership contexts, leader traits do not always manifest and their influences on outcomes are marginalized. Authentic leadership relies primarily on a leader's traits—especially positive psychology and moral character—to achieve positive influences on followers (Tonkin, 2013). Beyond authentic leadership, servant behaviors—the distinguishing behaviors and character of a servant leader—determine their effectiveness on employees (Brownell, 2010). Brownell (2010) argued that the essence of servant leadership is the behavior of serving and empowering

followers. We do not deny that all leaders influence through traits and behaviors, but servant leaders influence followers more through behaviors in organizations than authentic leaders do. In the hospitality industry, employees usually experience heavy workloads and stress (Kusluvan et al., 2010), and during daily work, they have close contact with supervisors to receive direction and supervision. Employees care about what kind of leaders their supervisors are, but they are more concerned about how their supervisors behave at work. A servant leader's help, direction, and support are critical for employees who have to solve problems at work and who have to cope with great pressures in hotels. Aligned with social exchange theory, servant leaders' supportive behaviors are highly valued by employees, thus inducing greater tendencies to reciprocate with greater commitment and work engagement. Servant leadership incorporates traits and behaviors from a deeper level to express the message "practical work is more powerful than empty talk," which might lead to greater reciprocation. Therefore, in comparison with authentic leadership, servant leadership is more predictive of employee work outcomes, including organizational commitment, work engagement, and work performance. Therefore, we propose the following three hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Servant leadership has a more positive effect on employee organizational commitment than authentic leadership.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Servant leadership has a more positive effect on employee work engagement than authentic leadership.

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Servant leadership has a more positive effect on employee work performance than authentic leadership.

Contrasting the Effect of Servant and Authentic Leadership on Trust Climate

Trust climate (i.e., collective, perceived trust) refers to group members' shared perceptions of trust in a leader (Salamon & Robinson, 2008). Trust climate plays an important role in predicting both group and individual work outcomes (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avey, 2009; Wech, 2002), but receives less attention than individual trust in leadership research. According to Clapp-Smith et al. (2009), leaders are critical to transforming the trust climate in an organization, and trust is central to servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leaders are likely to create a strong trust climate because of their stature as servants and their dependability, because they empathize with and fully accept followers, and because they lead by example (Goh & Low, 2014; Greenleaf, 1997; Joseph & Winston, 2005). According to the Russell and Stone (2002) model of servant leadership, a servant leader's integrity and concern for

people are essential to building followers' trust in the leader and, ultimately, creating a positive group trust climate. Joseph and Winston (2005) argued that servant leadership builds trust by empowering workers, involving employees early, honoring commitments consistently, developing coaching skills, and fostering risk-taking.

Authentic leaders are also capable of creating and developing favorable trust climates in organizations. According to R. C. Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995), integrity and dependability are characteristics of trust development. Authentic leaders build integrity and dependability by encouraging open communication and by sharing critical information, perceptions, and feelings. These characteristics win followers' trust and create a positive group climate. Avolio et al. (2004) suggested that an authentic leader establishes foundations for trust by transparently conveying his or her attributes, values, aspirations, and weaknesses to followers, and by encouraging them to do likewise. Exemplifying high moral standards helps authentic leaders establish favorable reputations, foster positive expectations among followers, and enhance trust in leaders (Avolio et al., 2004).

Several studies demonstrate the positive effect of servant and authentic leadership on a follower's trust in a leader (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Joseph & Winston, 2005; Reinke, 2004; Russell & Stone, 2002). According to Goh and Low (2014), trust is defined by a leader's character and behavior. In comparison with authentic leaders, who create a trust climate through moral character and positive psychology (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Peus et al., 2012), servant leaders do so through both personal traits such as integrity and dependability and practical leader behaviors such as concern, support, empowerment, and development. The dual influence of a servant leader's character and behavior results in a more positive group climate. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

> **Hypothesis 4 (H4):** Servant leadership has a more positive effect on trust climate than authentic leadership does.

Mediation of Trust Climate

According to social exchange theory, high-quality relationships are characterized by high degrees of trust, interaction, support, and formal and informal rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). According to L.-Z. Wuet al. (2013), this is to maintain "a balanced or equitable social exchange" (p. 385) through positive work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and behaviors (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviors; Jordan & Troth, 2011; Schyns & Wolfram, 2008; H. Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Therefore, trust climate, which is built by servant and authentic leadership, enhances the quality of social

exchange relationships and promotes employee positive work outcomes. Extensive research demonstrates that trust climate increases employees' job satisfaction and supervisory fairness, promotes organizational citizenship behaviors (Wech, 2002), and improves job performance (Brahm & Kunze, 2012).

A number of studies suggest that organizational climate mediates leadership behaviors and employee work attitudes, behaviors, and performance (Gelade & Ivery, 2003; Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990). Clapp-Smith et al. (2009) found that authentic leaders improve employee work performance by establishing a trust climate. Although focused on individual trust perceptions, other leadership studies support this argument. According to Avolio et al.'s (2004) model of authentic leadership, trust mediates authentic leadership and followers' work attitudes (i.e., commitment, job satisfaction, meaningfulness, and engagement) and behaviors (i.e., job performance, extra effort, and withdrawal behavior). Wong and her colleagues found that trust in a manager mediates authentic leadership and employee work outcomes, including perceived unit care quality, burnout, voice behaviors, and job performance (Wong & Cummings, 2009; Wong, Spence Laschinger, & Cummings, 2010). Goh and Low (2014) and Miao, Newman, Schwarz, and Xu (2014) found that trust in a leader mediates servant leadership and employee organizational commitment. We argue that trust climate is a common bridge that relates both servant and authentic leadership to employee work outcomes. Servant and authentic leadership create a positive trust climate that enhances employee work attitudes and performance. We propose the following three hypotheses:

> **Hypothesis 5 (H5):** Trust climate mediates the effect of (a) servant and (b) authentic leadership on employee organizational commitment.
> **Hypothesis 6 (H6):** Trust climate mediates the effect of (a) servant and (b) authentic leadership on employee work engagement.
> **Hypothesis 7 (H7):** Trust climate mediates the effect of (a) servant and (b) authentic leadership on employee work performance.

Method

Data Analysis

As hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) is appropriate when a theoretical model is multilevel and data are nested (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992; Liao & Chuang, 2007), we used HLM to examine relationships between variables at Levels 1 and 2 (by simultaneously estimating cross-level residuals), and relationships between variables at Level 1. Like Hofmann (1997), we used random coefficient models to test main effects at Level 1 and we used intercepts-as-outcome

models to examine cross-level main effects. Level 1 predictors were centered by the grand mean to mitigate multicollinearity (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). We used linear regression to analyze main effects at Level 2.

Sample and Procedure

Data were collected in two waves from 80 departments of 16 middle- and high-star hotels consisting of five 5-star, eight 4-star, and three 3-star hotels, in Guangdong and Hunan Provinces, China. These two provinces, located on the coast and inland, respectively, represent disparate economic development statuses. Hotels were selected based on the availability of managers who could assist with data collection. Human resources (HR) managers assisted by delivering survey packets to more than 10 employees in each participating department of the hotels. During the first wave (T1), employees reported perceptions of servant and authentic leadership in their departments, and provided demographics. Three months later during the second wave (T2), employees reported perceptions of the trust climate in their departments, and their organizational commitment and work engagement. Their supervisors evaluated followers' work performance.

A questionnaire was constructed after extensive discussions with focus groups of employees, HR managers, and senior managers. We pretested the questionnaire using a convenience sample of 301 employees in two hotels and one hospital in Guangdong Province, China. Results of the pretest provided preliminary evidence of the reliability and validity of the measures. Several words were modified to ensure that the content could be generalized to the research context and could be easily and accurately understood by first-line employees who had only a basic education. To reduce the potential for common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Lee, 2003), we followed Avolio et al.'s (2004) method of using multiple sources of data collection for group-level leadership variables. Half of participants in each department rated perceptions of their departmental leaders' servant leadership (Questionnaire A), and the other half evaluated authentic leadership (Questionnaire B). All employees and their supervisors voluntarily participated in this investigation. We guaranteed data confidentiality, and completed questionnaires were returned in sealed envelopes. The questionnaires (T1 and T2) were matched to responses from supervisors (T2) based on employees' identification numbers.

During the first wave, we distributed 3,030 questionnaires—1,515 of Questionnaire A and 1,515 of Questionnaire B. We received 1,200 and 1,149 valid questionnaires, respectively. During the second wave, 2,349 pairs of questionnaires were delivered to employees who completed the first survey and to their direct supervisors. We received 1,771 employee surveys and 1,708 supervisor evaluations. From the returns, we had a final employee–supervisor matched sample of 1,436 questionnaires across both waves. The effective response rate for the second survey was 61.13%. Similar to extant studies (Ling et al., 2016; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008; Tse, Dasborough, & Ashkanasy, 2008), we excluded group data from analyses when there were fewer than three member responses and when there was a negative r_{wg} value for any of the three group-level variables (i.e., authentic leadership, servant leadership, and trust climate). This left a final sample of 1,132 employee–supervisor pairs from 80 departments. The number of employee respondents in each work group ranged from three to 77. Of the 1,132 respondents, 57.2% were female, 76.9% were between 16 and 34 years of age, 53.9% held a high school or a technical secondary degree, and 81% had a monthly salary of 801 to 2,000 China yuan renminbi.

Measures

The survey was administered in Chinese, and variables were measured using validated scales from extant literature. Following the back-translation method (Brislin, 1970), we translated an English version into Chinese and then translated it back to English using two independent, bilingual experts to ensure translation quality. All items were measured with a Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*), except for the Work Performance scale, which ranged from inadequate to superior.

Servant leadership. Servant leadership was measured with six subscales that included 24 items developed by Ling et al. (2016). A sample item was "My department manager takes the initiative to help handling the difficulties confronted by the employees in their lives." We obtained an internal reliability estimate (i.e., alpha coefficient) of .96 for this scale.

Authentic leadership. We used the four-subscale, 16-item Authentic Leadership Questionnaire developed by Walumbwa et al. (2008) to measure authentic leadership. A sample item was "My department manager says exactly what he or she means." Cronbach's alpha coefficient obtained as a measure of internal consistency was .96 for this scale.

Trust climate. Trust climate was measured using four items from the Organizational Trust Inventory (OTI; Nyhan & Marlowe, 1997). We aggregated employees' trust in a department manager to the group level to form a measure of group trust climate. A sample item was "I have confidence that my department manager makes well thought decisions

about his or her job." Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .93 for this scale.

Organizational commitment. Nine items from Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) were used to assess employee affective organizational commitment. A sample item was "I'm proud to tell others that I am part of this organization." Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .97 for this scale.

Work engagement. We used the 17-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) from Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006) to measure employee work engagement. A sample item was "At my work, I feel bursting with energy." Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .96 for this scale.

Work performance. Direct supervisors used nine items from X. Wu, Sturman, and Wang (2013) to rate employee work performance. The scale included quality of work, quantity of work, speed of work, ability, task fulfillment, job requirement fulfillment, cooperation with supervisors, attendance rate, and overall performance. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .94 for this scale.

Control variables. Employee demographics and firm characteristics were used as control variables to eliminate potential influences on employee work behaviors and performance. Following recent leadership studies (Ling et al., 2016; L.-Z. Wu et al., 2013), we controlled for several individual-level (Level 1) variables, including employee gender, age, education, monthly salary, and group-level (Level 2) characteristics, including a hotel's province, rating, and ownership structure.

Results

Analysis of the Measurement Model

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test the reliability and validity of the scales of all latent variables, and to assess the data quality before HLM analysis. CFA results (Exhibit 2) for the six-subscale servant leadership instrument showed satisfactory fit: $\chi^2(237) = 1,041.42$, $p = .00$, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.99, normed fit index (NFI) = 0.98, root mean square residual (RMR) = 0.04, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.07. Results for the four-subscale authentic leadership instrument also showed satisfactory fit: $\chi^2(98) = 472.02$, $p = .00$, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.99, RMR = 0.03, and RMSEA = 0.07. Because data for servant and authentic leadership at the group level were collected from different respondents in the same department, they cannot be combined into one CFA model. Results for the remaining four variables, including trust climate, employee organizational commitment, work engagement, and work performance instrument, showed satisfactory

Exhibit 2:

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	NFI	RMR	RMSEA
Model 1: Servant leadership	1,041.42	237	0.99	0.98	0.04	0.07
Model 2: Authentic leadership	472.02	98	0.97	0.97	0.05	0.07
Model 3: All latent outcome variables (TC, OC, WE, WP)	3,973.39	659	0.97	0.97	0.05	0.07

Note. CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index; RMR = root mean square residual; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; TC = trust climate; OC = employee organizational commitment; WE = employee work engagement; WP = employee work performance.

fit: $\chi^2(659) = 3,973.39$, $p = .00$, CFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.97, RMR = 0.05, and RMSEA = 0.07. All factor loadings for the three models were significant, demonstrating convergent validity. The values of average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct was greater than the variance shared with remaining constructs, suggesting discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). These results demonstrate that the scales for all variables were reliable and valid.

Aggregation Statistics

The viability of the three group-level variables formed through aggregation—servant leadership, authentic leadership, and trust climate—was assessed. Following James, Demaree, and Wolf (1984, 1993), we computed r_{wg}. Mean and median r_{wg} values for servant leadership were 0.77 and 0.77; for authentic leadership, 0.74 and 0.81; and for trust climate, 0.76 and 0.77, respectively. These values are above the threshold of 0.70, suggesting interrater agreement. Intraclass correlation coefficient, ICC(1), was used to examine the degree of variability in responses at the individual level that was attributed to being part of a group, and ICC(2) examined reliability of group means. The ICC(1) values are as follows: (a) servant leadership, .10 ($F = 1.945$, $p < .01$); (b) authentic leadership, .10 ($F = 2.024$, $p < .01$); and (c) trust climate, .15 ($F = 3.515$, $p < .01$). All ICC(1) values were significant ($p < .01$), so aggregation was justified (Bliese, 2000; D. M. Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009). The ICC(2) value for trust climate was .72, which was above the .70 criterion suggested by Bliese, Halverson, and Schriesheim (2002). Although ICC(2) values for servant leadership (.49) and authentic leadership (.51) were lower than .70, these values were acceptable in comparison with recommended values of group-level constructs reported in extant literature (Liao & Rupp, 2005; D. M. Mayer et al., 2009; Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998). Therefore, we concluded that aggregation was justified and calculated the three group-level variables.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations Among Variables at Level 1 or 2.

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Level 1									
Gender	1.57	0.50	—						
Age	2.87	0.93	−.15**	—					
Education	2.12	0.78	.03	−.18**	—				
Salary	2.06	0.47	−.18**	.06*	.23**	—			
OC (Time 2)	5.77	1.14	−.09**	.18**	.01	.03	—		
WE (Time 2)	5.66	1.00	−.14*	.19**	.02	.05	.85**	—	
WP (Time 2)	5.83	0.72	−.04	.12**	−.03	.11**	.10**	.13**	—
Level 2									
Province	1.35	0.48	—						
Hotel rating	4.34	0.62	−.06	—					
Ownership	1.70	0.46	−.61**	.18	—				
SL (Time 1)	5.54	0.53	−.08	−.07	.06	—			
AL (Time 1)	5.58	0.58	−.11	.09	.10	.61**	—		
TC (Time 2)	5.80	0.56	−.11	.06	.04	.59**	.69**	—	

Note. For Level 1 measures, $n = 1,132$; for Level 2 measures, $n = 80$. OC = employee organizational commitment; WE = employee work engagement; WP = employee work performance; Hotel rating: 3 = three star, 4 = four star, 5 = five star; Ownership: 1 = state-owned, 2 = private-owned; SL = servant leadership; AL = authentic leadership; TC = trust climate.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Descriptive Statistics

Exhibit 3 presents means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among variables at either Level 1 or 2. The correlation coefficient between servant and authentic leadership was significant ($r = .61$, $p < .01$), indicating a strong association between them. The coefficient was below the .70 criterion suggested by Van Mierlo, Vermunt, and Rutte (2009), providing initial evidence of discriminant validity between these constructs.

Hypothesis Testing

According H1 to H3, servant leadership predicts employee organizational commitment, work engagement, and work performance better than authentic leadership. Using HLM, we tested these three hypotheses by entering variables into the model in two steps—start with the control variables and then follow with the independent variables of servant and authentic leadership. Servant leadership correlated positively with employee organizational commitment at Time 2 ($\gamma = 0.51$, $p < .01$; Model 4), whereas there was no significant relationship between authentic leadership and employee organizational commitment ($\gamma = 0.05$, $p > .1$; Model 4); these results support H1 (see Exhibit 4). Servant leadership correlated positively with employee work engagement ($\gamma = 0.39$, $p < .01$; Model 6), but authentic leadership at Time 1 did not correlate with employee work engagement ($\gamma = 0.07$, $p > .1$; Model 6); these results support H2 (see Exhibit 4). Neither servant ($\gamma = 0.07$, $p > .1$; Model 8) nor authentic leadership ($\gamma = 0.14$, $p > .1$; Model

8) correlated with employee work performance; therefore, H3 was not supported (see Exhibit 4).

H4 suggests that servant leadership has a more positive effect on trust climate than authentic leadership. Using linear regression, H4 was tested by entering group-level control variables in the first step and the independent variables of servant and authentic leadership in the second step. The results (see Exhibit 4) suggest that both servant ($\beta = .57$, $p < .01$; Model 1) and authentic leadership ($\beta = .25$, $p < .05$; Model 1) correlate positively with trust climate. To understand the relative contributions of servant and authentic leadership better when explaining variance in trust climate, we performed an additional analysis (Darlington, 1968). Based on the recommendations of Ng and Dyne (2005), we compared variance explained by one predictor with the total variance explained by two predictors. Shown in Exhibit 4, 35.30% of the variance explained by Model 2 (i.e., variance explained by control variables and authentic leadership) subtracted from 52.80% of the total variance explained by Model 1 gives an indication of the effect size of servant leadership. Servant leadership explained 17.50% of variance in trust climate. Similarly, 48.80% of the variance explained by Model 3 subtracted from 52.80% of the variance explained by Model 1 indicates that authentic leadership explained 4.00% of variance in trust climate, less than that explained by servant leadership, thereby, supporting H4.

According to H5a and H5b, trust climate mediates servant and authentic leadership regarding employee organizational commitment. Following a four-step test procedure for mediation (Kenny, Kashy, & Bolger, 1998), we used linear

Exhibit 4:
Hypothesis Test Results.

Level and Variable	TC (Time 2)			OC (Time 2)		WE (Time 2)		WP (Time 2)	
	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7	M8	M9
Level 1									
Gender				−0.09*	−0.06	−0.15**	−0.12**	−0.03	−0.03
Age				0.11*	0.11*	0.11*	0.11**	0.06*	0.06*
Education				−0.01	−0.03	0.03	0.02	−0.02	−0.02
Salary				−0.02	−0.02	−0.02	−0.02	0.03	0.03
Level 2									
Province	−0.10	−0.11	−0.12	0.23	0.24	0.15	0.15	0.06	0.06
Hotel rating	0.07	0.01	0.10	0.17	0.14	0.07	0.05	−0.15*	−0.15*
Ownership	−0.10	−0.09	−0.10	0.31	0.38*	0.24	0.29*	0.09	0.09
SL (Time 1)	0.57**		0.73**	0.51**	0.04	0.39**	−0.01	0.07	0.04
AL (Time 1)	0.25*	0.57**		0.05	−0.17	0.07	−0.09	0.14	0.12
TC (Time 2)					0.85**		0.70**		0.06
R^2	52.80%	35.30%	48.80%						

Note. For Level 1 measures, $n = 1,132$; for Level 2 measures, $n = 80$. Hotel rating: 3 = three star; 4 = four star; 5 = five star; Ownership: 1 = state-owned, 2 = private-owned; SL = servant leadership; AL = authentic leadership; TC = trust climate; OC = employee organizational commitment; WE = employee work engagement; WP = employee work performance.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

regression to test the relationship between variables at the group level and HLM to test the relationship between group- and individual-level variables. During Step 1, we found that (see Exhibit 4) servant leadership correlated with employee organizational commitment ($\gamma = 0.51$, $p < .01$; Model 4), which met the first requirement that the independent variable correlates with the dependent variables. During Step 2, servant leadership correlated with trust climate ($\gamma = 0.57$, $p < .01$; Model 1), thus meeting the second requirement that the independent variable correlates with the mediator. During Steps 3 and 4, both servant leadership and mediator (i.e., trust climate) were included in the regression. Results show that trust climate correlated with employee organizational commitment ($\gamma = 0.85$, $p < .01$; Model 5), and the effect of servant leadership was no longer significant ($\gamma = 0.04$, ns; Model 5) when trust climate was added (Sobel, 1982; $z = 4.01$, $p < .01$, one-tailed). Therefore, trust climate mediated the effect of servant leadership on employee organizational commitment, which supports H5a. The antecedent (i.e., authentic leadership) failed to predict the outcome variable (i.e., organizational commitment) when assessed alone ($\gamma = 0.05$, $p > .1$; Model 4); this did not conform to the first requirement of mediation (Kenny et al., 1998), so H5b was not supported. However, supplemental analysis showed that authentic leadership correlated positively with trust climate ($\gamma = 0.25$, $p < .05$; Model 1), and trust climate with organizational commitment ($\gamma = 0.85$, $p < .01$; Model 5). A Sobel (1982) test confirmed that the indirect effect was significant ($z = 2.35$, $p < .01$, one-tailed). Therefore, authentic leadership had indirect influence on employee organizational commitment through trust climate.[1]

According to H6a and H6b, trust climate mediates servant leadership and authentic leadership regarding employee work engagement. Following the procedure above, we found that (a) servant leadership correlated with employee work engagement ($\gamma = 0.39$, $p < .01$; Model 6); (b) servant leadership correlated with trust climate ($\gamma = 0.57$, $p < .01$; Model 1); (c) trust climate correlated with employee work engagement ($\gamma = 0.70$, $p < .01$; Model 7); and (d) the relationship between servant leadership and work engagement became nonsignificant ($\gamma = -0.01$, ns; Model 5) when trust climate was added (Sobel, 1982; $z = 4.24$, $p < .01$, one-tailed). Therefore, trust climate mediated servant leadership and employee work engagement, supporting H6a. Similar to H5b, H6b was not supported as the direct effect of authentic leadership on work engagement was nonsignificant ($\gamma = 0.07$, ns; Model 6). Although mediation was not supported, supplemental analysis suggested that authentic leadership correlated positively with trust climate ($\gamma = 0.25$, $p < .05$; Model 1), and trust climate correlated positively with employee work engagement ($\gamma = 0.70$, $p < .01$; Model 5). A Sobel (1982) test confirmed that the indirect effect was significant ($z = 2.39$, $p < .01$, one-tailed). Therefore, authentic leadership had a significant, indirect effect on employee work engagement through trust climate (see Note 1).

According to H7a and H7b, trust climate mediates servant and authentic leadership regarding employee work performance. Because neither servant nor authentic leadership had a direct effect on employee work performance (Exhibit 4), the required antecedent-criterion correlation for mediation was not met (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006), and H7a and H7b were not supported. Supplemental analysis

explored whether servant or authentic leadership affected work performance indirectly. Results indicate that neither servant nor authentic leadership influence work performance through trust climate because trust climate had no effect on employee work performance ($\gamma = 0.06$, *ns*; Model 9). Supplemental analysis showed that (a) servant leadership had a positive, indirect effect on employee work performance through employee organizational commitment (Sobel $Z = 3.95$, $p < .01$, one-tailed), and (b) trust climate had a positive, indirect effect on employee work performance through both organizational commitment (Sobel $Z = 2.11$, $p < .05$, one-tailed) and work engagement. These results (Sobel $Z = 2.17$, $p < .05$, one-tailed), suggest that servant and authentic leadership enhance group trust climate, which in turn improves individual work performance though organizational commitment and work engagement. Overall, these findings suggest that servant and authentic leadership have positive, indirect influence on employee work performance.

Discussion

Clarke and Matze (1999) argued that the leadership trend in the new economy focuses on relationship-building between employees and their organizations. As leaders are an organization's agents, it is essential that leaders and their followers build relational competency for hospitality firms experiencing fierce market competition. Although both servant and authentic leadership emphasize positive leader–member relationship-building, their similarities and distinctions are seldom discussed thoroughly. Both types of leadership are newer topics of study (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011; Van Dierendonck, 2011), and authentic leadership is especially underexplored in the hospitality industry. This study is first to empirically support conceptual differentiations of two leadership styles. We not only compare the effectiveness of servant and authentic leadership on employees' work attitudes and performance, but we also explore their influence mechanisms through trust climate.

Results identify both similarities and differences between servant and authentic leadership. Both leadership styles relate to group trust climate and individual work attitudes, but the magnitude and manner of their influences differ. Servant leadership has a more positive effect on group trust climate and individual work attitudes (i.e., organizational commitment and work engagement) than authentic leadership in hospitality enterprises (they also vary concerning how they influence employee work attitudes). Although both styles influence employee work attitudes through trust climate, trust climate plays a different role in the intervening relationship. Servant leaders exert more direct and effective values in the hospitality industry, providing empirical evidence for the argument that hospitality industries require servant leadership (Berry, Parasuraman, & Zeithaml, 1994; Brownell, 2010; Ling et al., 2016; L.-Z. Wu et al., 2013).

Theoretical Implications

Results show that servant and authentic leadership are similar but distinct concepts. Servant leadership and authentic leadership both (a) score a positive psychology in authenticity and moral character (integrity, humility, and reliable) and (b) correlate and have an overall positive effect on group trust climate and employee work attitudes. However, they can be distinguished through the magnitude and paths of their effects on employees. Given the distinctiveness of servant leaders regarding self-concept and motivation through leadership, servant leaders influence employees not only through traits of authenticity and ethics like authentic leaders but also through service-oriented philosophies and behaviors that serve others, which strengthen leader–member relationships and motivate employees to dedicate themselves to the organization and their work. Therefore, servant leadership affects group trust climate and individual work attitudes more strongly and directly than authentic leadership. These findings provide empirical support to the notion that servant and authentic leadership represent unique theories (Van Dierendonck, 2011). The findings are also consistent with the argument of Brownell (2010) by showing that core trait and behavior characteristics of servant leaders align with creating service-excellence missions in hospitality organizations, which are particularly effective in the hotel industry. The results of this study might be an artifact of Chinese culture—employees might hold varying perceptions of servant/authentic leadership in Western and Eastern contexts. Due to disparate human orientations, traditions, and cultural power distances, servant/authentic leadership might play distinct roles with followers (Li, Yu, Yang, Qi, & Fu, 2014; Qian, Lin, & Chen, 2012; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Zhang, Everett, Elkin, & Cone, 2012). Cultural fit between leadership style and societal ethos is a determinant of leadership's effectiveness and organizational success (Chuang & Chan, 2005). Confucianism and collectivism, the two most typical traditional Chinese values, greatly influence the values and behaviors of Chinese business leaders (Lin, 2008). Confucianism advocates high moral character such as benevolence, sympathy, forgiveness, friendliness, harmony, loyalty, righteousness, and humility (Chuang & Chan, 2005), and concerning behaviors such as taking care of subordinates' welfare and being respectful of their feelings (Chuang & Chan, 2005; Fu & Tsui, 2003), all of which are in accord with values and behaviors required for servant leaders. Collectivism emphasizes the importance of the group or organization's interests at the expense of individual goals (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003), which motivates leaders to

transcend their own self-interests to achieve group goals. In comparison with authentic leaders who focus on Western values of self and self-development, servant leaders who attach importance to others (employees, customers, stakeholders, organization, and society) fit better with the Chinese collectivistic culture. One explanation for why servant leadership was more effective than authentic leadership in this study is that servant leadership fits better in China's traditional culture.

This study provides insights into mechanisms through which servant and authentic leadership influence followers. We investigate the effect of differences between servant and authentic leadership regarding not only its magnitude but also its path. According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), trust climate improves the quality of exchange relationships, and bridges leadership and employee work outcomes. This study advances leadership literature by testing the intervening mechanism of group-level trust (i.e., trust climate) instead of individual-level trust found in most extant research (Goh & Low, 2014; Wong et al., 2010). Although the two forms of leadership influence employee attitudes through the same intervening variable (i.e., trust climate), their intervening relationship varies in a different way. Servant leadership has a direct, positive effect on individual organizational commitment and work engagement, and these relationships are mediated by trust climate. Unlike the influence path of servant leadership, authentic leadership does not correlate directly with employee attitudes (i.e., organizational commitment and work engagement), but indirectly through trust climate. This indirect effect is distinct, with mediation, and should be distinguished from a theoretical perspective (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006). For an indirect effect, an antecedent does not relate directly with a criterion, and therefore, the linking mechanism is more critical than that in mediation. As a simpler explanation of this study, without building group trust climate, authentic leaders cannot influence followers. Therefore, trust climate is a necessary path for authentic leadership. However, for servant leadership, leaders directly influence employee organizational commitment and work engagement without the linking mechanism (i.e., trust climate). These results stress the effectiveness of servant over authentic leadership in hospitality firms.

Results also suggest that servant and authentic leadership at the group level do not influence employee work performance directly, but through an indirect effect with a complex linking mechanism. Specifically, servant leadership has an indirect influence on employee work performance through organizational commitment. In addition, servant and authentic leadership also influence employees' work performance through other indirect paths (i.e., leadership → trust climate → organizational commitment or work engagement → work performance). These two leadership styles cannot transform followers to be high performance

employees automatically; first, there must be a complex mechanism to change employees' perceptions (e.g., trust climate) and attitudes (e.g., organizational commitment or work engagement). Inconsistent results exist in prior studies, for example, some researchers' argue that servant leadership is "naïve, passive, weak, and unrealistic" (Humphreys, 2005, p. 1415) and does not improve performance (Giampetro-Meyer et al., 1998). Our results contradict these arguments and provide empirical evidence for the role of servant and authentic leadership in the hospitality industry.

Methodological strength increases confidence in results. To answer the call for multilevel approaches, we test the model at group and individual levels using HLM, which accounts for the hierarchical nature of the model and data (Liao & Chuang, 2007; Ling et al., 2016). A longitudinal design was applied by collecting independent and dependent variables in two waves to better predict causal relationship. To address common method issues (Podsakoff et al., 2003), employees were separated to evaluate servant and authentic leadership at the group level, and work performance was evaluated by supervisors to avoid data obtained from a single source.

Managerial Implications

Managers must create trust, commitment, and motivating work environment in hotels, and servant leadership is an effective way to accomplish this. Although authentic leadership is a "root construct" of other positive leadership styles (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio & Luthans, 2006), this study indicates a stronger effect of servant versus authentic leadership. Hospitality firms could execute authentic leadership as a base to develop servant leadership and foster servant leadership not only to establish harmonious leader–member relationships, but to exert a greater effect on employees (e.g., transform employees to grow healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and selfless), which would encourage employees to treat customers more actively and selflessly.

Generally, there are two ways to foster servant leadership—leader self-development and organizational effort. Effective leadership begins on the inside (Brownell, 2010). Ling et al. (2016) argued that self-identity and self-motivation are prerequisites of servant leadership. It is a sustained and lifelong learning process in which managers acquire, adopt, and practice leadership skills and attributes required for excellent leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio & Wernsing, 2008).

Because leader behaviors can develop and strengthen through formal organization policies, hospitality organizations can foster servant leaders through a series of HR policies and practices, including selection, training, evaluation, and rewards (Ling et al., 2016). Specifically, hospitality firms should consider selecting or promoting new managers

with characteristics of optimism, integrity, solid ethics, and service orientation (Brownell, 2010; Liden et al., 2008). Training programs are necessary to help mangers recognize the value and principles of servant leaders (e.g., work ethics and self-sacrifice), and to help them improve skills like empathy and empowerment (Liden et al., 2008). Performance evaluations and reward systems for hotel managers must consider core attributes and skills of servant leaders (e.g., behaving ethically and helping employees develop). Together, these practices encourage managers to incorporate servant/authentic leadership principles into daily work.

Findings also indicate that it is important for managers to build a trust climate because both servant and authentic leadership influence employee work attitudes through group trust climate. Because trust climate is a group's global perception of the trustworthiness of a supervisor, which is influenced by each member's individual experiences with the supervisor and individual observations or communications about the supervisor's interactions with other group members (Salamon & Robinson, 2008; Wech, 2002), it is necessary for leaders who want to build a trust climate to improve relationships with all group members by regarding all as a whole and exhibiting servant/authentic leadership behaviors to them equally. It is the responsibility of an organization to develop and sustain trust in leaders. For example, organizations can build a trust climate by creating effective work and communication environments that encourage "open, honest, accurate, and sincere" (Wech, 2002, p. 359) communication by demonstrating general concern for employees; encouraging group members to share common goals, values, and beliefs; and rewarding leaders who initiate trust and employees who reciprocate the offer (Wech, 2002).

Limitations and Future Research Directions

Data for the two types of leadership were collected from separate respondents in the same department. This design reduced common method bias, but resulted in the inability to test discriminant validity between servant and authentic leadership through CFA. Although HLM distinguished servant and authentic leadership regarding effects of magnitude and paths on followers, more research is necessary to collect perceptions of servant and authentic leadership from the same respondents. This would provide more vivid evidence of the relationship between them (e.g., discriminant validity) and correlations of dimensions within these two leadership styles.

More research is encouraged to evaluate and compare the effectiveness of servant and authentic leadership on various outcomes, including group-level (e.g., collective attitudes, group cohesion, and group performance) and firm-level outcomes (e.g., corporate social responsibility and financial performance). Other mediators might also

distinguish the roles of servant and authentic leadership on their outcomes such as leader–follower relationships, fairness climate, hope, and positive emotions (Avolio et al., 2004; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Other areas for future research include comparing the effects of servant and authentic leaders on other leadership styles, especially task (e.g., transactional leaders) and change leadership (e.g., transformational leaders) in the hospitality industry. Derue et al. (2011) argued that task and change leadership have a stronger positive relationship with task-performance dimensions of leadership effectiveness than relational leadership. As both servant and authentic leaders tend to be relational and concerned for harmonious leader–fellow relationship development, more research is encouraged to compare the effects of their leadership styles to distinguish their effectiveness in hotels.

Note

1. Mathieu and Taylor (2006) distinguished indirect effects from mediation. Although both are linking mechanisms that reflect intervening effects, mediation is the more restrictive relationship. Mediation refers to "instances where the significant total relationship that exists between an antecedent and a criterion is accounted for in part (partial mediation) or completely (full mediation) by a mediator variable" (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006, p. 1039). One premise of mediation is that the total effect X→Y was present initially, but there is no such assumption during assessment of indirect effects. An indirect effect is significant "whereby X and Y are not related directly (i.e., are uncorrelated), but they are indirectly related through significant relationships with a linking mechanism" (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006, p. 1039).

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Author Biographies

Qian Ling, Ph.D., is an associate professor at the School of Tourism Management at South China Normal University. She received her Phd in business management from Zhongshan (Sun Yat-Sen) University, China, in 2009. Her research interests include leadership, organizational climate and service quality in tourism and service industry.

Fang Liu, Ph.D., is an associate professor at the School of Tourism Management at Hunan Normal University and a postdoctoral scholar at the School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration, Oklahoma State University, USA. She received her Phd in tourism management from Zhongshan (Sun Yat-Sen) University, China, in 2011. Her research interests include leadership, organizational climate and work engagement in hospitality industry.

Xiaoyi Wu, Ph.D., is an associate professor at the department of tourism and hospitality in the School of Management at Xiamen University. She received her Phd in tourism management from Zhongshan (Sun Yat-Sen) University, China, in 2006. Her research interests include compensation management, organizational justice and work ethics in tourism industry.