

**Leadership Style's Effects on Intrapreneurship and  
Organisational Performance: The Case of the Resort  
Islands in the Maldives**

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Submitted in partial fulfilment for the award of the degree of  
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# CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

## *DECLARATION*

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

Signed: Ameen Ibrahim

Date: 15 January 2023

## *STATEMENT 1*

This thesis is the result of my own investigations, except where otherwise stated. Where correction services have been used the extent and nature of the correction is clearly marked in a footnote(s). Other sources are acknowledged by footnotes giving explicit references. A bibliography is appended.

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## *STATEMENT 2*

I hereby give consent for my thesis, if accepted, to be available for deposit in the University's digital repository.

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Date: 15 January 2023

## DEDICATION

*To my beloved parents, the late Ibrahim Hussain Fulhu and Khadheeja Ibrahim, whose principles, moral values and devotion inspired the standards for mastery,*

*To my loving wife, Aishath Bina Azeez, and  
my beautiful children Aminath Aan Ameen and Ahmed Aun Ameen,  
for their unconditional love, patience and care,*

*To my siblings and relatives for their support.*

*May Allah Bless you all!*

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# ABSTRACT

Leadership style has been recognised as a significant influencer on employees' intrapreneurship and organisational performance. Thus, this research investigates the effects of leadership styles among transformational and transactional leadership styles to improve employees' intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the context of Small Island Developing States (SIDS), in particular in the Maldives resort islands. Further, the study examines the moderating role of intrapreneurship on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance in those resorts.

The Maldives is a high-end luxury holiday destination, and some resorts are ranked amongst the best hotels worldwide. The Maldives has been accorded the leading tourist destination award from the World Travel Awards (WTA) for three consecutive years (2020, 2021, and 2022) and received several prestigious honours; however, some resorts are experiencing multiple challenges in managing their businesses. Additionally, COVID-19 has strongly affected the industry, and several resorts are still struggling to return to normalcy. It is believed that organisational leadership style can significantly impact all aspects of organisational performance and improve employee intrapreneurship. Though leadership styles and performance are established researched domains of investigation, limited research is available in the Maldives and resort islands.

After reviewing each of them, this research tests a hypothetical model of the transformational and transactional leadership styles. The study adopts a quantitative research method using the deductive approach with a descriptive correlational design. The case study strategy was used with stratified random sampling, and ten resorts rated four and five stars participated in this study. An online survey was conducted with a sample size of 500, gaining a 77.4% (387) response rate. The results indicated that the resorts' managers employ transformational and transactional leadership styles; however, the transformational leadership style was dominant among them. Further, the research demonstrates that the transformational leadership style significantly impacts organisational performance and intrapreneurship among the two leadership styles studied. Also, employees exhibit intrapreneurship behaviours that have a significant and robust relationship with organisational performance and play a significant role in moderating the relationship between the transformational leadership style and organisational performance.

The proposed model significantly contributes to theory and the current body of knowledge. Since limited research has been available investigating the relationship of intrapreneurship with leadership styles and organisational performance, the result of moderating the role of intrapreneurship in the existing theoretical models of the direct relationships between transformational and transactional leadership styles with organisational performance has contributed new insight into the constructs. As a result, a further understanding of the relationships of these concepts adds new knowledge to the literature on leadership and entrepreneurship in tourist organisations in SIDS like the Maldives. The research further helps resort owners, executives, and trainers choose a transformational leadership style to foster intrapreneurship among employees and escalate organisational performance in the resorts, ensuring leadership effectiveness and productivity by stimulating innovation and creativity among employees to achieve the organisational vision and objectives, to change threats into opportunities for the organisation, and ultimately become more proactive in dealing with competitive environments.

# RESEARCH PUBLICATIONS AND POSTERS FROM THIS THESIS

## Articles Under Review

Ibrahim, A., Ashaye, O.R. and Rahman, M. (2022) Intrapreneurship and Organisational Performance in Tourism Industry: Transformational and Transactional Leadership Style Perspective, Tourism Management.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	Asian Development Bank
CBP	Community-Based Projects
CR	Contingent Reward
CSR	Cooperate Social Responsibility
DBA	Doctor of Business Administration
DoNP	Department of National Planning
EDC	Educational Development Centre
FTM	First Tourism Masterplan
FTMP	Fourth Tourism Masterplan
G20	Group of twenty (intergovernmental forum comprising 19 countries and the EU)
GM	General Manager
GNI	Gross National Income
H1N1	Influenza Virus H1N1 (Swine flu)
HREC	Human Resource Ethics Committee
HRM	Human Resource Management
II	Idealised Influence
IIA	Idealised Influence Attribute
IIB	Idealised Influence Behaviours
IM	Inspirational Motivation
IS	Intellectual Stimulations
LMX	Leader Member Exchange
MBEA	Management by Exception Active
MBEP	Management by Exception Passive
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
MHTE	Ministry of Housing Transport and Environment
MoT	Ministry of Tourism
MPND	Ministry of Planning and National Development
MTCA	Ministry of Tourism and Civil Aviation
NBoS	National Bureau of Statistics
RQ	Research Question
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TF	Transformational Leadership
TS	Transactional Leadership
T-GST	Tourist Goods and Services Tax
STMP	Second Tourism Masterplan
TMA	Trans Maldivian Airways
TTMP	Third Tourism Masterplan
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
VIF	Variation Inflation Factor
WBG	The World Bank Group
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

# **Chapter 1: Introduction**

## **1.1 Introduction**

The success of an individual, a society or a nation is usually assessed through the achievements of miscellaneous objectives. Those objectives could be short-term or long-term; however, the attainability of those pursuits relies primarily on performance. Organisational success is not different from this phenomenon. Organisational leadership has been one of the critical aspects of higher performance and a mechanism for accomplishing organisational performance objectives. Remarkably, the contextual circumstances, such as the existing complexity of Covid-19, highly highly demand a suitable leadership style that can overcome the challenges of fierce and competitive environments and cruise with the organisation to a safer destination through outstanding and exemplary attitudes and behaviours and skills. Among the leadership styles, transformational and transactional leadership styles have been acknowledged to be effective for many organisational circumstances in the service sector, especially in the tourism industry.

Intrapreneurship is another fascinating phenomenon that can escalate organisational performance through championing innovation and creativity (Ağca and Kurt, 2007; Jarna and Kaisu, 2003; Zahra, 1991). During fierce competition and uncertainty, innovations can achieve a competitive advantage, ensuring survival, sustainability, and growth in competitive markets. Therefore, this study focuses on the effective leadership style among transformational and transactional leadership styles for intrapreneurship and organisational performance of Small Island Developing States' (SIDS) resort hotels like the Maldives (Elshwesky *et al.* 2022; Bass and Riggio, 2012; Bass *et al.* 2003; Bass, 1985).

This first chapter of the thesis includes nine sections. This chapter presents the foundation for this study by providing the introduction, justification and aims for the research. The following Section (1.2) presents the background, while Section 1.3 presents the problem statement. Section 1.4 outlines the study's rationale, and Section 1.5 provides the aim and objectives of the study. Section 1.6 outlines the research questions; Section 1.7 presents a summary of the research methodology following the definition of key terms in Section 1.8 and the scope of the research in Section 1.9. Finally, the chapter concludes by presenting the structure of the thesis in Section 1.10.

## **1.2 Background to the Study**

Organisational success, continuous growth and sustainable efficiency in this competitive and rapidly changing world are not merely a matter of fortune. It is predominantly influenced by sets of values, attitudes, behaviours, and individual abilities that the organisational leadership presents (Thorpe,

2016). Some researchers describe *leadership* as individual conduct that guides a group of people in attaining a shared objective (Damodharan *et al.*, 2018; Stogdill, 1957). Others define it as a process that can inspire or influence others to agree and understand the required job and how it could be done (Garg, Patil & Agarwal, 2020; Asrar-ul-Haq and Kuchinke, 2016; Hind & Steyn, 2015).

Organisational failures experienced at the beginning of this century stressed the necessity of decisive leadership and individual commitment from corporate decision-makers and have been acknowledged as one of the essential elements for business success (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Shoghi *et al.*, 2013), particularly in an era where trade liberalisation, globalisation, and advancement of technologies are at the heart of global businesses, which stimulate unpredictable and highly competitive environments. Therefore, an appropriate leadership style is required to face these dynamic situations (Glantz, 2002). Researchers have revealed that different leaders follow different leadership styles, and not all leaders perform a uniform leadership style to attain the required objectives (Bass, 1990; Talplacido *et al.*, 2022), and different leadership styles significantly affect performance to various degrees (Rahmat *et al.*, 2019). Thus, the literature has conceptualised specific leadership styles, like transformational and transactional leadership, and suggested that both these forms of leadership are effective for organisational performance (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Shoghi *et al.*, 2013; Glantz, 2002; Bass, 1990; Talplacido *et al.*, 2022; Rahmat *et al.*, 2019).

Due to fierce competition, uncertainty, and the requirement for constant change, entrepreneurship has become an essential element for innovation, breeding competitive advantage (Blanka, 2019), growth, efficiency, and survival for both profit and non-profit organisations (Damanpour, 1991; Howell and Higgins, 1990). Simultaneously, research has proven that the stimulation of entrepreneurship among employees is a crucial element in overcoming the challenging pressure of competition (Ahmad, Nasurdin, & Zainal, 2012) and improving employees' and managers' performances (Skarmas, Lisboa & Saridakis, 2016; Turró, Alvarez & Urbano 2016; Bakar & Mahmood, 2014; Bakar *et al.*, 2016; Fellnhofer, Puumalainen & Sjögrén, 2016). Besides, to uphold the competitive advantage over the rivalries and attain market success in the industry, companies need to explore opportunities, develop and improve new and unique products, advance existing services, and create new markets (Berthon, McHulbert & Pitt, 2004). According to Deshpande, Farley, and Webster (1993), entrepreneurs give special consideration to customers and position customers at the heart of organisational competitiveness. Baruah (2015), Drucker (1985), and Stevensen and Gumbert (1985) argued that some renowned corporations like IBM, Sony, Hewlett-Packard, and 3M had sustained their positions and maintained their performances because of their entrepreneurial orientation and through behaving in an entrepreneurial manner. Subsequently, researchers across disciplines have shown their interest in

customer orientation, innovativeness, and entrepreneurial organisation (e.g., Hult, Hurley and Knight, 2004; Liu, Luo and Shi, 2002). Entrepreneurship at the corporate level has been acknowledged and referred to as corporate entrepreneurship (CE), an organisation-level phenomenon (Zahra, Karutko & Jennings, 1999; Blanka, 2019; Damanpour, 1991; Howell & Higgins, 1990; Ahmad, Nasurdin, & Zainal, 2012; Skarmeas, Lisboa & Saridakis, 2016; Turró, Alvarez & Urbano 2016; Bakar & Mahmood, 2014; Bakar *et al.*, 2016; Fellnhofer, Puumalainen & Sjögrén, 2016; Berthon, McHulbert & Pitt, 2004; Deshpande, Farley, & Webster, 1993; Baruah, 2015; Drucker, 1985; Stevensen & Gumbert, 1985).

According to Covin and Slevin (1989) and Zahra (1991), Corporate Entrepreneurship (CE) is similarly expressed as ‘intrapreneurship’ or ‘corporate venturing’, which is a phenomenon related to existing companies to obtain profitability and strategic renewal (Guth & Ginsberg, 1990) nurture a culture of innovation (Baden-Fuller, 1995), and to succeed globally (Birkinshaw, 1997). Other researchers define *intrapreneurship* as a pursuit of entrepreneurial behaviour that involves resource commitment and organisational endorsements to carry out novel ideas to produce a new product or advance an existing process or modernise the business (Alterowitz, 1988; Covin & Miles, 1999; Burgelman, 1984; Kanter, 1985; Naman & Slevin, 1993; Zahra & Covin, 1995). Therefore, the construct of intrapreneurship is deeply rooted in novelty, modernisation, and the organisation’s internal context, and it is a crucial element of the organisation’s success (Covin & Slevin, 1989; Zahra (1991; Guth & Ginsberg, 1990; Baden-Fuller, 1995; Birkinshaw, 1997; Alterowitz, 1988; Covin & Miles, 1999; Burgelman, 1984; Kanter, 1985).

The tourism sector in Small Island Developing States (SIDS) is a significant contributor to the economy’s growth and total development of the states. Especially tourism industry in the Maldives is growing at a speedy pace, acknowledging the industry as the most substantial contributor to its GDP (23%) (Ministry of Tourism (MoT), 2019). The hotel industry is highly regarded in this phenomenon as it is becoming more service-oriented and labour intensive. The subject of sustainable growth and stable profitability, considering sustainable development of the industry is of utmost importance to countries like the Maldives, which belong to the group of SIDS who rely significantly on tourism and positions on the environmentally vulnerable ecosystem.

Like others in SIDS, the Maldives hotel industry has been severely hit by the political and economic crisis sparked from diverse parts of the world (Soh, Puaah & Arip, 2019), affecting the whole sector with the massive decline in tourism, the substantial drop in room rates, and finally the fall in general sales. Employees are expected to be proactive, innovative, and take risks to a specific limit to meet the



challenge of stressful situations. These are believed to be the significant attributes of entrepreneurship, as van Praag and Versloot (2007) find it initiates innovation, cultivates human potential, generates jobs, and fulfils new customers' requests. Consequently, such behaviour from employees depends substantially on the management and leadership styles of the respected organisations and the support of the organisational environment. Therefore, the research is carried out reflecting the context of SIDS, where the economies of the small island state heavily rely on the vulnerable ecosystem and are positioned on delicate industries like tourism that have a significant impact on global and natural circumstances (van Praag & Versloot, 2007; MoT, 2019; Soh, Puaah & Arip, 2019).

### **1.3 Problem Statement**

As the tourism and hospitality industry is one of the leading sources of economic success in most SIDS and developing economies, and is primarily the most reliable contributor to the GDP of the Maldives, with the tourism sector offering the majority of jobs and employment opportunities for the population (MoT, 2019). The Maldives is a high-end luxury holiday destination in the world tourism industry, and some of the resorts are ranked in the top list of world hotels due to their unique product, service quality, and brand name. Maldives has been accorded the leading tourist destination award for three consecutive years (2020, 2021, and 2022) from the WTA and received several other prestigious awards. However, some resorts are experiencing multiple challenges in managing their businesses. Any glitch that would alter the tourism industry or upset the resort operations and encounter perpetual loss could lead to the cessation of jobs and the closing down of resorts, ultimately significantly impacting the country's national economy and GDP.

Since the Maldives is known for its unique resort development concept, that is, one island, one resort, this distinctive feature of the resorts involves meeting the daily challenges of delivering essential services to customers as all services are dispensed independently. This includes producing and supplying energy and water, facilitating sewerage and waste management, providing recreational facilities and handling the logistics through the different mediums of air and sea. Therefore, every aspect of resort activities in the Maldives requires innovative, cost-effective ways to deliver quality services to sustain businesses.

The Maldives, as a destination, had a significant record in sustaining their customers; some resorts are famous for serving their repeat customers several times a year. However, according to the MoT (2019), the country has been experiencing a lower turnover of repeaters or repurchases since 2013. Statistics show that the repeater segment keeps declining in some markets unexpectedly from 29% in 2013

(MoT, 2019). Meanwhile, a 10% drop-in total occupancy rate was recorded from 71% to 61% over the last five years (MoT, 2019). These deviations may be associated with external factors such as increased resorts with similar services catering for the same market segment, stagnant and conservative marketing processes, poor service quality, and low customer satisfaction; and internal factors such as leadership styles, employee motivation, empowerment, and employee satisfaction.

According to the literature, worldwide market tourism based on products such as the Sun-Sand-Sea; the tourist attractions that are renowned in the Maldives are saturating (TIES, 2006), and the statistics indicate that the market share of the Maldives tourism industry is stagnant, and it continues losing the competitiveness in some markets (Waseema, 2017). This has created severe competition for the Maldives, renowned for these iconic attributes; as a result, the Maldives has to struggle with issues of destination competitiveness from places with similar characteristics like Mauritius, the Bahamas, and the Seychelles.

The Maldives is a luxury tourist destination that is renowned worldwide and is well known for its natural beauty. The islands are “strings of pearls scattered across the Indian Ocean” and have a premium value in their offerings (Scheyvens, 2011, p.150). ‘Luxury’ has broad interpretations; however, for tourists, it could be interpreted as the equilibrium between personal leisure experience, the insights of localism and contented stay (Nasreen & Jamieson, 2015). In offering such a balance, continuous innovation for the offerings, products and services are required. Some island resorts affiliated with local chains have been experiencing meagre sales from extras or add-ons in festivity seasons compared to the parallel resorts with similar advantages to other properties in the chain, which is a constant concern for many of the owners and shareholders of those resorts. The difference in sales and profit margin from extras is far exceeding in properties belonging to the international chains.

Subsequently, the current disruption caused by the outbreak of COVID-19 has been believed to be the most overwhelming event for the entire tourism industry in the history of the Maldives and, indeed, for most countries worldwide. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2020b), COVID-19 has impacted the world tourism industry like no other historical event. Due to the nature of the virus, 96% of all worldwide destinations have been exercising travel restrictions to respond to the pandemic; around 90 destinations have wholly or partially closed their borders to tourists and a further 44 are closed for specific travellers based on their country of origin (UNWTO, 2020b). The Maldives is no different from the rest of the world in this regard; almost all resorts have suspended their operations, and most employees have been laid off and sent back home. However, a few resorts have been transformed to quarantine facilities for suspected COVID-19 cases where a limited number of employees were kept on. When the fatalities rate increased and the outbreak

spread, authorities took all possible measures to secure people's lives, which led to the enforcement of stricter actions that ultimately created more uncertainty and chaos with regard to economic activities. In such situations, organisational leadership expects intrapreneurship among employees, while the owners of the companies look forward to influential leaders that would encourage and inspire such attitudes from employees for superior organisational performance. According to the Global Risks Report issued by the World Economic Forum, one of the leading issues faced the organisational performance by organisations, especially during crises in the current era, is primarily related to leadership (Risks, 2015; Aigbogun, Ghazali & Razali, 2016; UNWTO, 2020b).

Therefore, the existing challenges and unknown realities behind these substantiate the need for this investigation. The results and suggestions will significantly contribute to the Maldives' resort owners, management teams, policymakers, and tourism stakeholders.

## **1.4 The Rationale**

Although extensive research on the relationships between leadership styles and employee behavioural responses in sizable and mature organisations is available (Bass, 1985; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Fetter, 1990), numerous scholars have mentioned the dearth of research investigating the effectiveness of transactional and transformational leadership in relation to entrepreneurship among employees (Antonakis & Aitio, 2007; Cogliser & Brigham, 2004; Vecchio, 2003) and the influence of organisational leadership on stimulating intrapreneurship among employees in the existing literature (Bergman & Williamsson, 2020). Thus, there is a strong need to explore the associations between different styles of leadership and employees' intrapreneurial behaviour (Moriano *et al.*, 2014). However, among the various studies focusing on entrepreneurship in the tourism and hospitality industry, only minimal studies have determined the developmental aspect of entrepreneurship in the hospitality and tourism industry (Fu *et al.*, 2019). According to Solvoll, Alsos and Bulanova (2015) and Li (2008), research on entrepreneurship in hospitality and tourism is currently abundant in practice but weak in theory building (Bass, 1985; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Fetter, 1990; Antonakis & Aitio, 2007; Cogliser & Brigham, 2004; Vecchio, 2003; Bergman & Williamsson, 2020; Moriano *et al.*, 2014; Fu *et al.*, 2019; Solvoll, Alsos & Bulanova, 2015; Li, 2008).

Since the tourism and hospitality industries have been functioning in extremely unreliable and uncertain environments during the past sixty years, the industry urgently requires an investigation of effective leadership styles (Kuznin & Walker, 2017; Rothfelder *et al.*, 2012). Primarily due to the

extreme events that occurred for the tourism organisations concerning the COVID-19 pandemic, it is imperative for researchers to collect more evidence-based information that could help industry managers continue their operations and overcome the current emergency (Köseoglu *et al.*, 2021). Furthermore, extensive research is required on leadership styles in the hospitality industry context (Rabiul & Yean, 2021). A systemic literature review conducted by Rabiul and Yean (2021) using 79 studies published in top-tier hospitality journals on leadership styles in hospitality industries between 2008 and 2020 found 87.3% on hotels only and 5% on restaurants. Only one study incorporated a sample from resorts in the study – and not from the Maldives (Kuznin & Walker, 2017; Rothfelder *et al.*, 2012; Köseoglu *et al.*, 2021; Rabiul & Yean, 2021).

Although considerable studies have been conducted in the field of leadership styles which confirm the universality of the transformational, transactional, and charismatic leadership styles (Leong & Fischer, 2011; Rohmann v Rowold, 2009), research conducted by Meuser *et al.* (2016) from a network analysis of leadership theory performed by organisational leaders reported a noticeable absence of cross-cultural research in the field of both transformational and charismatic leadership study. Moreover, research has revealed a general lack of leadership behavioural studies in the hospitality industry (Saner & Eyupoglu, 2012; Dlamini, Garg & Muchie, 2017), and very little attention has been paid to the investigation of the effects of leadership styles on employees' creativity in the hotel industry (Mumford, 2003; State & Iorgulescu, 2014). According to Gandolfi and Stone (2018), organisations are not immune from ineffective leadership, and leadership is believed to be a systematic issue at the global level; therefore, there is a certain urgency to uncover the most effective leadership methods for organisations. Meanwhile, Mohd Sam *et al.* (2012) claim that though several studies on leadership and performance are available, their findings have never been generalisable to a broader audience; thus, limited knowledge is available on leadership styles' impact on organisational performance within the Maldives perspective. Therefore, this study is designed to examine the leadership styles managers in the resorts of Maldives implement and explore the most effective style of leadership that will lead to resort hotels' success (Leong & Fischer, 2011; Rohmann & Rowold, 2009; Meuser *et al.*, 2016; Saner & Eyupoglu, 2012; Dlamini, Garg & Muchie, 2017; Mumford, 2003; State & Iorgulescu, 2014; Gandolfi & Stone, 2018; Mohd Sam *et al.*, 2012).

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this investigation is the first study to test the two constructs of the Maldives' leadership styles, intrapreneurship and organisational performance. The prominence of this analysis is mainly influenced by the area where the existing literature is scarce: the Maldivian context. The relationship between corporate entrepreneurship or intrapreneurship and its impacts on business performance and growth in an emerging economic environment is generally underexplored

(Zain & Hassan 2017). Research has primarily focused on organisational level entrepreneurship concepts such as corporate entrepreneurship but not individual-level intrapreneurship by which a closer look at entrepreneurial employees and their human capital is scant (Blanka, 2019). Hence, this research anticipates contributing to the knowledge associated with the leadership literature and provides a foundational structure of transactional and transformational leadership behaviours on intrapreneurship and organisational performance in SIDS and, in particular, the isolated resort settings of the Maldives (Zain & Hassan 2017; Blanka, 2019).

The World Bank report (2017) claims that the service sector is the commercial engine of the economies, sharing 56.9% of their GDP in 2015. Meanwhile, the travel and tourism industry was the most potent force for developing the national economy and creating jobs worldwide, contributing to US\$9.2 trillion to the global economy and sharing 10.2% of the world GDP and producing approximately 10% of the employment in the world economy, totalling more than 334 million jobs (WTTC, 2021). These significant figures illustrate the scope of the investment opportunities in this area and grab prominent investors' interest in this sector.

Consequently, a sudden growth in the number of foreign investments and luxury brands in the Maldives hospitality industry has been conceded. Some of these investments are entirely owned and managed by foreign parties, others are foreign and local joint ventures managed by foreign parties, and foreign management companies manage some local brands. Therefore, there are significant differences in their offerings, performances, profitabilities, employee remuneration, Cooperate Social Responsibility (CSR), and other benefits that have been identified from those distinctive properties, and this has been a subject of interest to stakeholders across the industry. Do these disparities exist just because of the brand quality, investment size, resort location, and target market, or is there any role managers and owners display in their leadership and supportive environments created to perform employees' entrepreneurial abilities? These are some reasons why further studies are required in this area.

It has been almost 50 years since the Maldives officially opened its delicate gates to tourists, with only two resorts and 280 beds in 1972, targeting Western Europeans. Until 2004, the traditional market was Western European; however, a significant shift in tourist arrivals has been experienced. According to the MoT (2020), the number of Chinese visitors has surpassed the number of arrivals from the European market, and a constant growth in their numbers has maintained; however, the growth rate of the European market is nil. During COVID-19, the post-period pandemic, a new landscape emerged in tourism markets where Eastern Europe markets led, which was an unexpected change (MoT, 2020).

What are the distinct factors associated with the decline of the Western European market; is it the

sensitivity to security and political stability, have the product offerings and its climate changed, or are new services needed? These are just a few of the questions that anyone excited about Maldives' tourism might ask.

Recent developments in the tourism industry have introduced diverse offerings targeting different markets. However, one might question if the resorts in the Maldives have been following the right strategy to deal with the current trends and developments for the sustainable development of their product and services. Alternatively, how well are the resorts and organisations prepared to add more value to the product and support the best interests of investors and local communities? How well are they prepared for complex situations and uncertainty? These are a few questions about resort leadership and human resource management issues that must be addressed to ensure the industry's sustainability. Works of literature on development and growth suggest that the best strategy for development is the continuous effort for product improvement (Sonobe, Akoten & Otsuka, (2011). They claim that competent workers and contemporary technology are essential for continuous improvement. The utilisation of these elements to ensure the organisation's best interests depends on the organisation's management, leadership styles, and the level of intrapreneurship of the employees.

Studies have revealed that organisational employees who are working for transformational leaders tend to be more innovative, and they give their best efforts to ensuring the advantage of the company they belong to (Xenikou & Simosi, 2006), which will lead to the production of a committed workforce who strive for continuous improvement (Feng *et al.*, 2006). Transformational leadership is expected to be effective in high-end service markets, especially in luxury hotels, where the ultimate objective is to deliver a personalised or individualised service, hence emphasising the importance of the transformational leadership style, intrapreneurship, and performance-related leadership research in the tourism industry (Xenikou & Simosi, 2006; Feng *et al.*, 2006).

Therefore, this research aims to study the effective leadership style among transformational and transactional leadership styles to encourage intrapreneurship behaviour among employees and improve organisational performance in the island resorts of the Maldives. This study also investigates the moderating role of intrapreneurship on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance in these resorts.

## **1.5 Research Aim and Objectives**

### **1.5.1 Research Aim**

This research aims to examine the role of intrapreneurship and identify the most suitable leadership style influencing intrapreneurship and organisational performance within the context of the island resorts in the Maldives.

### **1.5.2 Research Objectives**

In achieving this aim, the proposed research would accomplish the following objectives:

*Objective 1:* To critically review and analyse the literature on organisational leadership, organisational performance, and intrapreneurship concerning the tourism industry in the context of the resorts in the Maldives. This would include an investigation of the relationships between the transformational and transactional leadership styles, organisational performance and intrapreneurship, and examine

- a) the most frequently adopted leadership style, be it transformational or transactional, within the context of the island resorts of the Maldives.
- b) the extent to which intrapreneurship is encouraged among employees.
- c) the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership style and organisational performance among the island resorts in the Maldives.

*Objective 2:* To adopt a quantitative research method and descriptive correlational design research to collect data through questionnaires, text, and documents using case study research. This would enable us to:

- a) assess the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and intrapreneurship among the island resorts in the Maldives.
- b) examine the relationship between intrapreneurship and performance in the Maldives resorts.
- c) examine whether intrapreneurship moderates the relationship between leadership styles and performance in the Maldives resorts.

## **1.6 Research Questions**

The following research questions need to be answered.

1. What is the main leadership style used by decision makers to improve the services – transformational or transactional leadership and to what extent has intrapreneurship impacted the employees and managers in the resort hotels of the Maldives? Moreover, which leadership style has a more substantial effect on organisational performance among them?
2. To what extent has intrapreneurship influenced leadership styles and organisational performance in the resort hotels of the Maldives? Does intrapreneurship have a moderating effect on the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance in the resort hotels of the Maldives?

## **1.7 Summary of Research Methodology**

This research employs a positivist research philosophy which is more aligned with quantitative tools and techniques that stress the measurement and counting of empirical data. In terms of approach, the study utilises a deductive research approach because it moves from the common to the specific, starting by testing the theory and amending the original theory (Burney, 2008; Locke, 2007; Nola & Sankey, 2007).

A descriptive correlational research design applies to this study because the design helps to describe and explain the relationships between leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and performance, but not to establish the cause and effect of different variables. The correlational designs acknowledge multiple regressions where several independent variables impact the dependent variables (Polit and Beck, 2013), which helps empirically determine the relationships between different variables.

As the research method, the study adopts a quantitative method and develops web-based questionnaires to collect data that allows for timesaving, cost-efficiency, and appropriateness in answering who, what, where, how much, and how many. According to Gaddis (1998), this method is highly efficient and particularly feasible for the gathering of data from diverse geographical areas and large populations; therefore, it is the dominant form of research design in social studies research (Trochim, 2001). Since the type of data for the research strengthens the result of the study, the study utilises both primary and secondary data (Gaddis, 1998; Trochim, 2001).



The study has utilised a case study design, as Yin (2003b, 2009) characterised, which is an in-depth empirical investigation of an existing circumstance within its natural context, mainly when the contextual boundaries and the phenomenon are not evident. A case study strategy has been utilised in this study because it intends to study a situation or a phenomenon that occurs in a natural context as it appears (leadership style and intrapreneurship at the resorts of the Maldives) (Johansson, 2003). The resort sector of the Maldives was identified as an appropriate case study because the case is of intrinsic interest to the researcher, as it appears (Yin, 2003b, 2009; Johansson, 2003).

As an instrument for data collection, existing instruments are utilised for established reliability and validity. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X-short) by Avolio and Bass (2004) is one of the most broadly applied instruments in measuring leadership behaviours (transformational, transactional); therefore, this instrument is adopted in measuring leadership style herein. The Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation Scale (IEO) developed by Bolton and Lane (2012) and the combined scale of Chen, Tsou and Huang (2009) and Avci, Madanoglu and Okumus (2011) are utilised in assessing intrapreneurship and organisational performance. Pilot and pre-testing before the actual research has been conducted and the validity and reliability of the instrument have been established through Cronbach's alpha tests. This research employs stratified random sampling, and participants were chosen from ten four- and five-star level resorts in the Maldives. The data is analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 28).

## **1.8 Definitions of Key Terms**

***Leadership:*** The power and the capability of an individual to influence or motivate others in achieving a specific goal or objective (Northouse, 2019; Amstrong, 2012; Daft, 2015).

***Leadership style:*** The values stressing the methods, capabilities and techniques that organisational leaders utilise in dealing with the different situations in the organisation, the approach or the fashion that the leader adopts in convincing the employees to achieve organisational objectives and retain them until they complete those objectives (Almonawer & Ashaye, 2017; Bennett & Anderson, 2003).

***Transformational Leadership:*** The process where the leader inspires and motivates followers or employees to attain higher levels of employee commitment beyond the self-interest of the individual employees in achieving the shared goals and objectives of the group or organisation (Bass, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2012).

**Transactional Leadership:** The process where the leader achieves the desired goals and objectives through their followers or employees by using rewards, compensations, and punishments. In this type of leadership, leaders explain to the employees what is required and the consequences of achieving and not meeting these requirements (Bass, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2012).

**Entrepreneurship:** The process of exploring innovative opportunities to bring into the market by taking risks, employing capital, and combining the factors of production to achieve profitability and business growth (Cadaru & Badulescu, 2015; Ramadani *et al.*, 2014).

**Intrapreneurship:** Individuals who practice entrepreneurship within an organisation transform good, services and processes of the organisation to increase efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation in attaining greater profitability and success (Pinchot, 1987; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003; Lau *et al.*, 2012; Blanka, 2018).

**Organisational performance:** Organisational ability to achieve the goals and targets of the organisation, either by their product quality, profit, market share, customers' satisfaction, financial gain or business survival through appropriate strategic renewals and actions (Koonts & Donnell, 1993; Alrubaiee *et al.*, 2015; and Tubigi & Alshawi, 2015; Reinhart, 2000).

**Resorts:** Private islands developed for vacationists with extreme privacy and relaxation, which deliver all the essential services independently, including the supply of energy and water, providing food, relaxational, recreational, and sports services. These places may offer extensive services on the premises of catering to specific interests such as surfing, diving, or fishing (Royal Automobile Club of Victoria, 1992; Morrow, 2021).

## 1.9 Scope of the Research

The following factors describe the scope of the study.

- This study only examines resort leaders' leadership styles (transformational and transactional leadership styles) and employees' intrapreneurship levels as a one-factor construct.
- This study examines both leaders' and employees' perceptions of managers' leadership styles among transformational and transactional leadership styles and how effective those leadership styles are in improving employees' intrapreneurship and organisational performance.

- This study concentrates only on resorts in the Maldives and the study framework focused only on Agoda.com rated Four and Five-star resorts that appeared on the website of the Ministry of Tourism, Maldives.
- This study acknowledges that other leadership styles could affect employees' intrapreneurship and organisational performance. Furthermore, there could be other moderators of the relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance other than intrapreneurship.
- This investigation recognises the cultural differences between local and expatriate managers and employees; however, this study focuses on the effectiveness of the leadership style in an organisational context in improving employees' intrapreneurship and organisational performance but not on cultural or social differences.

## **1.10 Framework Summarising the Research**

The research studies are organised into seven chapters and structured as follows (Figure 1.1):

**Chapter 1:** The first chapter presents a general overview and the study's orientation and outlines the study's background. This further involves the problem statement, which states the study's rationale with the aim and objectives and the summary of the research methodology.

**Chapter 2:** The second chapter states the study context, the role of tourism in the world and the Maldives and the introduction and development of tourism in the Maldives. The chapter also discusses the effectiveness of the regulatory frameworks, policies, and plans for developing tourism in the country. Additionally, the chapter presents the challenges related to the industry, especially for the resorts, that might affect resort leadership and business performance.

**Chapter 3:** Chapter 3 critically reviews the relevant literature for this analysis. The review analyses significant theories and related constructs for the research variables: transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance. The discussion of the variables includes the factors and the dimensions of leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance. The chapter also outlines the research gap concerning the study.

**Chapter 4:** Chapter 4 presents relevant theories for this research and develops a conceptual model. This chapter also discusses diverse approaches and aspects of the subject and the development of hypotheses concerning the study model.

**Chapter 5:** This chapter summarises the research methodology, including the research philosophy, approach, and strategy, and justifies the quantitative method's design and approach in this study. It further discusses the reflexivity, research population and the sample, recruitment strategy, research instrument design, pre-testing and data analysis. This further clarifies the matters related to the study's validity, reliability, and ethical considerations. The chapter discusses the research population, sampling techniques, and data collection methods.

**Chapter 6:** Chapter 6 gives the results and analysis of the study. It describes the participants' demography and discusses the research questions' outcomes. Based on the results, the researcher proposed and revised the conceptual framework, which was validated and centred on the research outcome.

**Chapter 7:** Chapter 7 is the final chapter that concludes with the main findings and provides a set of concluding remarks. It briefly describes the research implications and outlines recommendations based on the limitations and analysis in terms of the directions for future research. Finally, the chapter summarises the research's theoretical and managerial contributions.

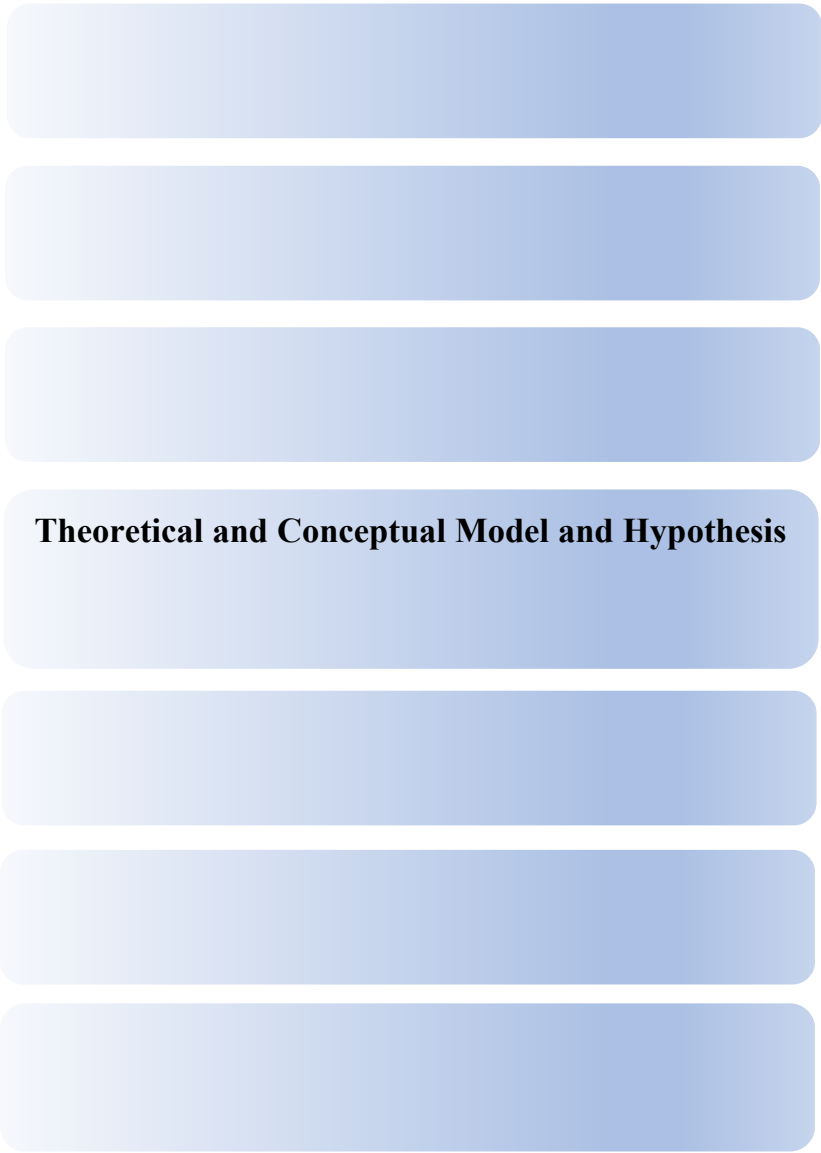
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*Figure 1.1: Structure of the Thesis*

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## **Chapter 2:**

# **The Research Context: Maldives**

## **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents an overview of the Maldives' study context, including its geographical, political, cultural, economic, and historical context. This will convey an understanding of the people's background, beliefs, and surroundings, which will help them understand the study setting. The Maldives belongs to the SIDS group, comprised of tiny low-lying islands in the middle of the Indian Ocean and, till very late, seldom known and with inadequate literature. SIDS (n.d) has been referred to as a group of countries that shares some common disadvantaged factors or features such as being small in size with limited land resources, a high vulnerability to natural hazards, being threatened by substantial biodiversity risks, extreme dependency on tourism, higher population density, inadequate funds, and lack of human resources (Wong, 2011). These countries are generally embodied with rich indigenous cultures, rely on small open economies, and are highly dependent on international trade, with limited ranges of productions (Callway, 2012). The Maldives shares many of these features, and the study assumes that the Maldives is an appropriate SIDS example that perfectly fits the study.

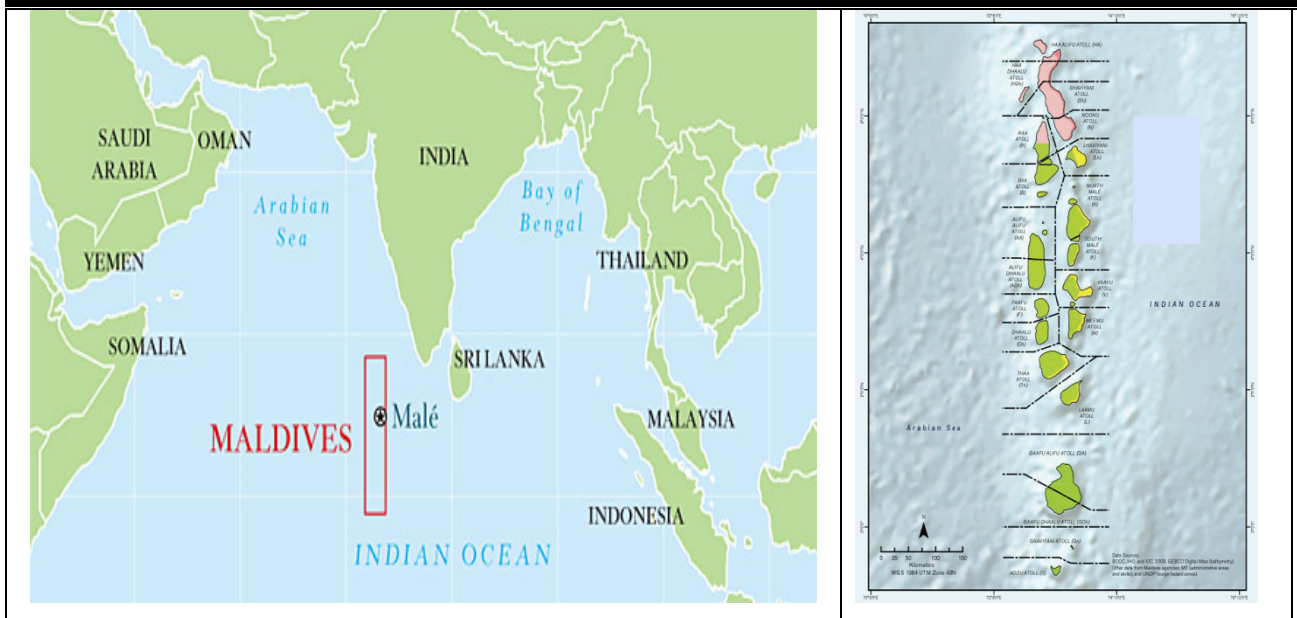
Following this brief introduction, the chapter presents the country's geographical, political and economic structure in Section 2.2, while Section 2.3 presents an overview of the scope of tourism in the world economy and how the Maldives is positioned in the world tourism spectrum. Since the Maldives is a known luxury tourism destination, Section 2.4 discusses how tourism was introduced into the country and how the Maldives sustains its economy through tourism. Section 2.5 deliberates on the effectiveness of the regulatory frameworks, policies, and plans for developing tourism in the country. The chapter also presents the challenges related to the industry, especially for the resorts, that might affect resort leadership and business performance in Section 2.6, and Section 2.7 gives an overview of leadership and intrapreneurship in the country. This discussion aims to present a studied backdrop to substantiate the rationale for carrying out the study; thus, the chapter concludes with a summary in Section 2.8.

## **2.2 Geographical, Political and Economic Structure**

The Republic of Maldives, previously referred to as the Maldivian Islands, is a small island nation in the middle of the Indian Ocean, hardly visible from the global map, situated at the southwest of India and Sri Lanka (Figure 2.1). It is a ring of coral islands spreading from north to south and crosses the equator, between latitudes 7° 6' 35" N to 0° 42' 24" S, and longitudes 72° 33' 19" E to 73° 46' 13" E. The country consists of 1192 tiny islands, grouped into twenty-six natural atolls; however, these atolls

are structured into twenty-one divisions for administrative purposes. Among these islands, 187 are inhabited, 164 have been developed into tourist resorts, including marinas, and 853 are uninhabited (NBoS, 2020).

*Figure 2.1: Maldives on the World Map (Source: bestcurrentaffairs.com (n.d), WBG & ADB, 2021)*



The archipelago's length is approximately 820 km from north to south and 120 km at the widest point of the country from west to east, with 115,300 square kilometres of territory, including over 90% sea (DoNP, 2014). The average size of the islands is estimated to be less than 1 square kilometre, where only 28 islands have been identified as being larger (Niyaz, 2015; EDC, 2011), and more than eighty% of the land is constituted of coral islands less than one metre above sea level (Ahmed, 2018). Due to this susceptible state, the UN's environmental panel cautioned the Maldives about the current sea level rise, which has been identified as an opposing measure to become a country that will be submerged by 2100 (Angelo, 2009). The country's total land area is estimated at 300 square kilometres, and out of 1192 islands, only 33 have been considered drylands (Athifa, 2020). The islands are flat, including sparingly vegetated sandbanks to stretched strip islands of different sizes with no hills and mountains or natural rivers; however, coconut palm fringes are abundant with white sandy beaches and clear tranquil lagoons, ensuring that the Maldives is a unique and popular destination for tourism. As a tropical island nation, the country enjoys a warm and humid climate and has two monsoons. From January to March, it is classified as the north-east monsoon, which has fewer rain showers and is typically a dry season and the southwest monsoon, which lasts from May to November, is the rainy season. The average temperature ranges from 25°C to 31°C (WBG & ADB, 2021; DoNP, 2014; Niyaz, 2015; EDC, 2011; Ahmed, 2018; Angelo, 2009; Athifa, 2020).



The country is among the most geographically distributed countries globally (Bonofer, 2017) and has been recorded as the smallest state in Asia in terms of population and land area. According to the 2014 census, the Maldivian population is 344,023; however, the total resident population of 2021 is projected to be 568,000, including expatriates (NBoS, 2021). Malé is the capital of the country and the most densely populated island consisting of approximately one-third of the national population. The origin of people is almost entirely one specific ethnic group, Maldivian, derived from the successful establishment of mixed people from surrounding Asian countries, the far east, and Arabic traders. Islam is the official religion, and Dhivehi is the country's official language, but where English is widely spoken by the young generation (Bonofer, 2017; NBoS, 2021).

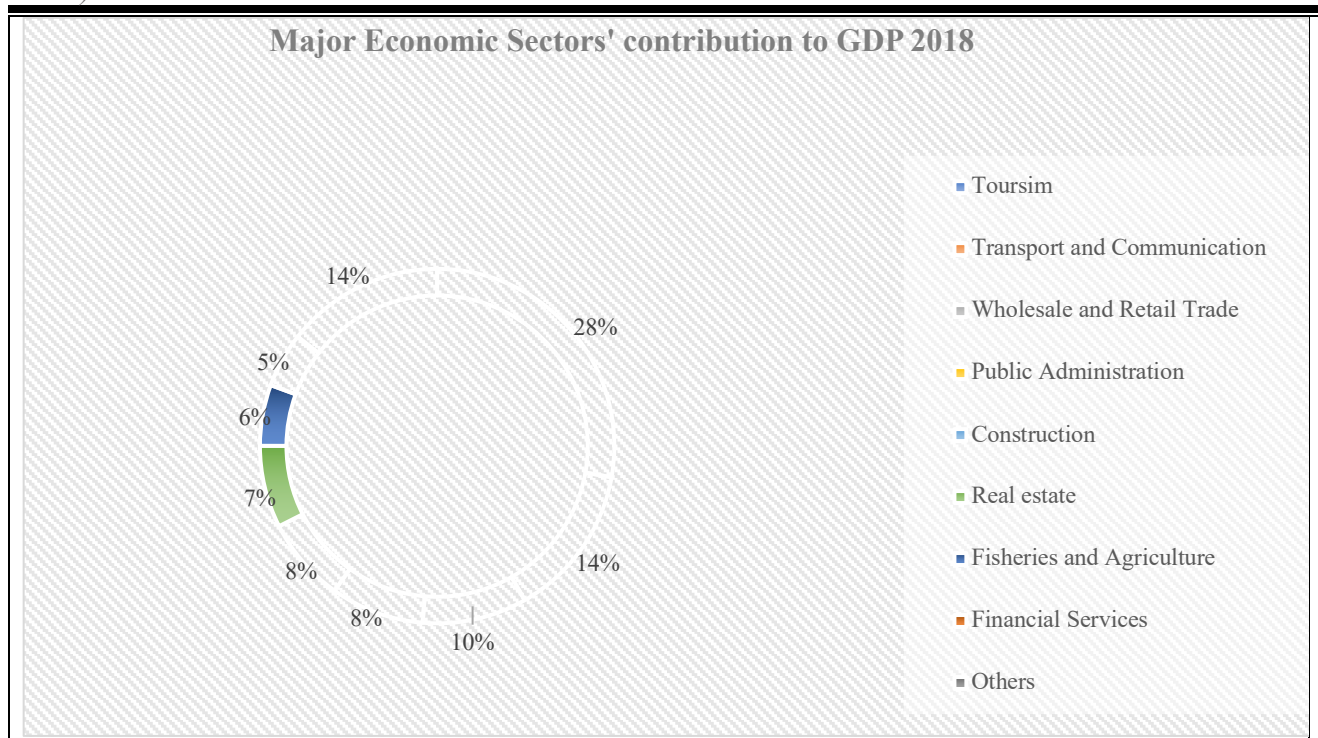
The Maldives' history considers the country to have remained independent other than one two occasions (Hameed, 2017): the Portuguese invasion in the 16th century for 15 years, and the invasion of Malabars in the 18th century for three months (Ahmed, 2011). Apart from these events, several unsuccessful attacks have been accounted for in the history of the Maldives. Since the mid-16th century, the region has been under the strong influence of colonial powers; as a result, the Maldives has looked to different dominant powers acting in the region for protection. In 1887, the Maldives established a protectorate agreement with the United Kingdom (Hameed, 2017); however, this later came to represent an impasse for the country's sovereignty; thus, the Maldives gained independence from the British on 26th July 1965 (Hameed, 2017; Ahmed, 2011).

Some historical accounts show that the Maldives has been inhabited since as early as the 5th century BC (Britannica, n.d). The Maldives converted to Islam in 1153 CE and has been a practising sultanate as a country's governance and established significant commercial and cultural relationships with the countries in Asia, Africa, and the Arab world. The Maldives was a practising Sultanate until 1953; however, resting on Sultans and Sultanas, a democratic constitution was proclaimed in 1932 and required the Sultan or Sultana to abide by it. The Maldives enjoyed a presidential system as its governance mechanism, where a president heads the country, with almost absolute powers ascribed to them by the Constitution with a partly semi-autonomous unicameral parliament. Soon after the end of World War II, the people of the Maldives voted to change the country's governance system to a republic and adopted a Presidential system from where the country was led by a president as the head of state and the government with a supporting cabinet. Due to unpopular laws being passed in its parliament, and the implementation of those laws, the democracy was overthrown after only 7 months and reverted to a Sultanate. Soon after the declaration of independence in the country, the Maldives readopted the republic in 1968 and remains so today.

The primary ecological environment of the islands relies upon the marine environment, which consists of the surrounding lagoons and reefs. The reef has been identified as one of the protectorate layers from the waves for these tiny islands and the home for various living creatures that help develop the reef's life. The key features of the ecosystem of these islands are the white sandy beaches surrounded by the islands and the vegetation that grows around the island periphery, and which are significant contributors to the protection of the island shores. Nevertheless, one of the severe and fearful climate issues in these islands is beach erosion (Athifa, 2020). As a low-lying small island nation, the country is exposed to the effects of climate change such as global warming and sea level increases. Some of the threats common to the tiny islands are seasonal storms, including high tides, erosion, and flood risks due to sea level rise. Due to the inevitable environmental events, the Maldives government prioritises environmental issues in its development agenda.

The colossal sea surrounding the tiny islands limits the scope for multiple occupations by the islanders. Most of these islands have poor-quality soil, unsuitable for agriculture; as a result, marine life has been acknowledged as the only natural resource for the islanders (Ahmed, 2016). Though fishing has been the lifeblood of the Maldivians since ancient history, new industries were introduced to the Maldives and are benefiting its households, as exhibited in Figure 2.2.

*Figure 2.2: Major Economic Sectors' Contribution to the GDP of the Maldives - 2018 (Source: MoT, 2018; 2019)*

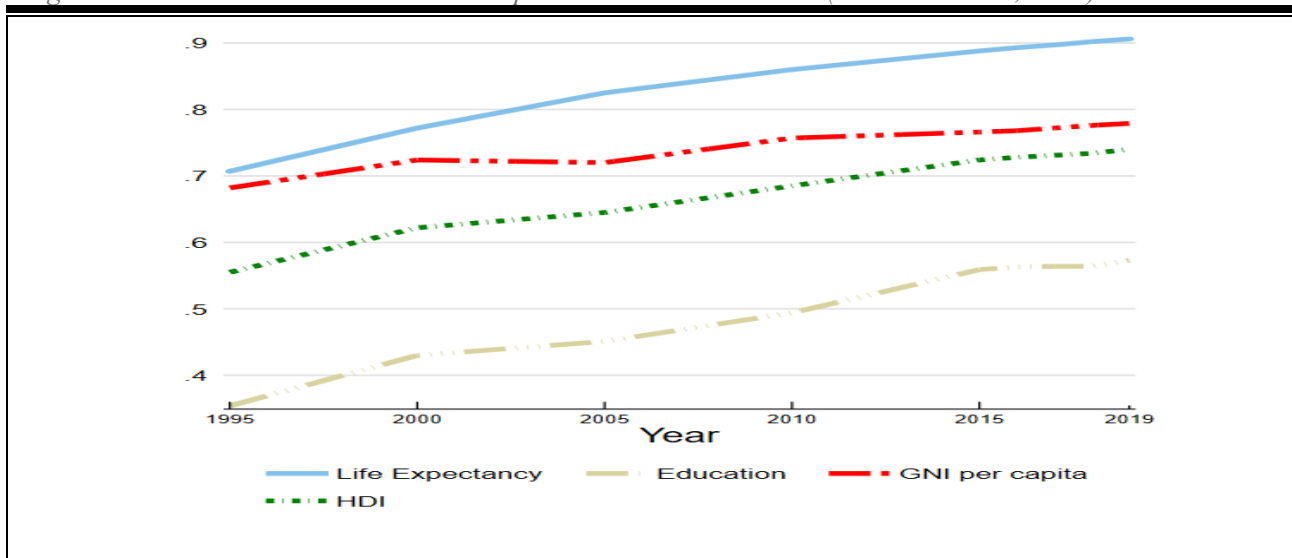


Since tourism was introduced into the country, its economy has been progressing rapidly, and tourism has become the leading contributor to GDP at 28% in 2018. Transport and communication share a

substantial amount of GDP at 14%, followed by wholesale and retail trade, 10%; the public administration sector and construction sector share 8%, and real estate, 7%. Fisheries and agriculture share just 6% of GDP, even though these industries were the major contributors before tourism became widespread.

The continued growth in GDP resulted in the progress of the country's Human Development Index (HDI), as depicted in Figure 2.3. In 1995, the country achieved 0.555 on the Human Development Index with a 65.9-year average life expectancy, 8.5 expected years of schooling, and a Gross National Income (GNI) per capita of \$9110 (UNDP, 2020). However, after 25 years, in 2019, the Maldives is positioned 95th of 189 countries in the HDI with a value of 0.740, a 78-year life expectancy, 12.2 expected years of schooling, and a GNI per capita that has almost doubled, at \$17,417 (UNDP, 2020). The HDI value of Maldives in 2019 (0.740) was below the average of high human development group countries (0.753); however, it is above the average level for South Asian countries (0.641).

*Figure 2.3: Trends in Maldives' HDI component indices 1995-2019 (Source: UNDP, 2020)*



## **2.3 The World Tourism Industry and the Maldives**

Tourism is one of the speediest and largest growing industries globally, and it is one of the most significant contributors to most countries' GDP. It has been a driver of wealth, occupation, and local development, and is expected to show constant growth (Pigram & Wahab 2015). According to UNWTO (2020a), international tourist arrivals (overnight visitors) sustained an average 4.8% annual growth rate throughout the last decade, reaching 1460 million tourists in 2019. Rendering the statistics of 2019, over 52 million more visitors travelled to international destinations as tourists compared to 2018. UNWTO (2020a) states that tourism has continued its expansion and diversification over the

past decades and demonstrates that it is one of the world’s largest and fastest-growing economic sectors. Table 2.1 shows international tourist arrivals to different world regions in 2019 and their share percentages and annual growth rate changes.

*Table 2. 1: International Tourist Arrivals (Source: UNWTO, 2020a)*

	(million)			Share %	Change %		Average Annual Growth
	2010	2018	2019	2019	18/17	19/18	10/19
<b>World</b>	<b>956</b>	<b>1408</b>	<b>1460</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>3.7</b>	<b>4.8</b>
Advanced Economies	515	762	776	53.2	4.1	1.9	4.7
Emerging Economies	441	647	684	46.8	7.6	5.7	5.0
Europe	491.2	716.3	744.0	51.0	5.9	3.9	4.7
Asia and Pacific	208.2	347.5	361.6	24.8	7.2	4.1	6.3
Americas	150.3	215.9	219.3	15.0	2.4	1.5	4.3
Africa	50.4	68.6	70	4.8	8.3	2.0	3.7
Middle East	56.1	60.1	65.1	4.5	4.3	8.3	1.7

The tourism sector’s contribution to world economic activity has incremented significantly between 2009 and 2019, and has played a crucial role in several aspects, such as trade and the balance of payments of countries (UNWTO, 2020a). The contribution can be more visible if tourism’s impact or indirect effects have been considered. The impact of the global travel and tourism industry in terms of employment and world GDP is extremely high compared to other industries, wherein 2019, 334 million jobs, equating to 1 in 10 of all jobs globally, and the sector contributed US\$9.2 trillion to the world’s GDP and the benefits are more significant in developing countries around the world (WTTC, 2021; UNWTO, 2020a).

Despite the different regions of the world, tourism has been one of the most sustainable and viable economic activities, which directly and indirectly links to nations’ socio-economic development. The industry plays a crucial role in international trade and has been considered one of emerging nations’ primary sources of income. According to the UNWTO (2020a), the international tourism receipts of emerging nations in 2019 constituted 4.3% of their GDP, and this amount can be higher in countries rich in natural attractions and cultural and historical resources. Apart from the contribution to national GDP, its direct benefit to individuals’ families and the impact on different communities are noteworthy. Tourism and related industries are a means of income and employment for many young people and different demographic groups, earn foreign currency, attract foreign investments in different areas, stimulate job opportunities, improve infrastructure, and increase exportations (Altaee, Tofiq & Jamel, 2017; UNWTO, 2020a).

Additionally, the related industries help control pollution, encourage more greenery, establish more and better leisure facilities, give more prominence to cultural and historical facilities and attractions, develop a better understanding of the world, etc. The travel and tourism sector created 330 million jobs

in 2019, where one in every four new jobs were produced in the last five years (UNWTO, 2020a). A study conducted in G20 country highlights the diversity of the employees in the tourism sector, where nearly half of the employees working in this industry share women employees (UNWTO, 2020a).

Despite these advantages of tourism, several externalities impose negatively on residents. Zolfani *et al.* (2015) listed some negativities, including overcrowding, the untidiness of roads and familiar places, air and noise pollution, and conflicts between tourists and residents due to the former's complacent attitude toward local rules and regulations and traditions.

The UNWTO defines *Tourism* as:

A social, cultural and economic phenomenon entails the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business/professional purposes. These people are called visitors (tourists or excursionists, residents or non-residents), and tourism has to do with their activities, some of which involve tourism expenditure.

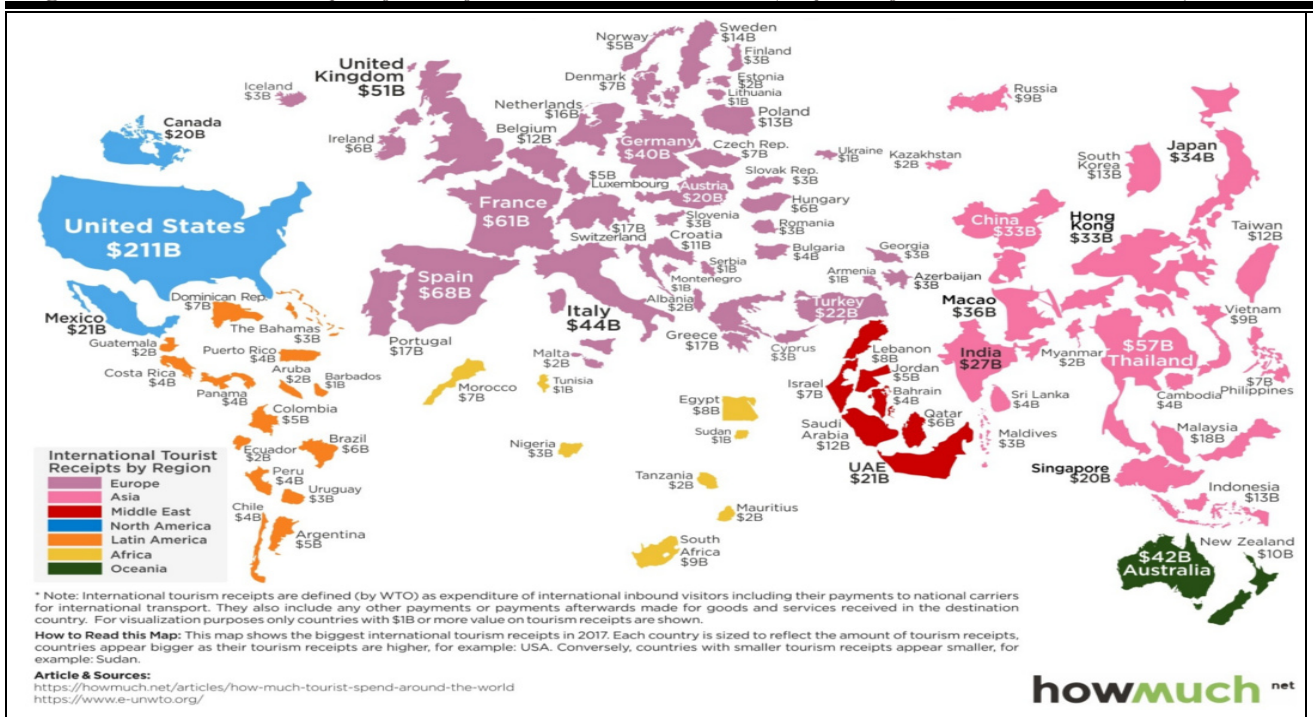
(UNWTO, 2008)

Therefore, 55% of the tourists in 2019 travelled for leisure or recreation, while 28% of tourists travelled to visit their friends and families or for health and religious activities, and 11% of tourists travelled for business events and professional congregations (UNWTO, 2020a).

The research establishes that tourism is vital, and international tourism receipts dominate these regions. Europe has been foremost in terms of tourist arrivals, sharing approximately 51% of the international world arrivals in 2019; Asia and the Pacific region contribute 24.8% of the total arrivals, while America contributes 15% (UNWTO, 2020a). In terms of countries across the world, France has been the world's top destination with 89 million arrivals, and the USA has been the highest earner with USD 214 billion in tourism receipts.

Today, tourism is becoming a universalised industry benefiting almost all countries worldwide. The direct and indirect benefits of tourism prove its prominence in the GDP of many countries, such as Macao, Jordan, Spain, and Croatia, where direct tourism contributes 10% or more to their GDPs, while in France, tourism contributes 7% to their GDP and has remained the top tourism destination for years (UNWTO, 2020a). The contribution from tourism has been more significant, even in SIDS; for example, both Seychelles and Grenada contributed 40.5%, 43.3% in the Bahamas, and 56.6% in the Maldives to travel and tourism receipts (WTTC, 2020a). Figure 2.4 shows the tourism receipts for 2017 for tourism destinations of over a billion worldwide.

Figure 2.4: Tourism Receipts of 2017 for Tourism Destinations (Depicted from howmuch.net, 2018)



The facts and figures related to tourism industries establish confidence and hope for investors and owners and give cause for more optimism to people dependent on the tourism industry. However, the industry is not free from extreme accidents and devastating crises related to natural disasters, long-lasting pandemics, and severe economic downfalls such as the Asian tsunami in 2004, the financial crisis in 2008-2009, and the current COVID-19 pandemic.

Due to the recession the world experienced after 2000, international tourism experienced a sharp decline from mid-2008 and dropped 2% in world tourist arrivals during the boreal summer months; as a result, the negative drift deepened the wound in 2009 with the amplification of the H1N1 virus in different regions of the world, leading to a decline of international arrivals by 4% in 2009 and a fall of 6% in total tourism revenues (Nistoreanu & Hadad, 2020). However, the Maldives was considered a better performer than other competitors during the global economic crisis in 2008-2009 (The World Bank, 2010; Nistoreanu & Hadad, 2020).

The effect of the Asian tsunami in 2004 hit the Maldivian tourism industry hard, starting with a significant decline in international tourist numbers as the tourism infrastructure was somewhat mistrusted. Following the 2004 Indian Ocean Tsunami, nearly a quarter of the resorts in the Maldives suspended operations for several months due to the requirement for extensive renovations; occupancy rates fell to 64% in 2005 from 84% in 2004 (The Economist; London, 2006). This led to a decrease in the contribution of tourism to GDP. Tourism's contribution to GDP in 1995 was estimated at 34.5%;

however, following the tsunami (in 2005 and 2006), the contributions to GDP decreased to 22.7% and 27.1%, respectively (MPND, 2007; The Economist; London, 2006).

COVID-19 has been a disaster for industries, compelling little physical interaction and mobility, such as tourism, due to the number of containment measures like travel bans, closed borders, and quarantine periods. This significantly affected economic growth, impinging on the livelihoods of millions and reducing public expenditure, public services, and export revenues (Tandrayen-Ragoobur, Tengur and Fauzel, 2022). In many countries, international and domestic tourism declined, and the sector suffered a loss of almost USD 4.5 trillion in 2020, with the contribution to GDP falling by almost 50% relative to 2019 (WTTC, 2021). The travel and tourism sector's contribution to GDP declined by 3.7% and accounted for a loss of 62 million jobs in 2020, representing a fall of 18.5%. Likewise, domestic visitor spending decreased by 45%, and international visitor spending declined by 69.4% in 2020 (WTTC, 2021; Tandrayen-Ragoobur, Tengur & Fauzel, 2022).

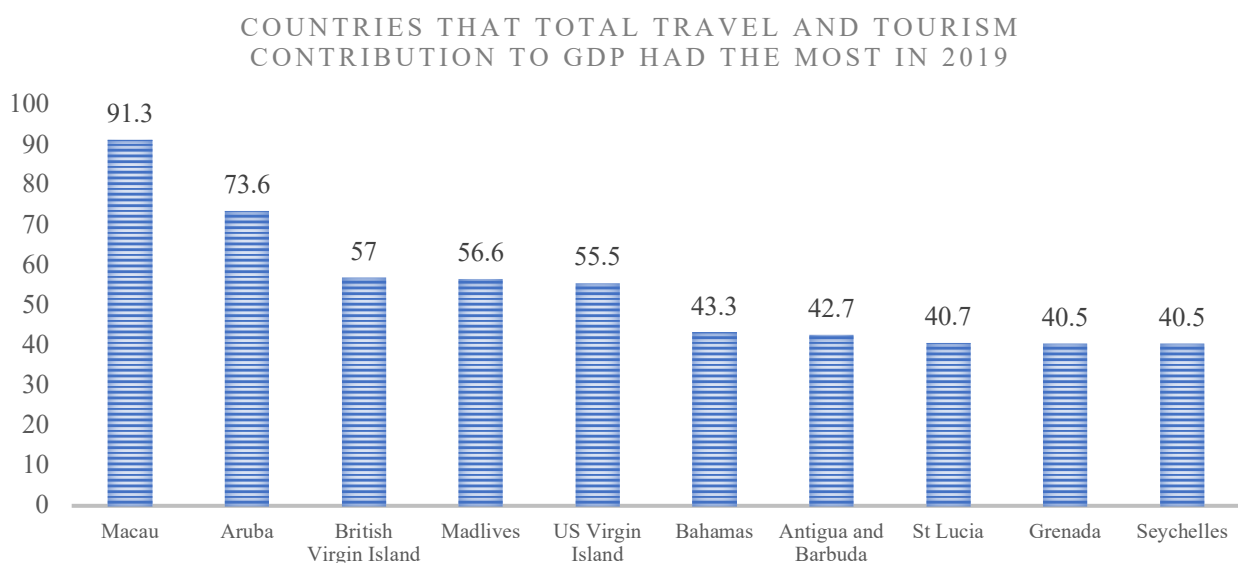
Due to multiple reasons, the landscape of tourist arrivals is changing and may continue to do so. The geographical boundaries around the nations have faded with the resilient influence of technological progress; as a result, the effects of globalisation are significant. Daum and Girard (2018) argue that the geography of tourism has evolved considerably since the end of the last century and remains to change, flowing the progress of one region to another. For example, at the beginning of the 1970s, Europe enjoyed two-thirds of global tourist arrivals, and North America about 20% of total arrivals. However, Europe's share has decreased to 50%, and it is predicted that this will continue to fall to 40% by 2030. However, the Asia Pacific region, which only saw 2% in 1970, has already captured 22% of international tourist arrivals and will capture 30% by 2030 (Daum and Girard, 2018). The status at the national level is not particularly different to this, and the changes are symptomatic. Since the USA remains in the top five most visited nations, Canada was second in 1970 in the list of top destinations; however, in 2019, Canada was not even in the top 10 countries (UNWTO, 2020a). By contrast, China was fourth in 2019 of the world's top ten destinations chart, whereas the country was in tenth place just nine years back (UNWTO, 2020a). The exciting challenge is to know how soon China will beat France as the top destination, a distinction France has been enjoying since 1990 (Daum & Girard, 2018; UNWTO, 2020a).

The South Asia region is perfect for tourist attractions with an extensive contiguous landmass and striking physical features such as grasslands, deserts, and forests. The area consists of varieties of natural resources, seaside belts, highlands and mountains, rivers, and assorted weather, increasing tourist demand for and attraction to the region (Rasul & Manandhar, 2009). Tourism and related industries are essential for this region's socio-economic development as in other developing nations.

As a result, this region’s eight countries has seen considerable tourism-related success. The tourism sector in this region contributed 8.9% (\$281.6 billion) of GDP in 2017 and can be expected to see steady growth to 9.4% of GDP, at \$579.6 billion, by 2028. In terms of employment, the sector created about 50 million jobs, and one might anticipate the number to increase to 63,006,000 by 2028 (Hwang & Lee, 2019). However, Hwang and Lee (2019) dispute that these figures never excite many because the economic base is still weak, and It never matches the potential resources and opportunities available for tourism development (Rasul &Manandhar, 2009; Hwang &Lee, 2019).

The tourism industry of the Maldives is not very prominent on the world tourism map in terms of visitors and direct receipts of tourism compared with the achievements of other prominent countries. However, world tourism statistics show an exciting phenomenon about the resilience of the Maldives tourism industry and its significant role in the country’s economy. According to World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2020a), the Maldives was fourth in the world in terms of total contribution to GDP by travel and tourism in 2019. Figure 2.5 shows the countries where total travel and tourism contributed the most in 2019.

*Figure 2.5: Countries for which the Total Contribution of Travel and Tourism to GDP was the Highest in 2019 (source: WTTC, 2020a)*



Macao was highest in terms of travel and tourism’s contribution to GDP at 91.3%, followed by Aruba at 73.6%, and the British Virgin Islands at 57%. The Maldives was fourth at 56.6%, and US Virgin Islands fifth at 55.5%. The Bahamas and Seychelles are sixth and tenth, and share similar features to the Maldives. Both countries are small island developing states like the Maldives, and whose tourism offerings are very similar.



## **2.4 Development of Tourism in the Maldives**

Whilst being a small developing nation, Maldives is isolated with a small domestic market, has a slender and delicate ecosystem, is deeply dependent on ex-pats due to the scarcity of skilled labour, suffers severe challenges regarding transportation between the islands, is greatly reliant on foreign trade and imports, and is extremely vulnerable to external shocks and climate change issues. Despite the disadvantaged nature of this small developing nation, the Maldives has outshone very similar countries and indeed neighbours in South Asia on Gross Domestic Products (GDP) and Human development indicators (UNDP, 2020). Tourism has been the significant driver in achieving these accomplishments with the increased revenue offering direct and indirect benefits from the associated industries.

Tourism was introduced into the Maldives via an Italian tour operator, George Cobin, in his visit in 1970, including a group of 22 tourists searching for ‘untouched’ islands to explore. The group comprising journalists and photographers came from Colombo by a chartered flight from Ceylon Airforce and landed on an airstrip developed on Hulhule island (Niyaz, 2015). During that time, no resort or hotel existed in the Maldives; thus, those tourists were kept in three separate private houses in Malé, including the ‘Maagiri’ house, which later became the first guesthouse to be established in the country (Tourism Upbeat Pioneers Talk Show, 2022). With the resulting excitement and attraction created by the surrounding sea and the marine life, Cobin shared his enthusiasm for developing a resort with some of the young entrepreneurs in the Maldives; Ahamed Naseem (Kerafaa), Mohamed Umar Manik (Universal), and Hussain Afeef (Champa), who later became the pioneers of tourism in the country. The first resort in the Maldives commenced operations in 1972 on an uninhabited island called Vihamanaafushi, which later became the Kurunbaa Village Resort, close to the island where the airstrip was built.

Today, tourism is the number one economic industry in the Maldives, providing the most foreign currency and remaining the largest employer. The industry has embraced various forms of holidaying linked with the 3S’s (Sun, Sea, and Sand) (MoTAC, 2013a). The conceptualisation of tourism, facilities, product diversifications, and the association of the 3S’s into destination marketing has become the critical strategic advantage of Maldivian tourism. Therefore, the Maldives has been a famous world-class, award-winning destination for tourists, with state-of-the-art amenities and services and high-tech telecommunication providers (Kundur, 2012). In fact, the Maldives has been a luxury destination for the wealthiest vacationers, including world-class leaders, superstars, and celebrities worldwide. This development has ensued against the recommendations provided by the

United Nations mission on development that visited the Maldives in the 1960s and rejected the viability of tourism there (Tourism Upbeat Pioneers Talk Show, 2022; Visit Maldives, 2021; MoTAC, 2013a; Kundur, 2012).

The tourism development concept in the Maldives has attracted many developers, who have been contracted to develop isolated islands into resorts, ensuring one resort on one island. The entire island converts into a single resort and operates under a specific hotel brand in this conceptual design. These isolated resorts position their products for different niche markets, sustaining a luxurious touch in their offerings by developing independent and self-reliant infrastructures, including energy and water supply, managing waste and sewerage systems, sports and recreational facilities, and transport services for domestic and international tourists and employees (Saeed & Annandale, 1999; UNEP, 1986).

Table 2.2: Tourist Establishments in the Maldives 2010- 2020 (Source: MoT, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2021a).

Years		Type of Establishment				Total
		Resorts	Hotels	Guest Houses	Safari Vessels	
2010	Nos	98	17	25	156	296
	Beds	21350	1449	476	2434	25709
2011	Nos	101	19	38	157	315
	Beds	22128	1603	659	2514	26904
2012	Nos	105	19	75	154	353
	Beds	22901	1627	1101	2503	28132
2013	Nos	110	19	135	163	427
	Beds	23677	1626	1930	2716	29949
2014	Nos	111	19	220	161	511
	Beds	24031	1704	3199	2739	31673
2015	Nos	115	17	313	170	615
	Beds	24877	1648	4621	2939	34085
2016	Nos	126	16	393	144	679
	Beds	27031	1713	6034	2694	37472
2017	Nos	135	10	458	133	736
	Beds	29977	1456	7304	2518	41255
2018	Nos	145	12	521	153	831
	Beds	32137	1862	8563	2857	45419
2019	Nos	164	14	605	159	942
	Beds	37016	1698	9653	2993	51460
2020	Nos	159	13	638	142	955
	Beds	37134	1698	10343	2652	51827

One of the prevailing tourism development indicators is the progress realised through facilities and beds. Compared to the tourist facilities of 2010 and 2020, there were only 296 facilities and 25,709 beds in 2010. The facilities had increased threefold by 2020, with 955 properties (resorts, hotels, Guesthouses and Safari boats), with a twofold increase in number of beds to 51,827, as shown in Table 2.2 (MoT, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2021a). Tourist resorts have a share of only 16.6% of the tourist properties, with 159 resorts; however, they have 72% of the total beds, at 37,134.

During this period, the tourist arrivals increased significantly, with the exceptions of a few particular years, and maintained a constant growth from 2010 to 2019 with an average of +10% annual increase, as illustrated in Table 2.3 below (MoT, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020). According to the statistics, tourist arrivals have doubled during the past ten years, with 1,702,887 tourists in 2019, while the figure for 2010 was only 791,917 (MoT, 2017, 2018, 2019).

*Table 2.3: Tourist Arrivals, Occupancy Rate and Duration of Tourist Stay in the Maldives between 2010-2020 (Source: MoT, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020).*

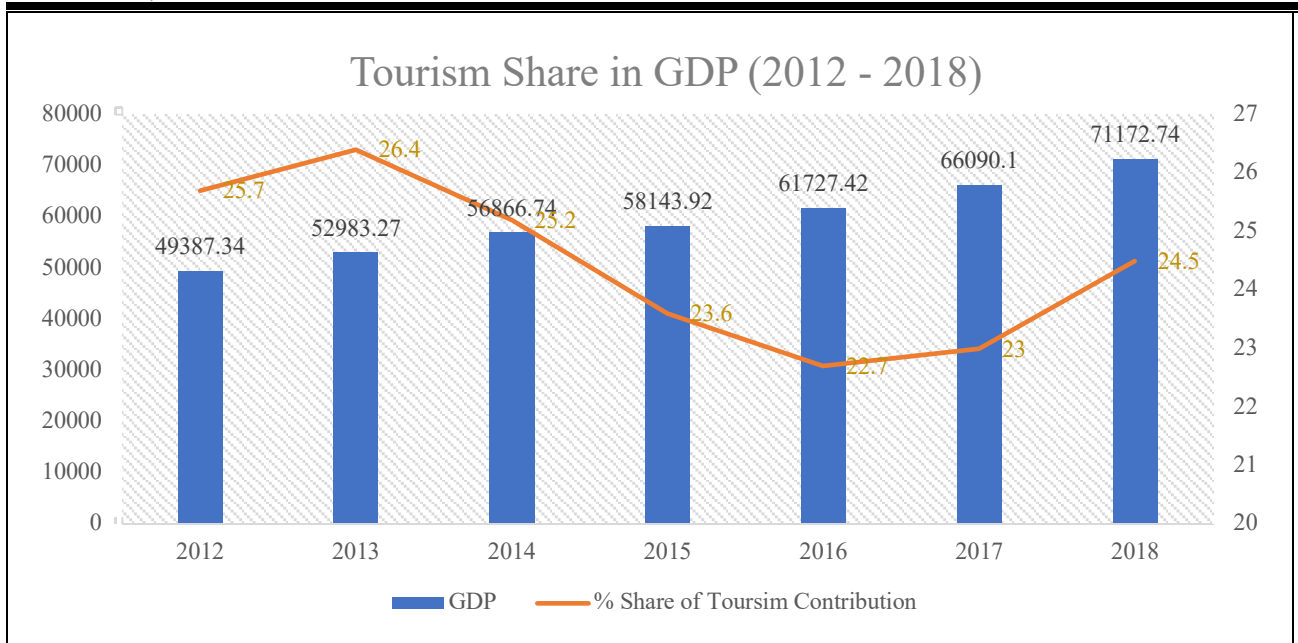
Year	Arrivals	Growth %	Occupancy Rate	Average Duration (Days)
2010	791,917	20	69.5	7.6
2011	931,333	17.6	73.1	7
2012	958,027	2.9	77.6	6.9
2013	1,125,202	17.4	70.9	6.4
2014	1,204,857	7.1	69.7	6.2
2015	1,234,248	2.4	63.9	5.9
2016	1,286,135	4.2	62.9	6
2017	1,389,542	8	61.1	6.2
2018	1,484,274	6.8	62.1	6.3
2019	1,702,887	14.7	62.3	6.3
2020	555,494	-67.4	25.7	7.2

Due to the spread of the pandemic, tourist arrivals dropped significantly in 2020 by -67.4%, with only 555,494 tourists; however, the number of arrivals displayed a significant increase thereafter (ADB, 2021). Even though the tourist arrivals in the past ten years have kept mounting, the occupancy rate decreased from 77.1% in 2012 to 61.1% in 2017, and further declined to 25.7% in 2020. During 2010, tourists spent 7.6 days on average for their stay in the Maldives; however, their stay had shortened to 6.3 days on average in 2018 and 2019. The failure to match the occupancy rate to tourist arrivals may reflect the significant increase in tourist properties and beds.

For decades, tourism has boosted the nation's economy and helped the country achieve an upper-middle-income country status (in 2011), with the highest GDP per capita amongst the South Asian countries (ADB, 2021). The development of the tourism industry contributed to the continuous growth of GDP and had a significant effect on the well-being of the people. With the establishment of the first resort in 1972, the country succeeded in transforming habitat islands into world-class luxury resorts, which led to the steady growth of GDP and accounts for an average of 6.3 per cent in annual real GDP growth from 2015 to 2019, which is better than other upper-middle-income and small island nations (The World Bank, 2021; ADB, 2021).

Tourism has become the highest contributor to the country’s GDP, contributing a quarter of the total amount in 2018 and a similar percentage in consecutive years, as Figure 2.6 below illustrates. The sector contributes over half of the total foreign currency.

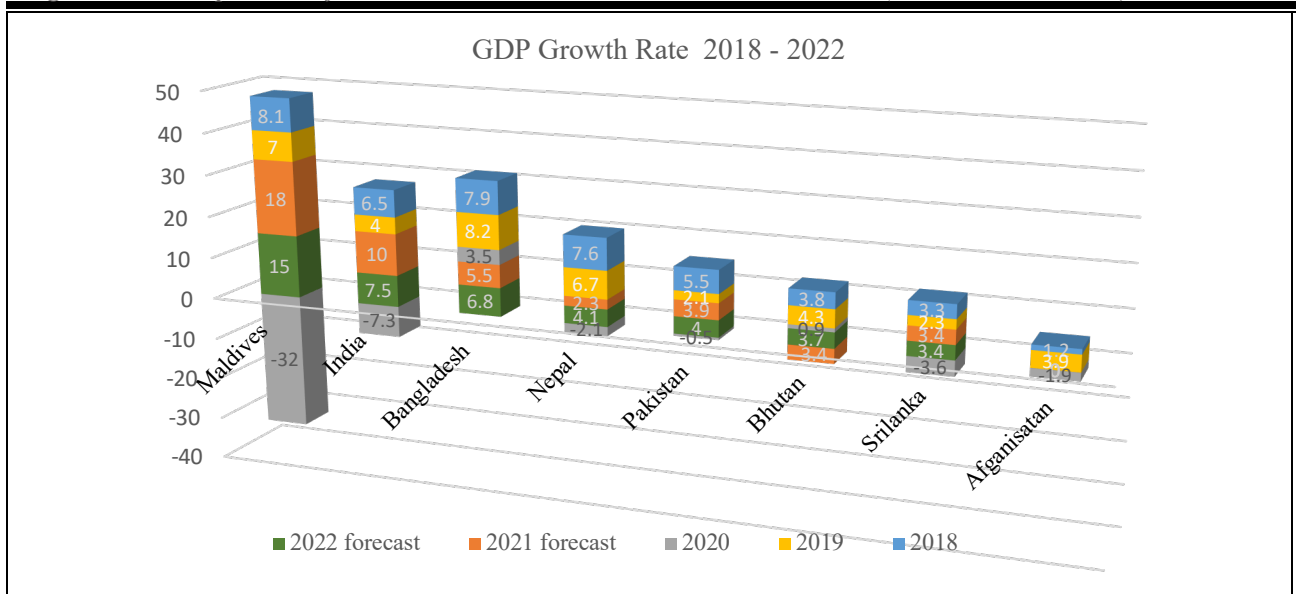
Figure 2.6: Tourism Contribution in the GDP of the Maldives between 2012-2018 (Source: MoT, 2017, 2018, 2019)



As tourism is the leading private employer of the country, diverse employments have been created in line with increased facilities. In 2014, 27,828 employees worked in tourist resorts; however, a 62 per cent jump was observed in 2019, with 44,954 employees (NBoS, 2019). The local employees in the resorts represented a 47% share of the total in 2019, and this figure shows an improvement compared to the 2014 figure of 41% (NBoS, 2019). The inclusion of women and their direct involvement in the tourism industry is always an issue of concern due to the massive difference between female and male employees working in the resorts, where only 10% of employees are female workers, and only 3% were local female employees in 2019 (NBoS, 2019).

The Maldives GDP growth rate in 2018 was 8.1%; however, it declined to 7% in 2019, and suddenly, due to COVID-19, the growth nosedived to -32% in 2020. The regional statistics illustrated in Figure 2.7 also show a massive drop in 2020 (India -7.3%, Sri Lanka -3.6%, Nepal -2.1%, and Pakistan -5%) in line with the Maldives; however, the Maldives has been the most panic-stricken country among the South Asian countries due to its high reliance on tourism. The Asian Development Bank (ADB, 2021), however, forecasts a quick recovery to the region, especially to the Maldives, and expects an 18 per cent growth rate in 2021 and 15 per cent in 2022. Meanwhile, inflation is expected to rise 2.5 per cent in 2021 and 2 per cent in 2022.

Figure 2.7: Comparison of GDP Growth Rates in South Asian Countries (Source: ADB, 2021)



Since the beginning of tourism in the country, the tourism products were designed mainly for European markets; therefore, visits to the Maldives were more popular among European tourists. Europe has remained the primary market for the Maldives for years; however, the market share has significantly changed with the introduction of the Chinese and Indian markets. According to the tourism statistics for 2018, China had the number one market share at 22.1%, with Germany second at 8.1% (MoT, 2019). The UK remained third at 7.5%, and Italy fourth at 6.4%. India, Russia, France, Japan, the USA and Australia were the top markets that remained in the top ten highest market shares for the Maldives (MoT, 2019). The market share changed in 2021, with Russia, India, the UAE, Germany, Saudi Arabia, the USA, Ukraine, Spain, Kazakhstan, and Switzerland being top ten markets (MoT, 2021b).

## 2.5 Tourism Policies and Development Plans

Maldivian tourism has experienced successive transformations during the past half century. The transmutations observed from tourist facilities, transport systems, and other interconnected services can be categorised into six phases in order to help understand the developmental process better. Kundur (2012) envisaged the introductory stage of tourism (from 1972 to 1978), with minimal facilities and modest services to accommodate the demands of tourists due to a lack of resources and trained human resources. In this phase, the tourism development activities were primarily unplanned, and all the industry controls were on private enterprises and individual initiatives (Dowling, 2000). During this period, 1300 beds and 17 resorts were developed; however, all these were found close to the only international airport, developed at Hulhule island near the capital, Malé (MTCA, 2008, as cited by Kundur, 2012). Conversely, the establishments initiated during this phase laid the foundations for

Maldivian tourism developmental concept, the ‘one island, one resort concept’, that investors and industry practitioners followed and further developed the industry on that foundation. It allows the product to be well-positioned as a luxury destination with competitive advantages compared with competing markets such as the islands of Mauritius or Seychelles.

The period between 1979 to 1988 can be recognised as the second phase of the development, where an additional 41 resorts were built within a shorter period, and air service networks were expanded significantly (MTCA, 2007). With these developments, foreign investments came into effect in tourism as direct investments and joint ventures through which the rate of development reached another level. With the implicit knowledge and a decade of experience implementing tourism projects, the industry’s development was guided by public and private stakeholders’ strategic plans and regulatory frameworks. The government established a series of essential plans, such as tourism masterplans, laws, guidelines, and protocols, which helped shape tourism as a strong and established industry in the Maldives.

The First Tourism Masterplan (FTM) was formulated in the second phase of tourism development in 1983 and lasting for ten years, ensuring the development of tourist properties away from local societies to limit the anti-socio-cultural influences. This void of guesthouse operations in inhabited islands in 1984 helped *protect significant investments made by the resort*. Apart from this, MoTAC (2013b, p.1) states that “the earliest tourism masterplans were about guiding a fledging industry...blueprints for growth prepared by international experts”. This masterplan set out the guidelines for sustainable industry development and emphasises tourism integration into the social and economic development of the nation. The guidelines established during this phase also ensured quality standards for service providers and helped ensure the industry’s quality of excellence.

The period from 1989 to 1997 has been assumed to represent the third phase of tourism development, which delivered an additional 16 resorts and a further 4920 beds (Kundur, 2012). Apart from the resort expansions and increment in bed capacity, it has been accounted as the phase that introduced innovation and high-quality services into tourism; as a result, many expatriates were employed to fill the local workforce gaps (Kundur, 2012). At the end of 2006, almost 50% of the jobs in tourist resorts had been taken by expatriates (MPND, 2007), which was against the government regulations that state that expatriate employees must not surpass 50% of the total jobs in the resorts. The Second Tourism Masterplan (STMP) became effective in 1996 for another ten years during this phase, acknowledging private participation in tourism development and focusing on sharing mutual benefits for private tourism operators (Kundur, 2012; MPND, 2007).

The first time a specific law on tourism came into existence was in 1999 as the *Maldives Tourism Act* (Law no. 2/99), which addresses various aspects related to the allocation of zones and islands for the development of resorts, leasing of islands and lands for the establishment of resorts, hotels, and guesthouses, and the management of those facilities.

During the past couple of years, several amendments have been brought into the Act, which steered the introduction of various regulations such as regulations for yacht marinas, travel agencies, tourist vessels, tourism statistics, symbolic marriage, resorts, hotels and guesthouse protection, and conservation of the environment in the tourism industry, diving, development of private islands, and development of integrated tourist resorts. Initially, in the first and second phases of tourism development, the islands were leased for a fixed annual rent; however, in 1989, the leasing model changed to the competitive bidding process, allowing the government to increase the rent revenue from the leased islands. Today, the model has transformed with the second amendment to the Act, specifying that the annual rent of the resort should be paid based on the island's land area. The government previously generated tourism revenue from bed tax, import duties, land rents, and royalties. In 2011, the government introduced Tourist Goods and Services Tax (T-GST) and, in 2014, the Green Tax; as a result, some of the taxes that have been taken previously have been acquitted.

In the third phase of development, special consideration was given to protecting the natural environment; therefore, a year after the Rio declaration, the *Act on Environmental Protection and Preservation* was passed in 1993 (Law No. 4/93), which described a guideline for resort architecture (Mihda, 2008; Niyaz & Storey, 2011). According to this law, resorts can designate only 68% of the beach for the construction of guest rooms; 20% should be allocated to public use, 12% must be left as open space, and all the guest rooms should face the beach with a minimum of five metres of linear beach accessible in front of each room. Several measures also have been prescribed for rooms constructed in lagoons or reefs. This reduces the negative impact of developmental projects and becomes more environmentally friendly, at least to a certain extent.

Apart from formulating tourism masterplans, the government of the Maldives developed a National Strategy for Sustainable Development in 2009 with the support of the UNEP (MHTE, 2009). This exercise concedes the importance placed by the government on the incorporation of sustainable development with tourism projects. Butler (1993) defines *sustainable tourism development* as the development of tourism in a manner that is maintained or developed in a given area (inclusive of community and environment) where the scale and/or manner of development helps to keep the exercise viable for an indefinite period and will never degrade the environment (neither human nor physical),

and further never prevents the successful development or well-being of other activities (MHTE, 2009; Butler, 1993).

The fourth phase of tourism development in the Maldives, including from 1998 to 2001, and the effectiveness of STMP was recognisable (Kundur, 2012). According to the second masterplan, the spread of tourism to different zones other than the country's central zone must flinch emphasising the decentralisation of tourism to many atolls and distribution of tourism benefits to other islands in different atolls, especially the most southern and northern atolls.

The reduction of expatriate labour and broader participation of women in the tourism industry have encouraged this masterplan (MTCA, 2007). During this phase, higher-quality tourism segments, including spa resorts and other tourist accommodations like live-aboard and luxury yachts, were introduced into the tourism product line and international luxury brands started establishing themselves in the country. Due to the spread of tourism to broader proximities from the international airport, the seaplane service started operations to transfer tourists to far-end resorts, and today Trans Maldivian Airways (TMA) is the world's largest seaplane operator with 52 aircraft serving more than 80 resort destinations (TMA, 2019; MTCA, 2007).

During the fifth phase of tourism development, which extends from 2002 to 2008, the Third Tourism Masterplan 2007-2011 (TTMP) was launched in 2007. This masterplan allowed the development of tourist facilities in inhabited islands and encouraged a broader framework of sustainable development of socio-economic and environmental continuums. During this period, distinctive types of resort products were introduced, such as Eco-tourism resorts, health resorts, luxury islands, floating resorts, budget resorts, and training resorts, which were identified as potential diversifications. The government opened more avenues for average Maldivian citizens to join the industry and directly benefit from tourism during this period. A public company, Maldives Tourism Development Corporation (MTDC), was established in 2006 to give locals a share in the industry, with a 55% share by the public and 45% owned by the government and nine islands allotted to the company to develop as resorts. This has modified the concept of 'one island, one resort' and allows city-style hotel projects on populated islands.

The years after the first multiparty presidential election in 2008 can be considered another phase of tourism development where the Fourth Tourism Masterplan (FTMP) was developed in 2013, and several other vital milestones were realised. This masterplan emphasised innovation in the industry and encouraged investors and practitioners to add supplementary diversified products. The masterplan further addressed the human resource gaps and stimulated local employees and entrepreneurs in



tourism. In addition, the Masterplan stipulated a framework positioning the country as one of the emerging tourist destinations in Asia, which brands the Maldives as a destination with value-added services and unique experiences for local and international markets (MoTAC, 2012).

During this phase, the government introduced a tourism policy that allowed the development of tourist facilities such as hotels and guest houses in populated islands to stimulate local economies in 2012. This helped the local communities employ tourism more broadly, and the number of guesthouses increased exponentially. In 2020, 631 guest houses served 10,154 beds on different local islands and communities (MoT, 2021a). However, the regulations for establishing tourist facilities in populated islands have more distinct limits than resorts or facilities developed on uninhabited islands. The policies and regulations customary for local island tourism stringently confine anti-Islamic principles or activities that disprove Islamic values; thus, trading any form of alcohol and pork is prohibited. Tourists using public beaches in local communities are compelled to cover themselves as they are not exclusive to tourists. Therefore, some islands have allocated explicit beach areas for tourists.

Apart from this, the amendment to the Tourism Act in 2020 allows the development of islands as integrated tourist islands with multiple hotels, guesthouses, diving centres, and several other businesses serving tourists. As a result, some islands have been allocated for integrated tourism development projects, allowing private companies and partnerships to establish multiple tourism facilities on a single island. The ‘homestay’ concept was also introduced, where tourists are welcomed into the communities to experience their local life and can stay in local houses with their families at their convenience.

With these signs of progress ascribed by the finetuned concepts, masterplans, policies, laws and regulations, Inskeep (1991, p. 358) claims that the Maldives is “one of the most successful examples of planning and developing environmentally controlled and regionally staged small island tourism in the world”. Supplementing this notion, UNWTO (2004, p.208) affirms that “the Maldivian Islands have in place one of the most comprehensive planning and control systems used for tourism development”. However, other researchers (see: Brown *et al.*, 1997; Shakeela, Ruhanen & Breakey, 2011) inquire about the extent of sustainability of tourism development in the Maldives due to the underlying challenges in the industry. Therefore, the following section will focus on some of the current challenges to the industry, especially to the Maldives resorts (Inskeep, 1991; UNWTO, 2004; Brown *et al.*, 1997; Shakeela, Ruhanen & Breakey, 2011).

## **2.6 Challenges faced by the Resort Islands in the Maldives**

Despite the luxuriousness and high global demand for resorts in the Maldives, they, and indeed the whole industry, face numerous challenges. Some are interrelated with regulations and government policies; however, several are associated with hotel leadership, organisational policies, and human resources concerns.

Maldives tourism has been created on a solid foundation of eco-friendly concepts and developed the industry with a well-planned framework that significantly elevates the country's socio-economic progress, and that never ignores local sensitivities. Simpson (2011) states that tourism in the Maldives “was carefully planned as part of a Quality Tourism Strategy from the 1970s onwards by a government that saw the economic benefits that tourism could bring but, cautious of its potential negative impacts, planned for it to evolve carefully”. However, the tourism projects initiated by its recent governments and how those projects were opened for bids indicate a lack of a tourism masterplan and strategic orientation for the industry development has lost.

Reclamation of lagoons in some atolls like Malé atoll; almost all sizable lagoons were given for tourism projects which involve the reclamation of the mass of the lagoon and founding concrete columns into the reefs, which obstructs the underwater habitats. Since the 1980s, the expansion of tourism has been interrelated with tourism masterplans, and a particular focus is evident in each of those plans (Ahmed, 2018). The recent amendments brought to the regulation allowing guesthouses in inhabitant islands, lease of islands for integrated tourism projects, and homestay tourism introduced a substantial deviation from the initial tourism development concept (one island, one resort concept); the Maldives was known by many as a luxury tourism destination. The lagoons and islands were perceived as cash injection tools for the annual budgets, and the strategic and clear-cut plan for expanding the industry toward eco-friendly and sustainable development models was adrift. However, the new additions of the tourism products in the country allow some degree of broader participation of locals in tourism; yet, there could be a significant effect on the image and reputation of the destination and marketing competitiveness. This could make things challenging with regard to resort marketing, increasing occupancy, and filling empty rooms. Therefore, the need for continued market research, better statistics, and incentive policies for tourism-related investments is paramount to establishing a reliable and effective planning mechanism for the industry.

Although local tourism has extended to almost all the islands in the country, the local government councils of some of the more popular islands for guesthouses believe that the societies they belong to

are not prepared for community-based tourism (guest house incorporation) due to a lack of education, knowledge, and stakeholder cooperation (Ahmed, 2018). Thus, this may interfere with resort marketing efforts if these factors are not thoughtfully taken care of by the industry leaders, as any of the tourism segments in the country can negatively reflect on the industry image or negatively affect the image of the whole industry.

As the number of tourist facilities is increasing throughout the country, catering to various levels and interests of the visitors, some resorts with incredibly high investments are struggling to remain afloat against the global currents. Resorts need highly qualified professionals and unskilled labours to fill certain vacancies; however, the absence of such professionals and the shortage of labourers in the country is a serious concern (Tourism Upbeat Pioneers Talk Show, 2022; Salvini, Bruni & Castagnone, 2016). Additionally, there is a certain controversy about hiring expatriates over locals for specific categories of jobs (TTM, 2020), especially management-level jobs predominantly occupied by expatriates. Therefore, managing a multicultural pool of professionals and semi-professionals with different cultural backgrounds and attitudes in a politically and socially complex society could be challenging for the management (Tourism Upbeat Pioneers Talk Show, 2022; Salvini, Bruni & Castagnone, 2016; TTM, 2020).

Resorts are disconnected from lands and operate independently by managing electricity, water, sewerage, and waste. As the Maldives is an environmentally sensitive country and highly dependent on imports, it could be a tremendous challenge to dispose of waste and manage the necessary inventories for all the in-house services in the resorts. Besides the inventory, various skilled employees are required to manage these services effectively and efficiently. Maintaining a motivated and dedicated workforce in isolated islands would need mindful and effective leadership in the resorts.

Most employees mainly stay in their resorts, away from their loved ones, families, and friends. Short and minimal leaves may not be practical for travelling back to their families, and many employees' expenses are not rational. This concern might well affect the socio-psychological well-being of many employees. Additionally, the take-home for local employees is a severe concern regarding expenses and increasing inflation. As a result, protests and other events to address the concerns of resort staff have become prevalent over the past few years.

Skills training is an important area of concern for many resort employees in the Maldives. Some resorts are known for their efforts in staff training and allowing them international experience in their chosen fields of tourism. Some resorts offer scholarships for further education, pay tuition fees for training programmes, and provide paid leave for training, while others conduct regular short-term in-house

training. However, some resorts are still reluctant to offer training to their staff, assuming that the then trained staff would leave the company soon after the training programme. Research shows that tourists value tourism-related training and industry experience. For example, even with three months of training, hotel managers can set a higher price (an additional \$15) than a hotel with similar characteristics but with an untrained manager (Zuhuree, 2017).

## **2.7 Leadership Styles and Intrapreneurship in the Resort Islands of the Maldives**

Leadership style significantly impacts individuals' and organisational performance in any society, and the Maldives is no different in this regard. As organisations are working in highly vulnerable and dynamic environments, organisational leaders need to be ready to deal with agile environments. To become responsive leaders to environmental changes, individuals must be ready to show an appropriate leadership style that leverages opportunities to exhibit employees' productivity and organisational performance. Substantial factors influence the selection of leadership practices and styles, including national culture (Sadiq, 2011; Deveshwar & Aneja, 2014, Matviuk, 2010), organisational culture (Chapman, Johnson & Kilner, 2014; Lindholm, Sivberg & Uden, 2000), hierarchical level, professional background, and personal characteristics (Lindholm, Sivberg & Uden, 2000).

Limited studies (Sadiq, 2011; Waheeda & Shaheeda, 2018; Ngang, 2011) related to leadership styles have been found on the Maldives, which also suggests that some of the factors mentioned above affect the choice of leadership styles. For example, the study by Sadiq (2011) investigating the Maldivian culture and its impact on the transformational leadership practices of Maldivian managers among public and private organisations in the country's capital city established a significant correlation between the national culture of Maldivians and transformational leadership practices. In this study, Maldivian managers have been identified as individuals with low power distance and high individualism. However, they are moderate in terms of masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation. This result demonstrates that the Maldivian culture is more inclined toward a transformational leadership style as based on Hofstede's (1997) cultural dimensions (Sadiq, 2011). However, individualism and long- and short-term orientation imply that Maldivians could be motivated and satisfied by realising individualistic short-term objectives and rewards. Therefore, this result indicates that Maldivian culture has appealing features with regard to transformational and transactional leadership practices (Sadiq, 2011; Waheeda & Shaheeda, 2018; Ngang, 2011; Hofstede, 1997).

Waheeda and Shaheeda (2018) studied leadership styles in the higher education sector in the Maldives, which explored the most common leadership styles among the affiliative, task-oriented, laissez-faire, democratic, and visionary leadership styles. The research established that affiliative and task-oriented leadership were the most predominant styles of leadership in the higher education institutes of the Maldives. According to Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2004), affiliative leadership concentrates on employees' emotional needs and focuses on building friendly relationships with followers. This demonstrates that leaders in the higher education sector are also sensitive to the well-being of individual employees in a professional and personal capacity. Researchers consider these factors are associated with effective leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Bashir & Khalil, 2017). For example, one of the essential attributes of Bass and Avolios' (1993) transformational leadership is 'individual consideration', where leaders pay attention to employees' personal needs, leading to employee achievement and growth (Waheeda & Shaheeda, 2018; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2004; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Bashir & Khalil, 2017; Bass & Avolios, 1993).

In this study, the task-oriented leadership style has been identified as the most unfavourable leadership style for higher education leaders. This is because task-oriented leaders mainly concentrate on completing tasks with planning, directing and controlling the work, and less importance is given to the human aspects of the organisation or employees' individual needs. According to Bryman (2007), professionals like academics prefer to act independently and are responsible for themselves, and close supervision is ineffective. This demonstrates that they prefer a more transformational approach to leadership style in teaching (Amey, 2006; Bryman, 2007).

The study by Ngang (2011) examined principals' leadership styles and the relationship between transformational leadership style with school culture in Malé's primary schools. The study established that leaders (principals) in the schools are pro-transformational leaders and perform transformational leadership behaviours to a certain extent. Also, a strong relationship between transformational leadership factors and school culture has been observed. The result elaborates that the teachers working in the schools believe that there is a higher relationship between school culture and transformational leadership. This demonstrates that the schools have a culture that facilitates individualised support to the teachers and students, promotes acceptance of organisational and team goals, offers individual stimulations to teachers and students, recognises and communicates organisational vision and objectives, and promotes a higher performance prospect.

The Maldives has been acknowledged as one of the small island nations investing in education and human resource development. This allows the country to achieve a consistently higher ranking on the HDI than the majority of South Asian countries (UNDP, 2020). In 2019, the Maldives was ranked

second highest in terms of HDI among South Asian Countries and higher Human Development countries with over 99% literacy rates. The people of the Maldives share similar features to South Asians and exhibit many attributes and social interactions commonly seen among South Asian families. However, Maldivians tend to intergrade their local values and features with Western management practices and concepts in business practices. This could be due to the opportunities for Maldivian business leaders and managers to fraternise and work with highly qualified cross-cultural business leaders. This opportunity is prevalent in tourist resorts and tourism-related industries, where local managers and employees get hands-on training and receive the prospect of becoming highly qualified professionals. As a result, the managers working in tourist resorts seem very competent in choosing an appropriate leadership approach to suit the circumstances.

Several industries, especially service industries like the tourism industry, are facing more tech disruptions than ever before; as a result, innovation and creativity are crucial parts of tourism's game. In identifying this need in the industry, some resorts worldwide provide opportunities for workers to develop innovative ideas and test their inventions in the hotels (see Freifer, 2018).

Though an eminent formal intrapreneurship programme is not recognised in the tourism industry of the Maldives, the progress and the developmental achievement could be referred to as a by-product of intrapreneurship activities in the industry. There has been no research-based evidence on the level of intrapreneurship among employees or how much the industry encourages employees to perform intrapreneurship behaviours, especially in the Maldives resorts. However, research carried out by Nazri, Aroosha and Omar (2016) on the entrepreneurial intentions of the Maldivian youth has shown entrepreneurship education to be their most significant predictor. Entrepreneurial literature supports the positive effect of educational and training programmes and educational institutions on entrepreneurial intentions, attitudes, and behaviour of individual entrepreneurial intentions (Ibrahim & Soufani, 2002; Wang & Wong, 2004; World Economic Forum, 2009). Therefore, like in other areas, training and development programmes inspire entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions among the Maldivian youth (Nazri, Aroosha & Omar, 2016; Ibrahim & Soufani, 2002; Wang & Wong, 2004; World Economic Forum, 2009).

Day by day, women entrepreneurs' role in economic and social development is becoming increasingly prominent, especially when Canada has observed an increase of 200% in self-employed women entrepreneurs over the last two decades (Golshan, 2014). Like many other communities, until very recently, the critical role of Maldivian women in the economic sector, especially their entrepreneurial activities, has not received adequate acknowledgement. That impulse is supported by a lack of literature featuring women entrepreneurs and their roles. However, the recent literature suggests that

approximately 50% of the employed women on islands and 40% of employed women in Male are home-based entrepreneurs (Premaratne & Kudaliyanage, 2016). This demonstrates that these women have the ability and talent to devise business ideas and expand those into small and medium businesses in their spare time. With such profound talent and mastery, it is evident that Maldivian female employees in the organisations could be potential intrapreneurs when they are provided with the opportunity to perform their entrepreneurial talent and leadership in their respected organisations (Golshan, 2014; Premaratne & Kudaliyanage, 2016).

Though the literature on intrapreneurship in the Maldives is limited, the intrapreneurship practice is evident in the tourism sector, especially in resorts. The steadfast development discovered in the industry and the innovative changes in the sector in terms of transforming facilities and services in the resorts are substantial proof of continuous innovations and creativity reflecting the intrapreneurship roles played by employees in the resorts. For example, 90% of world travellers are budget travellers; however, 90% of travellers visiting the Maldives fall into the luxury travellers category (Naseer, 2022), which indicates that significantly higher-level services and infrastructure developments are paramount for the satisfaction of their customers, and this could be a result of constant creativity and innovation within the company. Therefore, intrapreneurship must be inspired and promoted among the employees to enjoy the continuity of the sector and achieve more success.

## **2.8 Summary**

This chapter has delivered a comprehensive image of the context of this research, the Maldives and the tourism sector. The chapter has presented essential facts about the country and its people and further reviewed the country's historical, economic, and political background, and the position of the Maldives in terms of global tourism. The chapter further highlighted how tourism has evolved in the country and the role of the regulatory framework, strategic plans, and policies in developing tourism as the leading contributor to GDP in the country. It also discussed the existing challenges to the industry, especially to resort islands in the country. The chapter also highlighted the role and the position of leadership and intrapreneurship in the resorts of the Maldives in terms of literature and practice. The following chapter, Chapter 3, covers the literature review of this study.

# **Chapter 3: Literature Review**



## **3.1 Introduction**

This study investigates the effective leadership style for intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the Maldives resort islands. Therefore, the study is constructed according to three theoretical perspectives: leadership style, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance. The first chapter delivered an overview of the research, including the study's rationale, aim, and objectives. The second chapter manifested an overview of the context. This chapter explains the study's main variables' theoretical perspectives, and conducts a critical literature review of the main concepts. The literature on empirical and non-empirical studies on leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance has been identified and carefully studied.

The chapter consists of thirteen sections. Following this introductory section, Section 3.2 introduces the definitions and concepts of leadership and Section 3.3 provides an overview of leadership theories and models. Section 3.4 discusses leadership styles, while Section 3.5 compares transformational and transactional leadership. The attributes of effective leadership are reviewed in Section 3.6, followed by a discussion of the leadership styles in the hotel industry in Section 3.7. Section 3.8 introduces intrapreneurship and related topics, while Section 3.9 reviews organisational performance. The relationship between intrapreneurship and organisational performance is discussed in Section 3.10. Section 3.11 outlines the research gap, and the chapter concludes with a summary in Section 3.12.

## **3.2 Leadership: Definitions and Concepts**

The term 'leadership' is one of the most common words used in the business and political world. However, it could be among the most challenging concepts to define and interpret because of the diverse images that come to mind once the word is expressed. When the word is heard, a person may get a picture of a prominent political leader whose motivating speeches enormously affect one's aspirations. For another, it could be a picture of an epic explorer leading a team by guiding a path through a rough sea for their teammates. For others, it could be a picture of a smart CEO or an executive who is hugely successful in winning different businesses after competing with their competitors. Therefore, it is not easy to articulate the true meaning of leadership (Nodding, 2019), even for many leaders.

Though there are various disagreements in recognising and interpreting the actual meaning of leadership, the most commonality found in almost all the literature on leadership is the agreement on

the usefulness of leadership and its vital role (Azhar *et al.*, 2013). This is more conceivable in situations where ineffective leadership or lack of leadership lead to extremely devastating situations for individuals, organisations, communities, and countries (Gandolfi & Stone, 2016). For instance, in recent sporting history, the FIFA leadership's publicised failure, the crises related to Volkswagen's leadership's integrity, and the humiliation associated with the absence of leadership at the Brazilian Olympic Games in 2016 are just a few of the examples of documented ineffective leadership seen in recent history. A Gallup study using 7200 employees who left their jobs investigating the relationship between organisational staff and their managers found that about 50% left due to having a poor manager (Snyder, 2015; Gandolfi & Stone, 2016).

The study of leadership has been a dominant part of the literature that has been linked with organisational behaviour and management for decades (Asrar-ul-Haq and Anwar, 2018). Today, leadership is a wide-ranging business and multidisciplinary academic research field that highly emphasises organisational and individual life, and that arises in several fields, including social science, humanities, and applied and professional research. Therefore, the origin of leadership never falls into a single field; instead, it is associated with many. However, interest in the investigation of leadership remains intense. For example, since 1923, 500 articles have been published in the Harvard Business Review that reference leadership in their abstracts (Rahman & Jantan, 2020). When 'leadership' is input into Google Scholar, more than 4,790,000 results are generated, and when entered into Google, 4,470,000,000 results are generated (18 March 2022).

Leadership has been considered an individual trait or personal quality for centuries (Silva, 2016). Historically, prominent leaders in different societies were known for possessing distinct individual qualities. For instance, the great Chinese thinker Confucius believed the ideal leader should be virtuous during ancient times; the great philosopher Plato considered the leader to be accepted as a wise person, and Machiavelli believed leaders must be both intelligent and virtuous to attain followers' support (Silva, 2016). However, in the mid-19th century, the perception of leadership or leaders started changing. Carlyle (1840/2011), in his theory of the 'Great Man', states significant traits that should be seen in leaders and acknowledges a leader as a hero or an exceptional individual who has the charisma, political skills, and wisdom to influence followers. At the end of World War II, a new trend was founded on the definition of leadership. Stogdill (1950) acknowledged leadership as more than an individual trait and defined it as a process of influencing a group of people to set out goals and achieve them. At the end of the 20th century, scholars started considering followers' roles and importance in leadership. Bass (1990) believes that leadership is not merely about influencing leaders to their followers; however, it is the interaction process that can be utilised to influence others. Therefore, the

relationship between leader and follower is equally essential in leadership (Silva, 2016; Stogdill, 1950; Bass; 1990).

Leadership has expressed itself in a manifold and has numerous definitions (Rahman & Jantan, 2020; Northouse, 2006). Those definitions are entangled with the individual traits, behaviour, role in the organisation, interactions with supporters and their perceptions, and leaders' control of organisational culture, goals, and followers (Yukl, 1989a). However, according to the researchers' point of view, leadership is habitually defined or has been primarily manifest in researchers' interest in the phenomenon (Rahman & Jantan, 2020). Consequently, some definitions of leadership are narrowly expressed, while others are defined comprehensively. For instance, Nnebuiche (2019) stated a narrower definition: leadership is a process used by others to achieve organisational goals. At the same time, Northouse (2016, 2007) defined it as a process used to influence people to attain a shared vision or a goal. Moore and Diamond (2000) described it as engaging people to attain a common goal.

On the other hand, some researchers (Oreg & Berson, 2019; Abbas & Asghar, 2010) have defined leadership in broader terms and describe the leader as a change agent who influences group perceptions to attain the desired outcome. Yukl (2010), in his prominent textbook on leadership, defined leadership as the process that ensures others understand the anticipated objectives, how those could be achieved, and the manner of expediting group and individual contributions in achieving those mutual goals. Bass (1990a) believes that leadership is a bond between group members where structuring or restructuring a situation, individual expectations, and perceptions are involved. In such a group, leaders, as change agents, influence their followers greater than other persons' behaviour. Therefore, leadership is founded in situations where one individual in a group influences other group members by transforming or substituting their perceptions, motivations, and competencies. Supporting this notion, Adair (2002) describes leadership as a process where a person's understanding, abilities, and expertise applies to influencing a group of people to attain several objectives, for example, motivating individual employees for high performance while observing and inspiring workers to attain organisational targets.

One of the basic concepts of leadership is to make things happen or get things done by using others. Yukl (2002, p. 3) defines *leadership* as "influencing others to understand and to agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individuals and collective efforts to accomplish a shared objective". Agreeing with this notion, Summerfield (2014) and Rosenbach, Taylor and Youndt (2012) expressed leadership as the act of getting things done by bringing people together to work and achieve a shared goal. On the other hand, Wren (1995), cited by Wren (2013), defined leadership as an individual's effectual willpower to comply by exercising

authority. Nonetheless, Gunavathy and Indumathi (2011) argue that leadership is one of the dynamic instruments that broadly impact employees' and followers' actions and behaviour. These interpretations demonstrate the close links between leaders and their followers in supporting each other to achieve mutual goals and objectives by competing for the challenges.

Similarly, Daft (2015) asserts that leadership is the means of getting leaders and their subordinates together to attain shared goals and objectives through change, and the influence of leaders' motivation on employees. Therefore, leadership is a talent and a competency that a leader embraces in convincing their followers to act differently, which leads to bringing out the best in them in achieving the desired objectives (Amstrong, 2012). Further, Amstrong (2012) states that leading people inspires and guides followers and subordinates towards realising the desired objectives.

Leadership has been expressed as a means to set future directions. Dess and Lumpkin (2003) defined *leadership* as a procedure that shapes and uplifts the organisation to its leader's high level from its current state. Therefore, leaders are responsible for establishing organisational short- and long-term visions, targets, and desired performance standards, and for shaping the culture that ensures its success over its competitors. Leaders ensure the organisation's success by influencing the performance of their subordinates by implementing appropriate leadership skills. Arham, Boucher and Muenjohn (2012) assert that suitable and appropriate leadership skills help increase organisational performance through motivation and employee satisfaction. Performance has been the most common measurement that establishes organisational success among competitors. According to Hashim, Ahmad and Zakaria (2012), individuals in organisational leadership in the 21st century face immense challenges in leading their organisations; thus, they keep finding alternative ways and means to maintain their competitive positions over their rivals. Leaders are accountable for paving the way, and this challenging mission could be completed by creating a proper working environment and establishing a motivating culture (Alghazo and Al-Anazi (2016).

In elaborating on the definition of leadership, Morrill (2007) and Starr (2020) argue that leadership definitions in Western societies commonly fall under three taxonomies, and can be labelled according to three different themes. Those taxonomies are designated as '*indirect patterns of influence*', '*direct patterns of influence*', and '*patterns of relationships*'. According to Starr (2020), the *indirect patterns of influence* hold the thinking that leadership happens due to an individual's distinctive thinking, unique ideas or actions that produce an indirect but strong influence on others' thinking and behaviour. On the other hand, *direct patterns of influence* are perceived as a direct influence on workers or subordinates by an individual through their direct role and the function in the organisation or the performance of the individual in meeting organisational objectives (Starr, 2020). *Patterns of*

*relationships* are described as the social processes of interactions between leaders and followers based on both parties' everyday needs and interests (Starr, 2020). In supporting this argument, Northouse (2019, p. 542) states:

Leadership ... is a transactional event that occurs between the leader and the followers ... it is an interactive event ... and is concerned with how the leader affects followers and the communication that occurs between leaders and followers ... leaders direct their energies toward individuals who are trying to achieve something together.

(Northouse, 2019, p. 542)

Through the scholarly works at different stages of time illustrated in Table 3.1, it is evident that the definition and perceived meaning of leadership has changed over the years from measuring individual personal qualities to the ability to control followers through influencing, motivating, and also through an exchange of target achievement for rewards.

*Table 3.1: Definitions of Leadership*

<b>Researcher</b>	<b>Definition of Leadership</b>
Blackmar (1911)	It is the centralisation of effort in one person
Copeland (1942)	It is the art of influencing.
Knickerbocker (1948)	It is consisting of a relationship between an individual and a group
Stogdill (1950)	It is the process of influencing the activities of an organised group in its effort toward goal setting and goal achievement.
Bennis (1959)	It includes a subordinate behaving in desired manner
Bass (1961)	It is an individual's effort to change the behaviours of others
Tannenbaum (1961)	It is interpersonal influence toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals
Katz and Kahn (1966)	It is an influential increment over and above compliance with the routine directives of the organisation.
Burns (1978)	It transforms followers, creates visions of the goals that may be attained and articulates for the followers' ways to attain those goals. Leadership persons mobilise resources to arouse, engage and satisfy the motives of the followers.
Schein (1992)	It is the ability to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive.
Bass (1994)	It is an interaction and leaders are agents of change whose acts affect other people more than people's acts affect them.
Drucker (1998)	It needs a leader. The only definition of a leader is someone who has followers.
Vroom and Jago (2007)	It refers to potential or capacity to influence others.

Moreover, leadership continued evolving from tiny groups of individuals to multinational companies, including diverse races and vast numbers of employees, and the concepts of leadership continue focusing on not only the completion of the job but instead addressing the requirements of workers in organisations (Bass & Avolio, 2000). However, the common element in the majority of the views of leadership remains one of accepting it as a process that includes influencing others, and indeed this view continues. As a result, followers are a significant part of the leadership process; it is believed that

there is neither leadership nor leader if there are no followers. Researchers have the advantage of the vast difference in leadership definitions; most interpret the construct in a manner that suits the researcher's investigation well. Therefore, it is imperative to understand and be familiar with the diverse perspectives, opinions, and views of leadership from theorists and scholars and accept the complexity of the phenomenon of leadership (Marriner-Tomey, 1993).

### **3.3 Leadership Theories and Models**

Several leadership theories and models have been introduced in different fields, such as business, psychology, politics, and management literature to justify how and why some people are successful in becoming effective leaders, and those theories and models have been evolving over time, as affirmed by various scholars (Casida, 2007; Cherry, 2019; Chow *et al.*, 2017; Bolden *et al.*, 2003). Casida (2007) believes that the history of leadership theories' evolution goes beyond the mid-20th century with the Great Man theory and Trait theory from 1900 to 1948. From 1948 to 1980, Contingency theory was more prominent among the leadership theories until the transformational leadership theories emerged. Apart from these theories, Casida (2007) acknowledges the development of other theories, such as the multifaceted leadership and servant leadership theories. (Casida, 2007; Cherry, 2019; Chow *et al.*, 2017; Bolden *et al.*, 2003).

Cherry (2019) argues that people have only recently established several formal leadership theories despite the interest in leadership throughout human history. She further claims that early theories on leadership mainly focused on the traits and qualities that help distinguish a leader from followers; however, subsequent theories emphasise transferable skills and other factors like situational and contingent elements. Cherry (2019) classified these leadership theories into eight main categories: Great Man Theories, Trait Theories, Behavioural Theories, Situational Theories, Contingency Theories, Participative Theories, Management Theories, and Relationship Theories. She believes that all established leadership theories fall into one of these categories. However, the general inference from the research on these theories and models is that the principles specified in leadership are timeless, but the models examining those principles are modifying (Kolzow, 2014). Thus, from all the mentioned categories of theories, the theories and models that help shape effective leadership styles and have significant relevance to this research are discussed in detail.

### **3.3.1 Trait Theory**

Trait theories are an evolution of the Great Man theory (Turner & Baker, 2018) that accordingly have significant similarities with it, where these theories believe that people with innate specific traits and qualities are better suited to being effective leaders (Cherry, 2019). According to Casida (2007) and Bolden *et al.* (2003), Trait theory is an extension of the Great Man theory, and which carries certain aspects of the latter, for instance, the assumption that some leadership behaviours are common to all leaders. Trait theories typically acknowledge “general characteristics, including capacities, motives, or patterns of behaviour” (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991, p. 48), typical for most strong leaders, distinguishing leaders from non-leaders. Furthermore, this theory predicts that leaders with these characteristics and qualities are predestined to be strong leaders.

The fundamental belief of the Great Man theory and Trait theory, that ‘leaders are born, not made’, has been heavily criticised, and many believe that leadership can be developed through training and experience (Marquis & Huston, 2000). The research carried out by Stogdill (1948) confirmed that having a combination of traits or specific qualities never ensures that person will become an effective leader, as based purely on such traits. However, Stogdill, in 1974, revealed 79 unique qualities or traits among effective leaders. He proposed intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, sociability, responsibility, and task completion to be strong leadership traits. Mann (1959) revealed more than 500 measures of personality when he studied leaders’ traits in a relatively small setting. His studies confirmed that intelligence, adjustment, extroversion measures, a positive relationship with dominance, masculinity, and interpersonal sensitivity strongly correlate with effective leadership. He also recognised the role of situational elements for the leadership’s effectiveness, and both Stogdill (1974) and Mann (1959) established that qualities identified for effective leadership differ according to situation and occasionally act in a ‘blend’. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) identified six characteristics that predict effective leaders: motivation, integrity, self-confidence, honesty, cognitive ability, and business knowledge. In contrast, Kouzes and Posner (2003) described only four key traits that could assume effective leadership: honesty, inspiring, forward-looking, and competency.

Several studies have been conducted since the 1940s to investigate those attributes (e.g., Stogdill, 1974, 1948; Lord, DeVader & Alliger, 1986; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Newport & Harter, 2016). Their findings lend advocacy to the idea that some personal traits and individual characteristics significantly contribute to leadership effectiveness (Northouse, 2004). Table 3.2 below presents the most common traits recognised by researchers over the years concerning great leaders’ effectiveness.

Table 3.2: Traits of Effective Leaders

Stogdill (1948)	Mann (1959)	Stogdill (1974)	Lord, DeVader and Alliger (1986)	Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991)	Newport and Harter (2016)
Intelligence	Intelligence	Achievement	Intelligence	Drive	Intense
Alertness	Masculinity	Persistence	Masculinity	Motivation	Competitive
Insight	Adjustment	Insight	Dominance	Integrity	Inspiring
Responsibility	Dominance	Initiative		Confidence	Courageous
Initiative	Extroversion	Self-confidence		Cognitive Ability	Prepared
Persistence	Conservatism	Responsibility		Task Knowledge	Consistent
Self-confidence		Cooperativeness			Enthusiastic
Sociability		Tolerance			Caring about individuals
		Influence			Success-oriented
		Sociability			Analytical
					Focused
					Visionary

One of the more significant limitations to this theory is the attention given to the traits found in great leaders and the avoidance of other crucial factors that helped them to become who they were. The central debate on Trait theories is whether leaders are born or made, and this inquiry seems valid for the moment (Chen, 2018). In this concept, one school of thought considers leaders with unique skills and capabilities to be a rare group of people born with distinctive qualities inherently equipped for leadership positions. Those qualities are innate abilities gifted by nature that cannot be developed. The other school of thought argues that leaders are made; leadership qualities can be learned, developed, and trained. Leadership traits and skills could be studied through books, and they can become effective leaders through networks and associations with different groups of people in different situations and their lifelong experiences. This argument could be appropriate and significantly contribute to the ongoing discussion because organisational leaders' perceptions and opinions on how individuals become leaders and acquire leadership positions may affect their assessments of their leadership capabilities and effectiveness. In situations where organisational leaders in the hotel industry believe the notion of 'leaders are born', as depicted by Trait theory, it is very likely that the leader's attention moves more towards the selection of the right people and may not place any emphasis on the developmental aspect of the employees when assigning leadership roles to them. Meanwhile, organisational leaders who are more pro the notion that 'leaders could be developed' might prioritise the individuals to take up leadership positions that show an interest in learning and development.

The other criticism of Trait theories is that the whole concept is based on the unique capabilities of the leader and ignores the followers. The common understanding of leadership is that there is no leadership without followers. Scholars such as Robson (2002) and Akhtar and Nazarudin (2020) therefore



criticised the theory because it never recognises the followers at any level and argues that it is significantly narrow in its descriptions, and it offers a single-dimensional view of leadership, disregarding all the other characteristics that should be acknowledged. In a service industry like the hotel and hospitality industry, leaders' effectiveness cannot be predicted as based purely on leaders' inert traits; however, the leader's effectiveness relies on the adjustments they brought according to the situation created by demanding customers and evolving environment.

The Trait theories primarily focused on identifying effective leaders' traits or the essential qualities of strong leaders. However, no research has clarified whether those traits are innate or can be developed through education and training with time (Allen, 1998). Some scholars further emphasised that Trait theories discounted situational factors contributing to leadership effectiveness (Horner, 1997). Therefore, effective leadership cannot be anticipated based solely on individual characteristics or qualities in all situations, and several scholars have agreed with this notion (Carney, 1999; Welford, 2002; Lindholm, Sivberg & Uden, 2000).

However, it would not be appropriate to let the situation decide the appropriate leader and determine its effectiveness in the habitually changing hospitality environment. This would undermine the managers' duties in the resorts; rather, it would be expensive and impractical to invest in all the potential employees who anticipate meeting such situations. Malakyan (2014) agrees with this notion and believes that the trait theory never allows any room for individuals who hope to become leaders other than 'born leaders', and this theory failed due to similar reasons as to its original model, Great Man theory (Hunt & Fedynich, 2019). Besides, it never acknowledges the cognitive abilities and social experiences that help make a significant difference in managing internal and external customers in the hospitality sector.

### **3.3.2 Situational Leadership Theory**

Researchers have been working for decades to discover the most effective or suitable leadership style standard for various contexts in which leaders can adapt their leadership style to fit the context and situation. Through such continuous effort, situational leadership theories have emerged, and according to Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1988), these are generally constructed on the foundation of contingency thinking. Therefore, it could be seen as an extended version of contingency theories that propose leaders adopt the most appropriate action sequence for the available situational variables. According to Northouse (2016), Situational Leadership theory was initially developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969a), and it has been suggested to be the most extensively used theory by leaders and

practitioners (Blank *et al.*, 1990; Butler & Reese, 1991). Situational Leadership theory is distinguished from most other leadership theories because of its suitability for the organisational setting (Avery & Ryan, 2002).

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1993), the groundwork for Situational theory lies in several factors, such as the collaboration among the degree of task behaviour of leaders, their relationship behaviour with co-workers, and the followers' readiness or maturity regarding their predictable tasks. According to this view, followers are the primary element that shapes this opinion in leadership situations. The followers' level of maturity is distinguished by their ability, aptitude, and willingness to welcome and follow supervisors' and leaders' instructions to perform particular tasks and complete designated tasks (Northouse, 2016). Therefore, leaders' leadership or supervision style varies according to the followers' maturity level.

Situational Leadership theory distinguishes four leadership styles based on four stages of employee maturity. The suitable leadership style for the employees with a low to moderate range is the best suited to the 'high relationship and moderate task' style of leadership. When employees progress in their job roles and become more mature in their careers, leadership swings to a 'low task and low relationship' style; therefore, this theory's success and effectiveness are established according to the degree of interactions between leader and followers, such as the leader's task and relationship behaviour and employee's readiness/maturity (Northouse, 2016).

According to Hersey, Blanchard, and Natemeyer (1979), the four leadership styles that situational leadership theory visualises are telling or directing (for lower-level employees), selling or coaching (for low to average level), participating or supporting (for the moderate to high maturity group), and delegating (for mature level employees in their ability and confidence).

The Situational Leadership model is believed to be practitioner-centred and can be helpful for training purposes. However, it has never particularised the specific actions the leader should take in certain situations; expressing that the leader must act according to the situation seems confusing and ambiguous. Consequently, the theory never advises how leaders can use it in a group setting, though it suggests how to use it in a one-to-one situation (Northouse, 2016). Apart from this, Situational theory could be pretty inconvenient to use in hospitality leadership because it implies that the leader may need to change the leadership style or the approach from time to time, and this may not be possible in dealing with the needs of different groups of employees who are in unfavourable situations. There will be several factors beyond the managers' control, such as problems related to flight booking and visa issues where guest complaints are common, but managers have minimal control over these issues. In such

situations, front office managers or guest relations officers may find it difficult to change their leadership approach if they apply Situational theory.

Besides this, the other exposition of this theory is that the only solution for the mismatch of the leadership approach for the situation is to replace the leader (Salihu, 2019), which is not practicable in the application of tourism and hospitality settings. Since the industry lacks trained and experienced human resources, it is challenging to replace managers or supervisors in such situations from time to time, specifically if the condition proceeds to an intense or adverse status (Hersey, Blanchard & Natemeyer, 1979).

### **3.3.3 Management Theories**

Management theories stress the social exchanges between leaders and employees involving supervision, team performance, and organisation, and are known as Transactional theories (Amanchukwu *et al.*, 2015; Cherry, 2019). The Transactional theory concept is associated with different management practices and is a functional and expected component of several organisational structures and leadership models (Lamb, 2013). Transactional Leadership theories are commonly used in business organisations and are established on organisational rewards and punishments. One of the significant theories developed by James McGregor Burns in 1978 was that of Transactional Leadership (Bass *et al.*, 2006). According to this theory, if employees successfully achieve the desired goals and targets, they are rewarded; however, if they fail to achieve the desired outcome, they will be punished.

Rewards and punishments in this theory are offered mostly because individuals only perform well when there is a return or compensation for their action, and their psychology insists on involving in behaviours out of goodness (WGU, 2020). However, they are willing to involve in things for the promise of rewards and prizes. Transactional Leadership theory or management leadership could be an effective style due to the positive reinforcement in these concepts, which are hugely successful in motivating and encouraging employees to lead to success. However, several criticisms are around this leadership. According to Bass (1990), the concept could help attain a higher performance in the short term; however, it would lead to mediocrity in the long run. Managers or supervisors will not always have control over rewards; thus, there could be the possibility of a shortfall of committed rewards. Likewise, the punishment could be a factor that hinders employees' morale and motivation in the organisation, and this style could be seen as one of the laziest styles of leadership because the leader may offer a cash prize for completed work and may instruct specific work be repeated as a punishment for failing to meet a deadline. This concept is detailed in Section 3.4 (Leadership Styles).

### **3.3.4 Relationship Theories**

Relationship theories of leadership emphasise establishing effective relationships between leaders and followers, and these theories are commonly referred to as *Transformational theories*. Transformational leadership allows leaders and their followers to establish a mutual relationship by helping each other in instituting ethical behaviour and encouraging motivation (Miska & Mendenhall, 2018). Adaptability and transformation are the main ingredients of this style of leadership (Johns & Moser, 1989).

According to Northouse (2016), Transformational Leadership theory was initially deliberated by Burns (1978), who argues that real leaders are people who honestly consider motivating their followers to attain the objectives of both organisations and individuals. As cited in Yukl (Tidd & Hull, 2003, p.234), Burns (1978) defined *Transformational Leadership* as “a process in which leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation”. The hallmark of this concept is the emphasis on motivation and the importance conferred to followers. It highlights transformational leaders’ ability to change the mindset of the followers or employees by transforming the beliefs and values about achieving the organisational objectives.

In organisations, transformational leaders become the mentors for their subordinates, who allocate their time to discuss meeting the organisational and individual needs with the group members. These leaders help make the work enjoyable for the employees and cultivate an environment that encourages a positive and meaningful work relationship among team members. Such behaviours of transformational leaders assume that the subordinates cross the barriers of their interests and consider serving other employees’ favours (Kopczewski & Liberacki, 2018). Transformational leaders focus on the organisation’s long-term goals and objectives and determine the essential organisational needs (Rodrigues & Ferreira, 2015).

Many scholars have accepted Transformational Leadership for its numerous advantages, such as building employee confidence in their leader and improved motivation; subordinates are inspired to perform good leadership behaviours to their peers and followers and encouraged to stay longer in the organisation. Nevertheless, several criticisms, including those leaders who are sometimes reluctant to notify problematic employees at face value, might have the chance to favour close employees over their productivity. However, most research supports that transformational leaders are more effective and successful in most cases (Bass, 1999, p. 9). This concept will be detailed in leadership styles (Section 3.4).

The following table (Table 3.3) summarises several years of scholars’ findings on the significant characteristics symbolising transformational leaders.

Table 3.3: Characteristics of Transformational Leaders

Researcher	Characteristics of Transformational Leaders
Burns (1978)	- They provide change and movement in an organisation
Bass (1985)	- They broaden and elevate the interest of their constituencies.
Kuhnert and Lewis (1987)	- They are capable of having profound and extra ordinary effects on people by causing shifts in the beliefs, the needs, and the values of followers; thus, followers can become leaders themselves.
Den Hartog <i>et al.</i> (1997)	- They transform the organisation by defining the need for change, creating new visions, mobilising commitment to these visions and by providing awareness of the organisational vision and goals.
Eisenbach <i>et al.</i> (1999)	- They are referred to as change agents.
Egri and Herman (2000)	- They tend to direct specific activities as much as to alter moods, to evoke symbolic images and expectations, and to inspire desires and objectives.
Antonakis <i>et al.</i> (2003)	- They are proactive, raise follower awareness for transcenders collective interests and motivate followers to achieve out of range goals.
Avoli and Bass (2004)	- They inspire followers to go beyond their own self- interests for the good of the organisation with their vision.  - They heighten the awareness of followers with vision they create and the strategies for reaching them.  - They develop higher-level needs for followers such as achievement, autonomy, and affiliation, which can be both work- and not work-related.

The aforementioned leadership theories and models are relevant in fostering intrapreneurship among employees and improving individual performance, ultimately leading to superior organisational performance. Therefore, this research is built on these leadership theories in conceptualising leadership styles in the context of Maldives resorts. Table 3.4 below summarises the various leadership theories relating to intrapreneurship and performance.

Table 3.4 Summary of the Leadership Theories Relating to Intrapreneurship

No	Theories and models	Features / Characteristic/Description	Relevance to intrapreneurship and Leadership	Authors / References
1	Trait Theory	The traits and characteristics of individuals distinguish leaders from followers, and those individual characteristics help to make good leaders. It views leadership solely from the individual leader's perspective.	The theory helps the leaders and intrapreneurs be aware of their strengths and weaknesses so that they can better understand how to develop their leadership qualities and individual attributes.	Cherry, 2019; Casida, 2007; Bolden <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Stogdill, 1974, 1948; Lord, DeVader & Alliger, 1986; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Newport & Harter, 2016.

No	Theories and models	Features / Characteristic/Description	Relevance to intrapreneurship and Leadership	Authors / References
2	Situational Leadership Theory	This approach is a relationship-oriented approach where leaders use different leadership approaches based on the followers' readiness and ability. Leaders adapt their leadership style according to the needs of the followers and offer a valuable balance to the organisation.	This theory helps to employ an appropriate leadership style for different situations, allowing leaders to perform and promote intrapreneurship among the employees.	Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1988; Zehndorfer, 2013; Northouse, 2016; Graeff, 1997.
3	Management Theory/ Transactional	This approach emphasises the relationship between leader and followers for their mutual benefit, where the leader offers rewards and recognition for the loyalty and commitment of the employee.	This theory rewards for achieving the organisational expectations and punishes for failing to achieve those expectations, which helps to meet the human needs; as a result, this helps to instigate intrapreneurship behaviours among employees.	Bass <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Amanchukwu <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Cherry, 2019; Lamb, 2013.
4	Relational Theory/Transformational Theory	Leaders envision change, innovation and entrepreneurialism among employees to transform organisational performance.	This theory emphasises establishing relationships with employees and motivating them intrinsically; as a result, employees are inspired and motivated to achieve higher organisational objectives, which helps to instigate intrapreneurship among employees and involved in innovative projects.	Drucker, 1985; Keeley <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Miska & Mendenhall, 2018; Northouse, 2016; Yukl, 1988; Kopczewski & Liberacki, 2018.

### 3.4 Leadership Styles

One of the common questions in organisational studies is the inquiry on leadership effectiveness. Hence, understanding and studying leaders' predominant leadership styles is crucial to improving organisational leadership (Jamal, 2014). Some scholars have recently attempted to establish an integrated leadership model, combining leaders' behaviours and traits to help predict a leaders' effectiveness (e.g., Derue *et al.*, 2011). Consequently, this would be a supporting tool for improving organisational leadership and developing work relationships and methods.

According to Luftman *et al.* (2004), leaders become successful when they can effectively influence and motivate their subordinates and followers by exploiting effective leadership styles. This provides a sense of how the organisation's leadership style or how leaders treat their followers makes a difference in the organisation's performance compared with other industry rivals. The leader's approach or style towards their subordinates and followers ensures the level of employees' eagerness to undertake their roles in the organisation. Therefore, it is paramount to distinguish between leadership and leadership style.

Leadership style is commonly expressed as the specific approach or the manner that a person in charge of an organisation, a group, or a country chooses in executing the process of leading individuals, motivating followers, and directing and executing plans in achieving shared objectives (Jeremy, Melinde & Ciller, 2012). According to Leithwood *et al.* (2006), *organisational leadership* is generally referred to as the work managed to accomplish in a given timeframe through the influence of motivation by exploiting the sources and means to motivate employees with minimal usage of coercive actions. Meanwhile, *leadership style* refers to the approach or the fashion that the leader adopts in convincing the employees to achieve organisational objectives and retain them until they complete those objectives (Bennett and Anderson, 2003). In supporting this notion, Almonawer and Ashaye (2017) state that leadership style is the values stressing the methods, capabilities, and techniques that organisational leaders utilise in dealing with the different situations in the organisation.

Researchers have acknowledged the vital role of the style that a leader prefers in implementing the leadership process. According to Glantz (2002), leadership style is one of the significant factors in an organisation to sustain or retard employees' commitment and interest. Especially when an organisation intends to implement specific programmes and policies, the choice of leadership style can be crucial in maintaining the process (Jabnounand Al-Ghasyah, 2018). However, all the styles do not fit all the organisational settings; thus, it is crucial to select the most suitable leadership style according to the organisation, department, group, and individuals (Uzohue, Yaya, & Akintayo, 2016).

Since different leadership styles yield different outcomes in various settings, several studies have described the relationships between leadership styles and employee performance. For example, the study by Rast III *et al.* (2012) to recognise the attitude of employees towards autocratic leaders and non-autocratic leaders reveals that employees' performance decreases following autocratic leaders; however, following non-autocratic leaders, their performance increases. According to Hariri, Monypenny and Prideaux (2014), leadership style is essential when organisations make decisions about issues related to employee welfare. Likewise, Zydziunaite and Suominen (2015) asserted the importance of the style of leadership in managing dilemmas, especially issues related to the ethics and norms of the employees and their belonging communities.

Leadership styles in the tourism and hospitality industry or resort hotels are not distinctive from the leadership styles discovered elsewhere. Today's leadership style includes task and people orientation (Acar & Tanrisevdi, 2015). A general manager of a resort hotel or a manager responsible for a functioning department in a resort is considered a team leader whose leadership style significantly affects subordinates and performance. The GM's (General Manager) or functional manager's

leadership style is critical to boosting employees' motivation, satisfaction, and performance, leading to organisational productivity. Therefore, it is observed that organisational leaders in different levels of the tourism and hospitality industry widely perform certain leadership styles, such as democratic, autocratic, laissez-faire, and charismatic (Kozak & Uca, 2008).

Managers' leadership style influences the hotel's capability to adapt to the continuous changes that strike the industry at national and global levels and its effectiveness, employee satisfaction, and the perception that employees hold autonomy and empowerment in their jobs. Therefore, it is believed that leadership styles that consider the factors related to employee needs and interests, such as appreciation, empowerment, exciting and challenging work, empathy, the delegation of authority, teamwork, learning, and involvement in decision making, will generate satisfaction and commitment among employees (Jamal, 2014). Similarly, leadership styles that concentrate on task-oriented aspects such as achievements and excellent performance, quality and quantity of performance, wages, rewards for achievements, employee welfare, and performance evaluation are significant for organisational success (Lowe *et al.*, 1996). According to Birasnav *et al.* (2011), since human resources and machinery are prerequisites for organisational success, leadership style is also a crucial factor supporting success.

Different situations demand superior's or leader's guidance and support for different levels; therefore, leaders need to understand the most appropriate style to match the condition. As different researchers define leadership in numerous ways, leadership style classification varies in numbers. Lewin, Lippit, and White's study (1939) defined three leadership styles: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. However, Akpala (1998) classified leadership styles as autocratic, paternalistic, participative, and laissez-faire. Onosode (1988) argues that as multiple leadership dimensions are available, there are several ways of defining leadership style, including unitary, charismatic, dictatorial, bureaucratic, participative, abdicatorial, and consultative. Conversely, Goleman *et al.* (2002) defined six styles and argued that each leadership style impacts the organisational employee's emotions at different levels. For this study, these six styles are discussed below in detail.

### **3.4.1 Autocratic Leadership Style**

The autocratic leadership style is assumed to be a variant of transactional leadership, where leaders take complete authority and power over their followers and employees in the decision-making process. In this leadership style, organisational decisions are made solely by the leader without discussing the followers, employees, or team members, even though those decisions are strongly coupled with the employees' and group's well-being (Uzohue, Yaya & Akintayo, 2016). Leaders use this leadership



style by instigating threats and enforcing punishments for completing the work required from the employees.

Research shows that most tourism and hospitality managers display an authoritarian leadership style (Okumuş & Hemmington, 1998; Ispas, 2012; Wood, 1994). Al-Ababneh (2013) believes this is due to unpredictable and impulsive client requests, leading to unscripted or off-the-cuff reactions or decisions from the administration (Wood, 1994). This happens because the demands from the clients are erratic; as a result, managers struggle to effectively manage the available human resources and achieve the established financial and budgetary targets. Therefore, in reacting to the requests and demands of those customers, managers put their best effort into efficiently adjusting the inputs to outputs for the satisfaction of the customers and to maintain the organisational status quo.

This leadership style is admittedly effective in circumstances where quick decisions are demanded and whose implementation cannot be delayed (Bhargavi & Yaseen, 2016). Regarding drawbacks, most followers and employees often become displeased with being so treated. Furthermore, due to the quick change in the business world and the demands of global tourists, tourism and hospitality leaders and managers must now be equipped with many more competencies than were needed in the past. Today's managers working in the hospitality industry must be visionary, persuasive, inspirational, and imaginative to motivate their employees to exhibit appropriate behaviours (Newstrom, 2007).

### **3.4.2 Bureaucratic Leadership Style**

The *bureaucratic leadership style* is defined as leaders meticulously anticipating rules and regulations and ensuring their employees and subordinates take precautions in implementing those procedures without failing to follow the protocols and guidelines issued. This style is most suitable for settings where serious safety threats, such as dealing with lethal ingredients, working with machinery, or climbing at alarming heights, are involved, or situations where large sums of money must routinely be managed (Amanchukwu, Stanley & Ololube, 2015, p. 9). The bureaucratic leadership style is also suitable in places where workers are engaged in routine or monotonous jobs (Schaefer, 2005); however, this approach is believed to be ineffective for innovative organisations where creativity backed by flexibility is the organisation's nucleus and teams (Santrock, 2007).

### **3.4.3 Laissez-Faire Leadership Style**

This leadership style is defined as one where leaders, who encourage their followers and employees to do their job independently, allow total freedom in completing tasks and set their deadlines without

leaders' interference. This approach could be the worst or perhaps the best style of leadership (Goodnight, 2011). Laissez-faire is a French phrase that implies "let it be", and in leadership and management, it designates leaders with complexity to allow their employees to do the work freely (Amanchukwu, Stanley & Ololube, 2015, p. 9). These leaders evade responsibilities and circumvent decisions, allowing teams and groups to be accountable for all aspects of the work. They generally let the subordinates take power in making the decisions (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012); however, they provide resources and advice if subordinates are requested but never volunteer to help them (Amanchukwu, Stanley & Ololube, 2015, p. 9).

The Laissez-Faire leadership style can be particularly effective when leaders regularly monitor employee performance and provide feedback to subordinates or team members. In addition, this style could be helpful when motivated, competent, and intelligent people and the team is present in the decision-making process. One of the substantial advantages of this style is that providing total freedom and autonomy to the employees and team members can boost motivation and satisfaction, leading to higher productivity. However, this can be extensively damaging to the organisation if team members fail to manage their time; they are unskilled, inexperienced and demotivated to complete their assigned job effectively (Uzohue, Yaya & Akintayo, 2016; Goodnight, 2004; Lewin, 1944). This style can be seen when leaders have no control or have lost power over their followers or employees (Ololube, 2013).

#### **3.4.4 Democratic/Participative Leadership Style**

The democratic leadership style, also called participative leadership, is the leadership that consults followers and involves them in the decision-making process; however, the leader makes the final ruling. In this leadership style, employees are involved in decision making, such as goal setting, team building, and problem solving. According to Yukl (1999), participative leadership makes joint decisions after meaningful discussions among leaders and subordinates on their goal attainment problems. Democratic leaders encourage their followers and subordinates to be creative, actively participate in making decisions, openly discuss the critical issues of their concerns, keep employees informed of all work-related matters, and delegate problem-solving and decision-making responsibilities to the employees. Through such behaviours, democratic-style leaders foster an environment where employees are encouraged to take responsibility; they are flexible and highly motivated, leading to higher productivity (Zervas & David, 2013).

This leadership style also helps develop subordinates' skills and increase their talents; thus, employees acquire a sense of their importance in the organisation and are motivated by financial incentives. This style's risk is that in situations where urgent and speedy actions are required, this can be a barrier to taking fast action. For instance, in mid-crisis, group consultations can be a factor in wasting time, and involving unskilled or inexperienced workers in decision making at such times can lead to a more disastrous situation. The other criticism of this leadership style is that the need for leadership is insignificant if all the matters are left to group discussion or their decisions (Kolzow, 2014).

### **3.4.5 Transactional Leadership Style**

The transactional leadership style is built on mutual understandings or agreements between leaders and employees. In this style, employees are informed of the goals and objectives, and the consequences of realising, or indeed failing to achieve, them. This leadership approach agrees with the employees or group members to follow the leader as they assume the organisation's job. In the transactional leadership style, employees or team members are rewarded and paid for their achievement and compliance with organisational demands (Bass, 1999). Further, they are punished if they fail to comply with the agreed targets or cannot meet the required standards and deadlines. These leaders ensure that the organisational structure is perfectly fit in place, the process is clear to all group members, group members are thoroughly informed of the goals that must be achieved, and a formal system is established to discipline or reprimand employees (Bass, 1999).

In an organisation, using legitimate power or bureaucratic power, transactional leaders offer contingent rewards to motivate the employees to complete the desired tasks, goals, and objectives, or enact risks of penalties for not completing the assigned tasks, or for weak performance (Bass, 1990b; Tracey & Hinkin, 1994; Hater & Bass 1988). The most critical factors of the transactional leadership style are the work arrangement, clarification of job roles, and rewards for exceptional performance (Arham, 2014). According to Bass (1990b), in many situations transactional leadership stretches the gap between the leader and the follower by restraining the autonomy available to the leader from speaking or networking with the follower because of the organisational or bureaucratic nature. When the followers can meet the leader's expectations, followers' demands and requirements will be fulfilled in return.

One of the significant drawbacks of this leadership style is that it never acknowledges other dynamics that hinder the desired outcomes; as a result, this affects its effectiveness. For example, if all the expected outcomes are set by top management but the compensation or the reward is not suitable,

employees may not work hard as they are not motivated to achieve the desired outcomes (Kolzow, 2014).

In this style of leadership, employees are happy to pass their responsibilities and control to their managers and supervisors, which is assumed to be the opposite attitude to empowered workers (Kolzow, 2014), and this leadership style fails to embody important qualities among employees such as their empowerment and development (Rao and Zaidi, 2020). Moreover, in solving organisational problems, the leader is accustomed to following the existing process rather than thinking outside the box; as a result, creativity within the organisation is reduced.

In the transactional leadership style, employees continue claiming to fulfil their demands and expectations (Weiner, 2017), such as promotions and pay increases. Consequently, some scholars criticise the transactional leadership style for reflecting a lesser extent of integrity and respect due to greediness and reduced trust (Diaz-Saenz, 2011; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2010; Ivey & Kline, 2010); as a result, this leadership style undersupplies employee commitment and cooperation (Antonakis & House, 2013). Furthermore, Nicolaides (2015) contends that employee morality and virtue are flawed, even though these are crucial elements that assist in making the business “virtuous”, leading to quality management and adequate service provisions for service organisations, especially tourism and hospitality companies.

The transactional leadership style involves three dimensions, including (I) Contingent Rewards, (II) Management by Exception (active), and (III) Management by Exception (passive) (Bass, 1999).

(I)- **Contingent Rewards** describe the arrangement between the leader and the follower on the effective exchange or transaction. Leaders support their employees in exchange for their effort, elucidate the organisational expectations and bid rewards when targets are accomplished (Bass & Avolio 2004).

(II)- **Management by Exception (Active)** is how the leaders act to prevent problems from arising. Leaders clarify the employees’ compliance standards, and employees may be punished when they fail to meet them (Bass & Avolio 2004).

(III)- **Management by Exception (Passive)** is how leaders resolve problems as they arise. Leaders circumvent stipulating the agreement with the employees and never provide standards and targets to be achieved. In such circumstances, leaders wait till employees make mistakes before taking action (Bass & Avolio 2004).

The attributes of the transactional leadership style are summarised in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Attributes of Transactional Leadership Style (Source: Ju, 2018)

Transactional Leadership Dimensions	Leader Behaviour	Researcher
Management by Exception – Passive (MEB-P)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Waiting</li> <li>- Implementation of corrective actions afterwards</li> </ul>	Masa'deh, Obeidat & Tarhini, 2016; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang, 2014; Rowold & Heinitz, 2007; Bass, 1997.
Management by Exception – Active (MEB-A)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Attention to deviations, mistakes, errors</li> <li>- Achievement of predetermined performance expectations</li> <li>- Monitoring</li> <li>- Implementation of corrective actions actively</li> <li>- Prevention of potential problems</li> </ul>	Masa'deh, Obeidat & Tarhini, 2016; Zareen <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Ryan & Tipu, 2013; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Chang, Bai & Li, 2015; Wu, 2010; McCleskey, 2014; Bass, 1997; Rowold & Heinitz, 2007.
Contingent Rewards (CR)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Praise; reward</li> <li>- Bargaining exchange between leaders and followers</li> </ul>	Masa'deh, Obeidat & Tarhini, 2016; Nikezic, Doljanica & Bataveljic, 2013; Wang, 2014; Wu, 2010; Rowold & Heinitz, 2007.

### 3.4.6 Transformational Leadership Style

Transformational leadership helps transform or change subordinates' mindsets or belief systems. The leaders who fall into this category aim to transform their followers into leaders. They ensure things are done by injecting excitement and energy. This leadership style positively changes followers' behaviours, who prioritise the group interest over individual interests and cater to peers (Almonawer & Ashaye, 2017). Leaders with the transformational leadership style have a vision and appetite to attain extraordinary success, and people are inclined to follow strong personalities in inspiring and motivating them (Uzohue, Yaya & Akintayo, 2016).

Since leaders with a transactional leadership style are more concerned about the most low-level needs of their followers, transformational leaders concentrate on employees' motivation and uplift their morale by focusing on the employee's high-level needs. In other words, it is more like 'transactional leaders concentrate on what the community can do for its natives; however, transformational leaders emphasise what good you can do for your society or your nation (Arham, 2014).

The transformational leadership style stands on the relationships and connections between leaders and followers in which contingent rewards and punishments are less significant; however, more focus is given to establishing partnerships and collaborations between leaders and employees to accomplish

desired outcomes. According to Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh and Omary (2009), transformational leaders focus on attaining excellent results by implementing several behaviours, such as developing and communicating a mutual vision, challenging the existing status quo, establishing an exemplary role model, and supporting co-workers.

Bass (1999, 2000) described transformational leaders as those who develop their supporters and followers by constructing a vision that inspires value and meaning for their motivation. Transformational leaders are believed to be instilled with the aptitude to convey their dream and vision with the conviction that ultimately leads followers to develop a strong sense of belonging with the organisation and ultimately inspires employees to bypass their self-interests and work for the greater good of their organisation. Kouzes and Posner (2007) acknowledge that leaders who employ a transformational leadership style bring significant and exemplary transformations to their respective organisations. Empirical research implies that effective transformational leaders are vital to successfully implementing reforms and change in the organisational setting (Al-Omari & Sharaah, 2012; Knab, 2009; Pugh *et al.*, 2011).

Bolden *et al.* (2003) elaborated transformational leadership as a process in which leaders move the followers or employees beyond the followers' self-interests for the betterment of the organisational or the team by taking appropriate actions to expand their followers' awareness of the matters that are right and important for the team, and uplifting their followers' motivation. These leaders develop a sense of drive and a feeling of purpose among the followers that stimulate them to go beyond the expectations for a simple reward. According to Bolden *et al.* (2003), transformational leaders optimise performance and organisational development by advancing organisational capabilities and harnessing employee attitudes, values and motivation. These leaders anticipate and work to advance the maturity of employees' needs (from security needs to needs for achievement and self-development).

According to Hannah *et al.* (2008), transformational leadership predicts that an effective leader can adapt the style and behaviour of the lead according to the followers' demands and the situation between more or less transformational and transactional qualities. Bass (1985) agrees that transactional leadership effectively delivers higher performance in stable situations and unambiguous states. Nevertheless, during unpredictable and unstable situations, the transformational leadership style is believed to be more suitable and effective (Avolio, 2005). Besides, Bass *et al.* (2003) have compared the effectiveness of both leadership styles and concluded that transformational leadership is more effective when compared to transactional leadership as the former promotes certain attributes among employees, such as empowering employees and making them team players, developing service-oriented teams, and improving quality and efficiency.

One of the drawbacks of the transformational leadership style is that leaders' confidence and passion can mislead their followers about reality and truth (Changing Minds). Though outstanding achievements have been accomplished through enthusiasm and confidence, some passionate leaders lead their followers into a bad place and make poor decisions (Hallinger, 2010). It is because one's belief about a leader's capability or charisma never guarantees that they are undoubtedly correct, and invariably they will take to the desired destination. According to Khan et al. (2015), this leadership style can have the possibility of employee burnout. Consequently, Santamaría and Santamaría (2013) argue that transformational leadership never produces the best results, though it may improve or decrease productivity and management efficiency.

Transformational leaders are inclined to see the broader scope or the big picture; however, they sometimes never see the details; as a result, this may lead to a devastating situation. If these leaders lack people taking care of the detailed information, it is usually destined to fail.

Transformational leaders are seen as effective and successful due to utilising one or more of the four qualities or attributes of transformational leadership (I- Idealised Influences (attributes and behaviours), II- Inspirational Motivation, III- Intellectual Stimulation, and IV- Individualised Consideration), as suggested by Bass (1985). Figure 3.1 exhibits the dimensions (main four I's) of the transformational leadership style.

***I- Idealised Influence:*** Idealised influence can be referred to as the charisma exhibited by transformational leaders in influencing followers' ideology, ideas, and beliefs beyond their general life issues (Bass, 1999), which helps them become role models. Antonakis (2012) asserts that 'charisma' is the emotional element of leadership and has been a crucial element of effective leadership. Furthermore, leaders with this attribute can motivate and stimulate employees through their behaviours to elevate individual performances, which leads to attaining organisational objectives. Idealised influence can be expressed in (I) attributes and (II) behaviours (Bass and Avolio, 2008), where idealised attributes denote receiving trust and respect from followers, while idealised behaviour refers to excellent behaviour being exhibited by leaders and sacrificing their own needs for others (Moss & Ritossam, 2007).

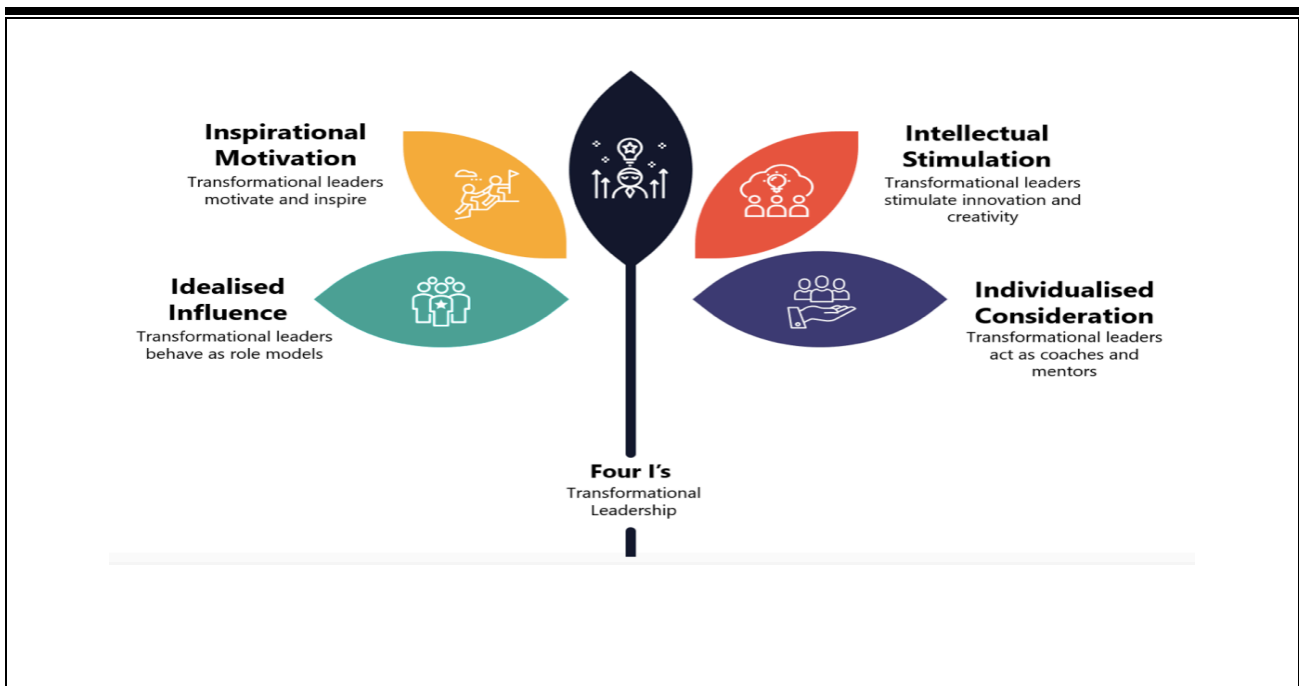
***II- Inspirational Motivation:*** Inspirational motivation refers to the degree to which leaders can inspire and motivate their followers or employees through the shared vision and goals. Transformational leaders inspire their employees by becoming role models and establishing

examples through communicating their hopes and expectations, effectively sharing their vision, mission, symbols, images, and emotional appeals to their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

**III- Intellectual Stimulation:** Intellectual stimulation refers to leaders' efforts to consider followers' ideas, question their expectations, examine those ideas, and take some risks in the decision-making process. By intellectually stimulating employees and followers, leaders trigger the employees' preferences and interests by considering their values, organisation, and leader (Northouse, 2012). Through intellectual stimulation, leaders promote creativity and innovation, encourage employees to question their assumptions and beliefs, and address existing problems creatively (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

**IV- Individualised Consideration:** Individualised consideration refers to fostering an environment that contemplates followers' individual or personal needs and requirements. Transformational leaders consider individual differences, give personal attention to individual followers, and anticipate their concerns at the highest level (Avolio *et al.*, 1988).

Figure 3 1: The four I's of the Transformational Leadership Style (Bass *et al.*, 1985; Beck, 2020)



Leaders build and develop their teams through effective communication, regular feedback, coaching and mentoring. After distinguishing the individual requirements, leaders help and guide employees to realise individual and organisational goals. Transformational leaders respect individual differences and consider individual employees to be team members by recognising and appreciating their share and role as group members (Avoli & Bass; 1995, P. 202). As a result, this leads employees to do better and



perform well in achieving challenging jobs. Table 3.6 summarises the transformational leadership style and behaviours.

Table 3.6: Transformational Leadership Styles and Behaviours (Source: Ju, 2018)

Transformational Leadership Dimensions	Leader Behaviour	Researchers
<p><b>1) Idealised Influence (A-Idealised Attribute B-Idealised Behaviours)</b></p> <p>Living one's ideals, Respect, trust, and faith</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Talk about their most important values and beliefs</li> <li>- Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose</li> <li>- Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions</li> <li>- Champion exciting new possibilities</li> <li>- Talk about the importance of trusting each other</li> <li>- Instil pride in others for being associated with them</li> <li>- Go beyond their self-interests for the good of the group</li> <li>- Act in ways that build others' respect</li> <li>- Display a sense of power and competence</li> <li>- Make personal sacrifices for others' benefit</li> <li>- Reassure others that obstacles will be overcome</li> </ul>	<p>Bass, 1985, 1997; Yukl, 1989; Bass &amp; Riggio, 2006, 2012; Masa'deh, Obeidat &amp; Tarhini, 2016; Rowold &amp; Heinitz, 2007; Wu, 2010; Judge &amp; Piccolo, 2004; Wang, 2014; Moss &amp; Ritossam, 2007.</p>
<p><b>2) Inspirational Motivation:</b></p> <p>Inspiring others</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Talk optimistically about the future</li> <li>- Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished</li> <li>- Articulate a compelling vision of the future</li> <li>- Express confidence that goals will be achieved</li> <li>- Provide an exciting image of what is essential to consider</li> <li>- Take a stand on controversial issues</li> </ul>	<p>Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1989; Bass &amp; Riggio, 2006, 2012; Masa'deh, Obeidat &amp; Tarhini, 2016; Levine, Muenchen &amp; Brooks, 2010; McCleskey, 2014; Ryan &amp; Tipu, 2013; Wang, 2014.</p>
<p><b>3) Intellectual Stimulation:</b></p> <p>Stimulating others</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate</li> <li>- Seek differing perspectives when solving problems</li> <li>- Get others to look at problems from many different angles</li> <li>- Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments</li> <li>- Encourage non-traditional thinking to deal with traditional problems</li> <li>- Encourage rethinking those ideas which have never been questioned before</li> </ul>	<p>Bass, 1985, 1997; Yukl, 1989; Bass &amp; Riggio, 2006, 2012; Masa'deh, Obeidat &amp; Tarhini, 2016; Nikezic, Doljanica &amp; Bataveljic, 2013; Levine, Muenchen &amp; Brooks, 2010; Rowold &amp; Heinitz, 2007; Wu, 2010; Moss &amp; Ritossam, 2007.</p>
<p><b>4) Individualised Consideration:</b></p> <p>Coaching and development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Spend time teaching and coaching</li> <li>- Treat others as individuals rather than just as members of the group</li> <li>- Consider individuals as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations to others</li> <li>- Help others to develop their strengths</li> <li>- Listen attentively to others' concerns</li> <li>- Promote self-development</li> </ul>	<p>Bass, 1985, 1997; Yukl, 1989; Bass &amp; Riggio, 2006, 2012; Masa'deh, Obeidat &amp; Tarhini, 2016; Ryan &amp; Tipu, 2013; Wang, 2014; McCleskey, 2014.</p>

### **3.5 Comparison between Transformational and Transactional Leadership**

The transactional and transformational leadership styles are crucial to organisational performance; however, their effectiveness depends on the situation. Burns (1978) believes that these two leadership styles represent opposite ends of a spectrum. Burns (1978) articulates that transactional leaders motivate their followers and employees to perform their jobs; however, transformational leaders predominantly focus on satisfying the employees' or followers' needs. Therefore, significant differences can be noted between the transactional and transformational leadership styles.

According to Covey (1992, as cited by Bolden, 2004, p.11), from an organisational or business perspective, transactional leadership is acknowledged as a traditional leadership model with its roots from the "bottom line"; however, transformational leadership concentrates on the "top-line" and offers a contrast between the two. One of the significant lines separating transactional leadership from transformational leadership is that transactional leadership gives total attention to the economy, leading to finding the best match to do the job.

According to Rosenberg (1996), transactional leaders are careful about who will do the job better. However, transformational leaders are more concerned about understanding the employees' desires, motives, and needs and fulfilling them to benefit from their maximum capacity (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Sashkin & Sashkin, 1990).

Transformational leaders transform organisations through organisational culture, norms, and ideals of employees and such changes; transformational leaders increase the follower's expectations, while transactional leaders focus on the current targets and try to reach them (Ross & Offerman, 1997).

Studies on the relationships between both leaders confirm the high degree of correspondence between the two. Therefore, Judge and Piccolo (2004) articulate the challenge of establishing the effect of each style separately. Transactional leaders and followers enter into an agreement that satisfies their mutual needs. Meanwhile, transformational leaders agree with their followers to establish a more productive atmosphere that helps benefit the whole organisation (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Table 3.7 below gives a comparison between transactional and transformational leadership.

Table 3.7: Comparison of Transactional and Transformational Leadership (Covey, 1992)

Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Builds on man's need to get a job done and make a living</li> <li>• Is preoccupied with power and position, politics and perks</li> <li>• Is mired in daily affairs</li> <li>• Is short-term and hard data orientated</li> <li>• Focuses on tactical issues</li> <li>• Relies on human relations to lubricate human interactions</li> <li>• Follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems</li> <li>• Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line, maximise efficiency, and guarantee short-term profits</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Builds on a man's need for meaning</li> <li>• Is preoccupied with purposes, values, morals, and ethics</li> <li>• Transcends daily affairs</li> <li>• Is orientated toward long-term goals without compromising human values and principles</li> <li>• Focuses more on missions and strategies</li> <li>• Releases human potential – identifying and developing new talent</li> <li>• Designs and redesigns jobs to make them meaningful and challenging</li> <li>• Aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce overarching values and goals</li> </ul>

Studies have acknowledged the importance of both leadership styles (transactional and transformational) based on situation. Transactional leadership has been accepted as an appropriate organisational model for organisations that have never moved to a situation where organisational transformation is not required to meet the challenges of global changes. However, in a time of change and turbulence, the transformational leadership style is more appropriate, where the goal of transformational leadership is to transform the organisation and its employees; their hearts and minds (Bass & Avoli 1994).

The literature on transactional and transformational leadership confirms that a leader can see both styles. In support of this view, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) declared that both transactional and transformational styles are interconnected, and the most outstanding result from leaderships can appear when both styles are used together. The empirical result produced by the study carried out by Avolio and Bass (2002) substantiated the effectiveness of combined leadership styles of transactional and transformational, which yield positive influences on performance. Many studies confirm that transformational leaders are more effective than transactional leaders (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Ozaralli, 2003). Therefore, this research intends to explore which leadership style is more successful in the resort islands of the Maldives and which style is more apparent among the managers in the resorts.

### **3.6 Attributes of Effective Leadership**

Since leadership has uncountable definitions and several scientifically proven styles, one of the most common questions related to leadership could be what makes leadership or the style effective? In answering this query, most people probably would declare that effectiveness depends on acceptable attributes or anticipated qualities, which leads to results. Research indicates the different anecdotal attributes of an effective leader in nature and the attributes derived from scientific research (Gandolfi & Stone, 2017). Though there is value in people's wisdom and their learned experiences in situations, individual behaviours and personalities, this paper will only look into the proven attributes of effective leadership through empirical and scientific research.

In searching for the characteristics of leadership effectiveness, Kouzes and Posner (2007) have spent over 30 years in global research, and they recommend five critical attributes of effective leadership. These attributes are (I) to model the way, (II) to inspire a shared vision, (III) to challenge the process, (IV) to enable others to act, and (V) to encourage the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The definitions of those attributes are listed below.

#### **I- Modelling the Way**

Modelling the way represents leaders taking the lead and going first. Transformational leaders develop and establish values and become role models to employees and followers, building loyalty and commitment and creating momentum. In modelling the way, leaders create a philosophy that acknowledges specific standards and criteria that the organisation could be measured, such as how individuals must be treated and how organisational objectives can be achieved to make the organisation exceptional and distinct (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).

#### **II- Inspiring the Shared Vision**

Inspiring a shared vision is communicating and sharing a compelling vision through symbols and other forms that explicitly portray the future they want. Any organisation needs to bring fellow employees together to build a shared understanding and nurture their commitment to developing and harnessing a future they would want to craft. Employees are more committed to putting their best effort into achieving organisational goals when their vision is generated collectively (Quin *et al.*, 2015; Kouzes & Posner, 1995, 2002).

### III- Challenging the Process

Challenging the existing processes in the organisational setting is one of the significant characteristics of transformational leaders, and it is the ‘way of life’ for such leaders. They challenge the system and try to change the existing processes by generating novel ideas or acknowledging innovative ideas from others to move for a new product or adopt a new service and advance the overall processes in place. They take risks and face challenges that may test their capabilities and skills, despite acquiring modern and inventive techniques and systems to improve organisational efficiency (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).

### IV- Enabling Others to Act

Effective leaders encourage their followers and employees to achieve their maximum potential by allowing them to act and take the lead. Enabling others to act indicates involving organisational stakeholders or employees in planning and allowing them to participate in decision making. This cultivates trust and cooperation among employees and teams and lets them feel they are empowered (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).

### V- Encouraging the Heart

Encouraging the heart represents motivation and encouragement offered by the leaders to the employees in attaining organisational requirements. Employees habitually need motivation and inspiration from their leaders to achieve the determined targets of the organisation’s management. Effective leaders tend to hold considerably higher expectations of their employees and themselves. These expectations are matched with different forms of rewards and recognitions. Transformational leaders build their credibility on their dedication and evidence of achievements (Kouzes & Posner, 1995, 2002). Table 3.8 summarises effective leadership attributes.

Table 3.8: Summary of Effective Leadership Attributes

Attribute	Definitions	Researcher
Modelling the way	Denotes to the leader exhibiting the behaviours and performances that envisages to see from their followers	Brown & Posner, 2001
Inspiring a shared vision	Describes the mutual relationship between the follower and leader, clearly exhibiting the most values and morals of the organisation	Kelly, 2000
Challenging the process	Denotes asking questions to challenge the status quo and asks question such as, “ <i>Why do we do this?</i> ”	Galbreath & Rogers, 1999, p. 169)
Enabling others to act	Express the notion that the leader empowers followers, never imply dominant authority, and allow followers to be part of the decision-making process	Russell, 2001
Encouraging the heart	Describes the expression of sincere care and allowing opportunities to celebrate the accomplishments	Posner, 2015

The mentioned characteristics or qualities of effective leadership are assumed to be interactive and need the deliberate effort of the leader to be practical. However, the receptiveness of this idea depends on two main guiding principles; (a) everyone can establish a leadership relationship, and (b) leaders are ‘made and not born’ (Jeyaraj & Gandolfi, 2019, p. 3). This is because though some individuals are born with unique qualities that help to perform their leadership effectively, most people accept the practical reality of cultivating leadership skills and improving their leadership effectiveness through training and experience (Andersen, 2012). Such cultivation and improvement cannot be realistic without relationships. Therefore, leaders are required to open opportunities for the employees to engage at all levels of the organisation.

### **3.7 Leadership Styles in the Hotel Industry**

The leadership style in resorts and hotels is essential for such organisations’ performance and profitability. This includes significant elements that directly impact organisational performance, such as employee motivation, customer satisfaction, quality of service, and efficiency. Several researchers have pointed out the need to identify the effects of leadership styles on employee performance, especially employees who require direct relationships with customers such as receptionists, room boys, waiters, and guides (e.g., Solomon, 2019; Schuckert, 2018; Wu, 2006). Clark, Hartline, and Jones (2009) argue that the leadership style of hotel managers or leaders has a direct and strong influence on their employees’ behaviour in shaping their attitudes towards dealings with customers, their satisfaction and pleasure.

Since the hotel industry is considered labour intensive, organisational productivity and performance are expected to rely significantly on their workers. According to Kozak and Uca (2008), most hospitality managers use a flexible management approach and change-and-human orientation to upsurge the organisation’s success rate. Such leaders and managers generally employ multiple leadership styles such as democratic, coaching, and participative approaches to establish a constructive relationship with their employees, progress their working climate, and increase performance. Consequently, the flexibility of the leaders in assuming different leadership styles for various situations and their ability to build and maintain decent relationships with their workers are critical to effectively leading hospitality organisations (Kozak & Uca, 2008; El Masry, Kattara & Demerdash, 2004).

The literature on hospitality leaders has endeavoured to identify the personality traits of influential hospitality leaders (Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012; Whitelaw & Morda, 2004). Bond (1998) studied hospitality leaders’ leadership styles or approaches. She described two types of leaders familiar with

the hospitality industry: “Those in the hotel business and those in the business of hotels” (Bond, 1998, p. 1104). She argues that leaders in the hotel business consider employees’ needs and deliver quality services to customers and guests. These leaders exhibit charismatic attributes; therefore, they can be symbolised as charismatic leaders. However, leaders acknowledged that ‘in the business of hotels’ can have excellent financial competencies (Bond, 1998, p. 1104). Therefore, to become successful in the hotel industry, leaders must have a pool of strong interpersonal and hotel operational skills with decent business knowledge. This implies that a good blend of transformational and transactional leadership skills must become a successful leader in the hotel industry.

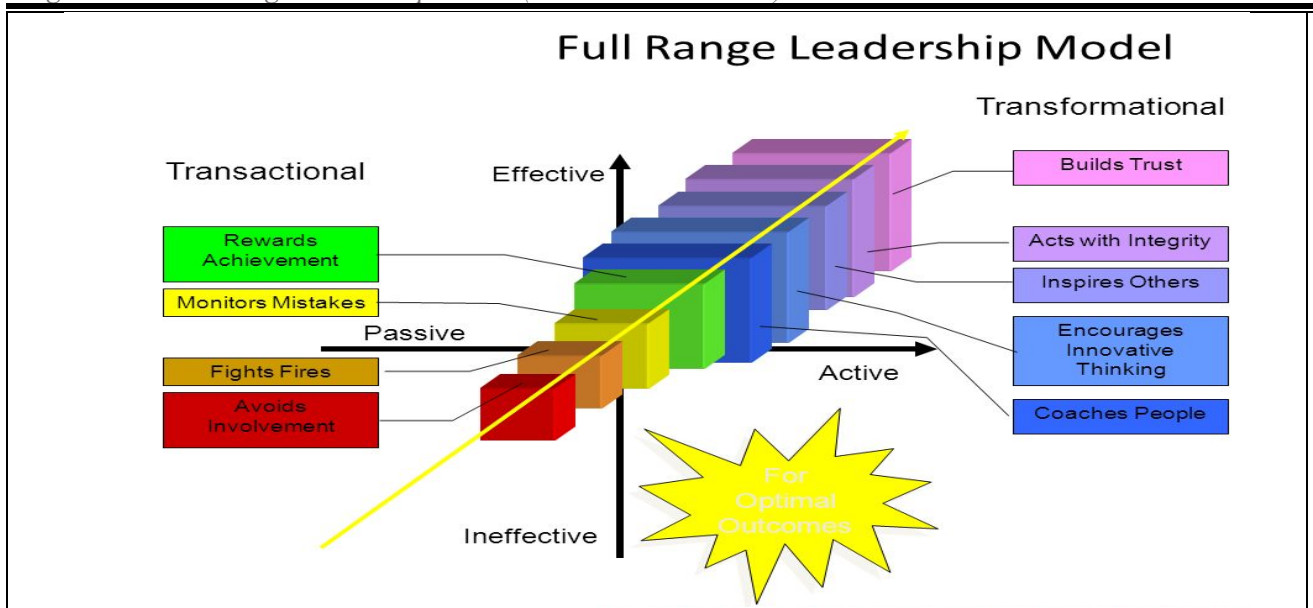
Leadership research on the hospitality industry shows that traditionally, leaders in the hotel industry are more inclined to practice a transactional leadership style (Hinkin & Tracey, 1994; Tracey & Hinkin, 1996). Bass (1985) explains the transactional leadership style to be an approach that clarifies the employees’ roles and guides them to realise predetermined objectives aligned with rewards. This leadership style rarely offers the opportunity to for employees to participate in decision making. This style can be appropriate for a stable environment; however, Hinkin and Tracey (1994) and Tracey and Hinkin (1996) argue that its continued use under extreme market competition is questionable.

Research suggests that in resorts and hotels where people-oriented businesses, the dependence of organisational managers on a transactional leadership style could be one reason for lower commitment and job dissatisfaction amongst employees (Patiar & Mia, 2009) and this might lead to poor customer service and decreased overall organisational performance (Lockwood & Jones, 1989; Zohar, 1994). This occurs because the transactional leadership style impedes employees’ performance of innovative and creative skills, ultimately blocking individual and organisational development (Boerner *et al.*, 2007). On the other hand, the transformational leadership style has been believed to effectively communicate the company’s vision to the employees and stimulate employees to achieve organisational goals and objectives. As a result, employees are encouraged to become more innovative and productive members of the organisation and dedicate their energy to the advantage of their company (Xenikou & Simosi, 2006; Boerner *et al.*, 2007).

Transformational and transactional leadership styles have been among the most dominant leadership styles in the tourism industry (Elshwesky *et al.*, 2022), and Khan (2019) argues that the transformational leadership approach is more appropriate for the tourism and hospitality industry due to the nature of the industry, which helps to dig into the problems of the organisation and the employees and help to find better solutions to fix them. Additionally, Khan (2019) contends that in a globalised world, national and organisational cultural issues have a significant influence on organisational performance; hospitality managers are required to deal with multicultural issues among employees;

therefore, a transformational and transactional leadership strategy could be a valuable tool to harmonise this problematic path. These two leadership styles are included in the model proposed by Bass and Avolio's (2004) Full Range Leadership (FRL) model.

Figure 3.2: Full Range Leadership Model (Bass & Avolio 2004)



Ispas (2010) argued that Bass and Avolio's (2004) 'Full Range Leadership' (FRL) model could be one of the most comprehensive models of leadership styles. This model portrays leadership styles established over the last several decades. It is constructed on transactional and transformational leadership theories and includes the characteristics and behaviours of transactional and transformational leadership styles. The FRL model (Figure 3.2) comprises nine variables representing three leadership styles: transactional, transformational, and passive/avoidant leadership and all these leadership styles.

The transformational leadership style inspires and motivates employees by sharing a fascinating vision, offering individualised support and empowering the employees. The variables are (1) idealised influence (attributed), (2) idealised influence (behavioural), (3) inspirational motivation, (4) intellectual stimulation, and (5) individual consideration. The transactional leadership style exchanges reward for the completion of designated tasks and punish unsatisfactory performance by followers. This leadership relates to three behaviours, including (1) contingent reward, (2) management-by-exception (active) and (3) management-by-exception (passive). Laissez-faire generally implies a lack of leadership (Northouse, 2004), which is believed to be the most ineffective and inactive leadership (Avolio, 2011). Laissez-faire leaders try to avoid responsibilities and never consider the surroundings. They never put effort into motivating and satisfying employees and delay even the most critical



decisions. A laissez-faire leadership style negatively correlates with followers' performance and attitude (Bass, 1990).

Through the preceding brief conceptual elucidations, it is evident that leadership never applies to a single person; rather, it is a collective effort of many. The vital element of effective leadership is the bond and relationships developed between the leader and their followers. When referring to leadership effectiveness in the hotel industry, numerous considerations have to be regarded, such as employees' characteristics, needs and expectations, the nature of the establishments, managers' character, and the problem itself. Therefore, applying the most appropriate leadership style is crucial to allowing employees to be innovative, perform entrepreneurship behaviour, and increase hotel performance. As a result, this research will attempt to ascertain the leadership constituting most of the mentioned factors and considerations in the context of the resorts of the Maldives that best influence employees' intrapreneurship behaviour and overall organisational performance.

## **3.8 Intrapreneurship**

### **3.8.1 Definitions of the Concept**

Intrapreneurship is a concept that has been commonly described in association with entrepreneurship (North, 2015), and it is perhaps worthwhile to embark with the definition of the term. Scholars have defined *entrepreneurship* as taking the initiative to bring innovation into the business world by taking a certain degree of risk and employing the required capital in conducting business activities (Cadar & Badulescu, 2015; p. 658). According to Ramadani *et al.* (2014, p. 316), entrepreneurship is “the process of seeking innovative opportunities in uncertain and risky circumstances, combining effectively and efficiently the factors of production in order to achieve profitability and business growth”. Entrepreneurial activities can be instigated both at the organisational and individual levels (Farrukh, Ying & Mansori, 2016), and at the individual level most new ventures or entrepreneurial firms emerge, whereas in most cases, at the organisational level, business functions and intrapreneurial mechanism transform (Alam, Nasir, & Abdul Rehman, 2020).

Historically, entrepreneurship is acknowledged as the activities that reshape the business world by establishing new ventures or implementing new ideas in an existing business (Maier & Zenovia, 2011). This includes several streams (Brøndum, 2019) such as Intrapreneurship (Pinchot, 1985), Corporate Entrepreneurship (CE) (Burgelman, 1983; Kuratko *et al.*, 1990), Corporate Venturing (CV) (MacMillan *et al.*, 1986), Internal Corporate Venture (ICV) (Zahra, 1991; Burgelman, 1984). Among these terminologies, intrapreneurship and corporate entrepreneurship are the most used two concepts,

and indeed are used interchangeably. Blanka (2018) described intrapreneurship as following the employees' autonomous initiatives (generally bottom-up approach for innovation); conversely, corporate entrepreneurship is enrooted from the management to the employee (top-down approach) to encourage organisational innovativeness and implement new and innovative ideas in transforming the organisation. Both corporate entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship have been examined chiefly at the organisational level (Lau *et al.*, 2012; Blanka, 2018). Nevertheless, the concept of intrapreneurship is evolving, and scholars such as Birkemalm and Jansson (2018) and Deloitte (2015) suggest that it is the employment of a solution for an existing problem in the business or start of a new initiative in established organisations and business entities. Due to the growing attention of research on intrapreneurship, there is no consensus on the definition of the concept in the literature; however, several definitions based on the intense competition among businesses are seen.

The concept of '*intrapreneurship*' was first coined by Pinchot and Pinchot III (1978), who originally defined it as the person who takes the responsibility and the risk of transforming a business idea into a reality within an established organisation (Pinchot, 1985, p.15). Slamti (2020) defined intrapreneurship as applying entrepreneurial characteristics, practices and values within existing businesses. Conversely, Zahra (1991) described intrapreneurship as a process that helps achieve organisational renewal by generating new jobs to accelerate business competitiveness and firm profitability.

On the other hand, Antoncic and Hisrich (2001) argue that intrapreneurship is not only a process; instead, it is an extension and ongoing effort for innovation within a company regardless of the business size, such as the introduction of new technologies, promoting new services in the organisation, embedding innovative technologies, establishing management techniques, and taking a competitive position for the business. Meanwhile, they contend that intrapreneurship could be described from various perspectives, such as:

- I- new enterprise established concerning existing services and products,
- II- implementing innovation into products and combining new ideas into organisational services, or instilling technology through research and development to transform business mechanisms,
- III- management initiatives to motivate employees to take a certain degree of risk, to initiate and search for new opportunities that might lend a competitive edge to the organisation,
- IV- evolution of the organisational self-renewal culture.

Atari and Prause (2019) argue that intrapreneurship can be referred to as organisational employees' initiatives to carry out something new by using intrapreneurs' creativity and innovation to change a

simple idea into a lucrative venture within a business setting; as a result, the intrapreneur is acknowledged as an ‘inside entrepreneur’ who respects the organisational goals and objectives. In defining the term ‘intrapreneur’, Kovalev (2015) contends that it is an individual who fosters the entrepreneurial spirit within established organisations, and they are the agents of innovation and transforms new ideas into practice. According to Eze *et al.* (2018), an *intrapreneur* is an individual who performs entrepreneurial behaviour within a business establishment and is perceived as a critical instrument that could be utilised in attaining organisational success and accelerating its performance. This specific behaviour is accredited by taking the lead within the organisation to pursue new initiatives and implement new business ideas. From such behaviours and performances, it can be believed that intrapreneurship helps establish an entrepreneurial culture by producing novel goods, introducing new services, and enhancing the processes in an organisation. Therefore, intrapreneurs can be the catalysts in organisations that generate new ideas and ensure they turn into commercially viable or profitable final products or services.

Employees’ intrapreneurship attitude and behaviour are shaped by organisational strategic vision, culture, business performance records, and sustainability (Kassa & Raju, 2014; Kuratko *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, an intrapreneurial environment within the organisation is essential to establish intrapreneurship among the employees. Supporting this notion, Lukes and Stephan (2017) argue that for the development of the organisation, intrapreneurial culture is instrumental in exploring the required talent and skills from the employees that motivate innovation and creativity. Several characteristics are evident from an entrepreneurial climate. According to Hisrich *et al.* (2017), encouraging employees to bring and test new ideas, acceptance of trial and error, in other words, failure is accepted by the system, accessibility and availability of organisational resources for employees, organisational system drives on cutting-edge technology, designing of organisational approaches to multi-discipline teamwork, fostering an environment of volunteerism, allowing long hours of work, establishing a proper reward system, and encouraging employee creativity by sponsorship and top management support, are significant attributes of intrapreneurship. Therefore, organisations put significant effort into establishing and aligning their strategies and policies to induct the mentioned characteristics to attain organisational competencies and competitiveness through intrapreneurship behaviours.

Intrapreneurship has been a topic of interest among practitioners, businesses, and academics since the 1980s; numerous studies have been carried out to examine this phenomenon (Kovalev, 2015), finding that entrepreneurship in organisations is a crucial ingredient for the existence of the business, allowing it to acquire organisational growth and success (Jarna & Kaisu, 2003). Some may question why such

attention has been attracted to intrapreneurship and the exploration of its significance. Responding to this question, Ağca and Kurt (2007) expounded on the benefit of intrapreneurship, stating that it strengthens and uplifts organisational skills; as a result, innovative skills that lead to competitive advantage for the organisation are acquired. Zahra (1991) additionally credits intrapreneurship and claims that it helps to explore opportunities for renewal of systems and employ innovation that improves organisational performance, while Thornberry (2001) acknowledges its role in eliminating organisational inflexibility to adjust to the changing environment and reluctance or inability to bring new changes due to the scale of the business. Apart from this, intrapreneurship helps explore other opportunities beyond the specified organisational boundaries to add additional value to the business and consolidate an organisational competitive foothold in the challenging business environment (Nielsen *et al.*, 1985).

The organisational context for intrapreneurship can be any size and type of organisation; it can be a public sector or even charitable organisation and range from a small company to a sizable multinational conglomerate (Kearney *et al.*, 2008; Stull & Singh 2005). Due to the context that intrapreneurship is an established or ongoing organisation, several constraints are attached to the intrapreneurship process that are usually not discovered in most autonomous start-ups. Based on the size and type of the company, several issues can emerge. For instance, issues relating to the level of risk assumption, acknowledgement of success and a rewards process, access to required funding and resources, and the degree of autonomy and freedom given to employees are likely to exist (Hisrich 1990; Morris & Sexton 1996; Pinchot 1985).

Intrapreneurs in organisations are individuals who can explore value-added opportunities for the organisation and use organisational resources to satisfy new organisational needs. Therefore, intrapreneurs could be at any level of the organisation, including Managing Directors, CEOs, middle managers, first-line managers, and employees at the lowest ranks in the organisation (Ma, Liu & Karri, 2016). In intrapreneurship, all activities are designed and executed by the managers or employees; however, the reward of the success, or the blame for failure, never goes to the intrapreneur; instead, the organisation takes the reward and the risk (Hartmann, 2018). This is because the organisation funds those activities or utilised resources from the organisation; as a result, the intrapreneur takes on less risk than the organisation, and thus they never have ownership of the activity.

There are several advantages attached to intrapreneurship, such as employees being motivated and carrying a greater sense of belonging to the organisation, getting easy access to organisational finance and other resources, and receiving help and guidance from their co-workers. Organisations with a broader technological base can offer more support to intrapreneurs by providing access to data and

information. This is believed as one of the more suitable ways of attracting and retaining the best human capital within the organisation (Slamti, 2020). On the other hand, there are some drawbacks such as the nonexistence of prompt and equal recognition, discredit for failure, and a lack of rewards and incentives. Mostly, top managers or owners get the credit and recognition for any success, rather than the intrapreneur (Felicio, Ricardo & Caldeirinha, 2012).

Table 3.9 gives an overview of previously expressed definitions for the concept of intrapreneurship.

*Table 3.9: Definitions of Intrapreneurship*

<b>Researcher</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Vesper (1984, p. 295)	Intrapreneurship is “employee initiative from below in the organisation to undertake something new; an innovation which is created by subordinates without being asked, expected, or perhaps even given permission by higher management to do so”.
Pinchot (1985, p. ix)	“Intrapreneurs are ... “those who take hands-on responsibility for creating innovation of any kind within an organisation; they may be the creators or inventors but are always the dreamers who figure out how to turn an idea into a profitable reality”.
Stevenson & Jarillo (1990)	Intrapreneurship refers to “a process by which individuals ... inside organisations pursue opportunities independent of the resources they currently control”.
Antoncic & Hisrich (2003, p. 7)	Intrapreneurship can be defined as “entrepreneurship in existing organisations”. The focus has shifted from new business ventures by existing organisations to the individual inside an organisation.
Antoncic (2007, p. 310)	Intrapreneurship can be defined as “entrepreneurship within an existing organisation”, which manifests itself in the pursuit of opportunities with no consideration of available resources.
Blunderll & Lockett (2011, p. 8)	Intrapreneurship is “entrepreneurial activity that takes place in existing organisations in the commercial, public and voluntary sectors... this takes the form of semi-autonomous group...operating within the overarching structure of the parent organisation”.
Scarborough & Cornwall (2015, p. 118)	Intrapreneurs are “entrepreneurs who operate within the framework of an existing business (and) sometimes can transform a company’s future or advance its competitive edge”.

### **3.8.2 Difference between Entrepreneurship and Intrapreneurship**

Discussions about the definitions of intrapreneurship in the previous section have emphasised significant differences between intrapreneurship and entrepreneurship. The literature has noted several other distinctions between these two concepts, as discussed below.

The most substantial distinction between these two concepts is the premise that innovation occurs. Entrepreneurs create new businesses independently with their resources, while intrapreneurs create new ventures or develop new business ideas within an established organisation using organisational

resources (Parker, 2011) where a culture, own policies, and bureaucratic structure are evident. In situations where nascent intrapreneurs get the opportunity to develop, they rely heavily on the support of their seniors in the organisation, especially in bureaucratic organisations; intrapreneurs struggle to implement their initiatives as there are no lines of command between the intrapreneurs and their senior managers in established organisations. When the new idea or the new initiative by the intrapreneur is not in line with the organisational desires or the leader's expectations, intrapreneurs may have to put their careers at risk. However, entrepreneurs can move on with their dreams of innovations independently; they never need to persuade management or get permission for their implementations from anyone else; as a result, entrepreneurs can be their own bosses.

The ultimate motive of the entrepreneur is to be independent and create the opportunity to earn money; however, intrapreneurs' primary objective is to seek organisational recognition and rewards (Hisrich, 1990). In the case of intrapreneurship, even though the innovative idea is executed, or the employees implement the entrepreneurial activity, the reward is often conferred to the organisation or the managers in higher levels, and the organisation takes risks (Hartmann, 2018). It is because the resources are from the organisation; as a result, the intrapreneur takes on less risk as they only take responsibility for managing it, but never own it. This allows the intrapreneur to take more risky decisions at the organisation's expense regarding labour, time, and capital. Nevertheless, entrepreneurs rely on their funds and resources to yield rewards in abundance when the initiative turns into success. If it fails, the entrepreneur bears the total loss, and there is no guarantee that it will be successful.

The hierarchical conflicts in large organisations are a critical feature in distinguishing intrapreneurship and entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs usually take all the blame for their errors and deal with their failures; however, intrapreneurs conceal risky projects from their superiors until they come to a more stable condition or are free of risk (Hisrich, 1990). These encounters might generate significant problems and hinder the motivation of intrapreneurs as they are obliged to gain prior permission from their managers or superiors. As a result, this could make the intrapreneur feel insecure and uncertain of their environment, leading to unhealthy stress and work overload reactions.

Another important aspect is networking. This could be a matter of concern for most nascent entrepreneurs. Since intrapreneurs are part of established organisations, they can utilise various networking openings through their organisational reputation. However, in the case of entrepreneurs, it is pretty difficult for them to build networks if they never gain the opportunity to establish such a support list. Building from scratch can be an extremely time consuming and difficult job.

There are many advantages to intrapreneurship due to the accessibility of resources, consultation and advice; as a result, they are more motivated to keep on track. If the organisation has an extensive technology base, it will be a significant advantage for the intrapreneurs. However, lack of speedy acknowledgement and reward for the intrapreneurs' contribution hinders the spirit of the intrapreneur. Other advantages of entrepreneurs are that they have complete freedom and personal satisfaction from the new initiative, enjoy complete authority to make the decisions and possess the financial and other rewards. However, the entrepreneur bears all the financial losses, and the competition that needs to be entered could be highly challenging without guaranteeing success (Bruyat & Julien, 2001). Some of the differences between the two are summarised in Table 3.10.

Table-3.10: The Features of Entrepreneurship and Intrapreneurship (Source: Szerb, 2003)

Descriptions	Entrepreneur	Intrapreneur
Basic Role	To create something new and/or to make the business grow	To launch new business in an existing organisation
Basic Goal	Own profit maximisation	Profit maximisation, other goals of the company should also be considered
Nature of Risk and Responsibility	Takes own risk, bears all consequences	The risk lies on the owner of the company, responsibility is limited
Ownership and Control of Resources	Owens or rents and controls all the resources necessary for the business	Does not own the resources for the business just uses them, partial control
Connection within the Organisation/Network	Frequently informal and vague, authority-based	Authority based, formal, largely independent from other organisational units
Personal Attributes	An individual person works alone	A team person, works in a small group within a large company
Entrepreneurial and Business Skills Possession	Should possess all entrepreneurial and business skills	Possesses basically entrepreneurial skills, should be able to fight for resources within the company

### 3.8.3 Intrapreneurship Traits and Significance

Intrapreneurship is crucial for any creative organisation that wants to sustain itself in this competitive environment. In today's world, the competition lies in creativity, innovation, and speed. One of the essential elements for these competitive potencies in established organisations is motivated intrapreneurs who are passionate about generating new ideas and implementing them. They can see opportunities that are not easily recognisable to their subordinates or ordinary people and put the effort to bring significant and tangible progress to their organisations. They are visionary and risk-takers. Significantly, they hold high ambitions for success and accomplishments (Ma, Liu & Karri, 2016).

Therefore, it is crucial to identify the personality traits that help one become an effective intrapreneur for its success.

According to Meyer *et al.* (2014), the term personality represents an individual's attitudes, constant motives, the trend of experiences and specific actions. The individual's personality is believed to have a significant effect on the factors associated with entrepreneurship, including entrepreneurial intention (Zhao *et al.*, 2005), opportunity seizing (Ardichvili *et al.*, 2003), and entrepreneurial success (Leutner *et al.*, 2014). It can be interpreted that there will be a similar connection between personality and intrapreneurship contingent on the connections established between personality and entrepreneurship (Woo, 2018).

A study conducted by Urbano, Alvarez and Turr (2013), employing data from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) including 36,325 people from 39 countries to evaluate the likelihood of becoming an intrapreneur, demonstrates that organisational capabilities and resources are the main elements that are needed in developing intrapreneurs. This involves entrepreneurial experiences, entrepreneurial aptitudes, and the capability to identify business opportunities, and these are the fundamental elements that influence employees' intrapreneurial behaviour.

The relationship between personality traits and entrepreneurship can be interpreted as the personality traits that will also affect intrapreneurship because intrapreneurs have almost similar personal characteristics (Mehta & Gupta, 2014). Obschonka & Stuetzer (2017) believe that broad individuals' personality traits, for example, the 'Big Five' personality traits, are associated with entrepreneurship. The 'Big Five' personality traits include neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Goldberg, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 2008), from which higher levels of extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness are linked with entrepreneurship (Obschonka & Stuetzer, 2017). The study conducted by Zhao *et al.* (2010) reveals that conscientiousness and openness are the two most significantly correlated with entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial performance.

The study conducted by North (2015) to explore the relationship between vital personal traits and intrapreneurship using 248 industrialists determined that neuroticism, extraversion, and openness from the big five personality traits are the most significant entrepreneurship traits. Later, Vries *et al.* (2016) conducted a study on intrapreneurship using the HEXACO model containing honesty-humility, emotionality, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness. The research confirmed that some of the Big five dimensions, such as extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness, are positively related to intrapreneurship. Table 3.11 reports the traits of intrapreneurship.



Table 3.11: Intrapreneurship Traits (source: Neessen et al. (2018)).

Personality traits/characteristics	Trait elements	Researchers
Extraversion	Energy, dominance, assertiveness, and ambition	Costa & McCrae, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000
Openness	Curious, creative, non-traditional, and adaptable to novel ideas	Costa & McCrae, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000
Conscientiousness	work motivation, achievement motivation, goal orientation, self-control, organising, and planning behaviour	Burtäverde <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Hurtz and Donovan, 2000
Skills / abilities	interpersonal skills, resilient, absorptive capacity, persistence, endurance, diverse thinking, problem-solving, teamwork skill	Abrell & Karjalainen 2017; Avkiran 2000; Garcia-Morales <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Kelley <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Lee & Kelley, 2008; Renko <i>et al.</i> , 2015
Perception of their own capabilities	self-efficacy, confidence	Abrell & Karjalainen 2017; Di Fabio, 2014; Di Fabio <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Hanson, 2017; Urbano <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2013
Personal knowledge	Education, training, domain knowledge	Lee and Kelley 2008; Urban and Wood 2017; Urbano and Turro 2013; Urbano <i>et al.</i> , 2013
Past experience	intrapreneurial experience, past experience, business-building experience	Davis 1999; Kelley <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Urbano <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2013

Through the literature on personality traits and intrapreneurship, conscientiousness, openness, and extraversion are acknowledged traits that significantly influence intrapreneurship. According to Zhao *et al.* (2010), *conscientiousness* is the leading agent for individual motivation. This has been characterised by different motivation features such as achievement, work, organisation, goal orientation, self-control, and planning behaviour (Burtäverde *et al.*, 2017; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Therefore, individuals acknowledged as conscientious, motivated, and goal-oriented people are believed to be more effective intrapreneurs attracted to intrapreneurship jobs than traditional type jobs (Farrukh *et al.*, 2016; Sinha & Srivastava, 2013).

*Openness* indicates that an individual is non-traditional, curious, creative and open to accepting new ideas and adjusting the mindset to novelty (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). People who are high on this trait scale are willing to gain new experiences; however, people scoring low in this trait are reluctant to face new changes, are conservative, insist on remaining free of risk, and seem more comfortable with existing setups (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

*Extraversion* represents the individual's energy, dynamism, dominance, character and determination (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000). High in extroversion, they are positive and optimistic, motivated, and seek excitement (Burtäverde *et al.*, 2017). Such characters can inspire others

in engaging innovative and intrapreneurial exercises than individuals who prefer traditional jobs (Farrukh *et al.*, 2016; Sinha & Srivastava, 2013). Additionally, openness and extraversion have been acknowledged as two characteristics linked with risk propensity, often accepted as a crucial constituent for intrapreneurship (Sinha & Srivastava, 2013).

Businesses that survive in their respective industries are dependent on the innovation and transformations they bring to their products and services from time to time (Schiuma, Schettini & Santarsiero, 2021). These continued innovations and transformations are consistent on the level of intrapreneurship embraced in those organisations. Those intrapreneurs may not be identified with the phrase ‘intrapreneur’; however, they must have been recognised as either having the abilities or values or characteristics or behaviours common among effective intrapreneurs, who are risk-taking, open thinkers and who hold a strong work ethic. Nicolaidis and Kosta (2011, p. 1121) stated that intrapreneurship is a vital element in the organisations for “economic and organisational growth, success and competitiveness and can be considered a unique competitive advantage”. Therefore, some of the significances of intrapreneurship are highlighted below.

1- Intrapreneurship plays a vital role in organisational growth (Nicolaidis & Kosta, 2011). When economic recessions and downturns exist, organisations generally limit or stop their future investments. This is not because those organisations never desire to expand and grow their business; however, most organisations are not confident about how they would achieve this in such a situation. In such situations, intrapreneurs help address where the corporate culture supports entrepreneurship behaviours. Intrapreneurship creates an intrapreneurship mindset and structure required to support business growth in the organisation.

2- Intrapreneurs are one of the most critical elements in innovative organisations today (Elert & Stenkula, 2020), and are responsible for the aggressive growth and sustainability of the business through innovation, goods, services, and processes. In a challenging environment of innovation, organisations must constantly work on innovation and prove their innovative capabilities. These goals could be achieved by establishing an appropriate culture for innovations where competent people, appropriate resources, and a suitable environment are available for the required tasks.

3- Organisational leadership is one of the primary predictors for a successful entrepreneurial organisation (Do *et al.*, 2020; Azis & Amir, 2020). Intrapreneurship has been acknowledged as one of the suitable techniques in attracting and retaining entrepreneurial leaders in organisations. However, most organisations’ top managements never consider that their

existing employees are competent to carry out the organisational strategic business agenda. Generally, intrapreneurial leaders have different motives and inspirations; hence their preference of work environment is distinctive. Such distinctions support them as the perfect leaders to lead new ventures or initiatives (Nicolaidis & Kosta, 2011).

4- One of the most exciting and admirable elements of intrapreneurship is modelling the change. Intrapreneurial leaders have been accepted as the change agent for the change they desire to be manifested in their workplace. Change is one of the least understood phenomena in the majority of organisations for several reasons; hence, managing change in organisations is challenging. However, intrapreneurship has been acknowledged as an instrument to accelerate and successfully manage organisational changes (Nicolaidis & Kosta, 2011).

5- One factor that badly affects organisational efficiency is employees who have disengaged with their co-workers and peers. This leads to losing the organisation's productivity and finally slow down the company's progress and growth. Intrapreneurs are acknowledged as agents who create and establish contacts among the employees and engage them in challenging and meaningful workplace work. Intrapreneurs inspire their colleagues to try new things and engage in other exciting activities through their determination and passion. They help organisations grow by stretching employees' capabilities and talents and engaging in activities beneficial for the organisation (Nicolaidis & Kosta, 2011).

### **3.8.4 Dimensions of Intrapreneurship**

Intrapreneurship is not limited to individuals; instead, it is related to individuals and organisational levels (Krauss *et al.*, 2005; Wakkee *et al.*, 2008; Stull & Singh, 2005). Intrapreneurship at the organisational level is generally referred to as entrepreneurial orientation and encompasses three significant dimensions: risk-taking, innovativeness, and proactiveness (Bolton & Lane, 2012; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Covin & Slevin, 1991). Various other researchers have also agreed with this view and state that the concept of intrapreneurship could be described by innovation, proactiveness, and risk-taking (Fellnhofer *et al.*, 2016; Wiklund, 1999), and these are the core factors of entrepreneurial orientation (Ambad & Wahab (2016). However, other scholars have suggested additional constructs to determine intrapreneurial behaviour. For example, Razavi and Aziz (2017) substantiated 'networking', and Antoncic and Hisrich (2001) suggest 'new business venturing' and 'self-renewal' to be included in the list of dimensions of intrapreneurship. Scholars argue that dimensions of any variable can appear in diverse combinations or groupings, and the results of those

sub-dimensions can be very different (Lumpkin & Dess 2001; Covin *et al.*, 2006; Hughes & Morgan, 2007; Kraus *et al.*, 2018a).

Therefore, this research considers the propositions of Covin and Slevin (1989), Fellnhofer *et al.* (2016), and Wiklund, (1999) and assumes that intrapreneurship can be explained through the stated dimensions (I- risk-taking, II- innovativeness, and III- proactiveness) to acquire analogous effects in organisational performance.

**(I)- Risk-taking** refers to the willingness to engage in endeavours in which the result is uncertain. According to Miller (1983), risk-taking is to invest highly in projects where the outcome is unknown. The term 'risk taking' commonly reveals the interest of a company or an individual to embark on developing innovative or new products and refraining from replicating or imitating what the competitors are doing. Risk-taking involves bold actions by organisations or individuals, such as establishing a new business investing a massive amount of resources in ventures where the result is uncertain (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996). According to Lumpkin and Dess (1996), risks can be classified into those that are business, financial, and personal in nature. Business risks can be referred to as establishing new ventures by companies without any probability of success, and this risk is commonly related to companies that intend to explore new markets and/or acquire unproven or new technologies. Financial risk involves borrowing a large amount of money or committing substantial organisational resources for their expansions or growth, where the risk mainly depends on financial experts or advisors. Personal or individual risks can be defined as a person's decisions to follow a specific strategic direction or cross the organisational strategic borders and culture. These decisions may affect the entire organisation or significantly affect the individual's career and reputation.

**(II)- Innovativeness** is defined as creative and original thought, which leads to the experimentation with novel ideas to create organisational competitive advantage (Miller, 1983; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Covin & Miles, 1999). Innovativeness is the most fundamental element of the intrapreneurship concept, which can be described as the continuous innovation of a product, a service, a process, or a technique with attention to the creation and development of new technology (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001). Even though innovation differs according to the extent of its novelty or newness (Hage, 1980), it generally implies the interest of an organisation or an individual perception in revising and updating the old to a newer version, recognition of available openings, exploration of innovative ideas, and the introduction of new products and services (Subramaniam & Youdt, 2005). However, it represents an additional cost to the

organisation due to its serving markets or existing products and services (Kyriakopoulos *et al.*, 2016).

**(III)- Proactiveness** is referred to as the proactive introduction of new inventions into the market. Proactiveness denotes the organisation's capacity to take the initiative in manipulating the situation so as to benefit the organisation and shape the climate to better fit the business, attempting to keep the business ahead of the competition and produce new demands (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003). This involves actively meeting the competitive environment's demands rather than reacting to them (Urban, 2012). This can be elaborated as "the extent to which organisations attempt to lead rather than follow competitors in such key business areas as introducing new products or services, operating technologies and administrative techniques" (Covin & Slevin, 1986, p. 631). Organisations actively beat the competition as being proactive requires one to face the challenges of competitive aggressiveness and risk-taking (Fitzsimmons *et al.*, 2004).

### **3.8.5 Barriers and Enablers to Intrapreneurship**

In today's world, organisations struggle to discover the opportunities to be agile, innovative, and forward-thinking in order to remain competitive in the market. For centuries, innovation has happened, but today, the pace of innovation has been fast-tracked in organisations worldwide. Therefore, the need for these characteristics is considered essential to any organisation. Intrapreneurship has been identified as one of the critical sources that organisations require to develop innovative competencies to remain vigilant and competitive. Therefore, it is crucial to identify the barriers or challenges to intrapreneurship in organisations that are significant and indeed more prominent for organisational settings. Intrapreneurship barriers are commonly expressed as the different practices or factors obstructing the organisation's inventions.

Michalski (2006) and Covin and Miles (1999) advocate that understanding barriers to intrapreneurship should help organisational leaders overcome them, prepare for the consequences of these obstacles, and find other valuable opportunities that allow for the organisation's progress. According to Reuther, Borodzicz and Schumann (2018), several factors strongly influence intrapreneurship and can be barriers to intrapreneurship activities. This includes market situation (Skarmeas, Lisboa & Saridakis, 2016), employees' attitudes (Reuther *et al.*, 2017), their skills and creativity (de Jong & Wennekers, 2008; Pinchot, 1984), organisational goals and values (Baruah & Ward, 2014), the working environment in the organisation (Antoncic & Antoncic, 2011), organisational agility and rule-breaking tolerance (Antoncic, 2003; de Jong & Wennekers, 2008), management support (Alpkan *et al.*, 2010),

existing communication processes (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001) knowledge (Braunerhjelm, Ding & Thulin, 2017), and intangible assets of the organisation (Morse, 1986). These barriers fall into two broad categories, internal and external, and are detailed below.

### **3.8.5.1 Internal Barriers**

#### **I-Internal Resistance:**

Internal resistance refers to the resistance encountered by the organisation's management or employees. It generally strikes when the organisational leaders or employees completely ignore or challenge the concept of innovation, or otherwise somewhat oppose it. People are often afraid of change and are reluctant to face it. Many employees sometimes decline to change because they might have invested their time and energy into their ascribed jobs (Devarajan, Ramachandran & Ray, 2006). According to Moerdyk and Fone (1987), people may resist change due to their personal self-interest, or individual personality structure, or conviction of social psychology. Hill (2003) suggested another significant reason for reluctance to change, stating that people are concerned about their future and status, so if the future is uncertain, people will show resistance, presuming that the present relationships and power structures could be affected.

#### **II-Organisation Policies:**

Organisational policies can be the foundation of the culture that the organisation wants to develop within the organisation. Those policies, procedures and guidelines help shape the organisation towards the vision that its leaders create. According to Roberts (1968), there are policies and guidelines in some organisations which can be seen as obstacles or challenges to the cultivation of intrapreneurship, including bias against younger employees, to take up the responsibility of a new venture, less encouragement to be responsible for their independent actions, and the avoidance of providing sponsorships and required capital and other resources.

#### **III-Lack of Training:**

Appropriate training and skills are obligatory for any individual employee for better performance in their job and to take up the responsibilities assigned in their position. Likewise, intrapreneurs also require training to become successful as such in an organisation. Lack of practical training to become an intrapreneur is an obstacle that some workers encounter, mainly when opportunities are open for them to act as intrapreneurs. Zimmerman (2010) believes that potential employees can be trained in

corporate entrepreneurship processes, obstacles to undertaking intrapreneurship projects, training for creativity and opportunity creation or hunting, and how intrapreneurs can successfully take off and complete their initiatives. Non-entrepreneurs will make it difficult to effectively launch intrapreneurship initiatives or be involved in such activities and be driven to success unless they have entrepreneurial talent or are provided appropriate training (Fry, 1993). Therefore, lack of entrepreneurial training is a barrier to intrapreneurship.

#### **IV- Organisational Structure:**

Organisations follow different structures to operate effectively and accomplish their goals and objectives. However, some organisational structures are ineffective in carrying on certain activities because those structures never have flexibilities that require incorporation into those systems. For example, traditional bureaucratic structures are barriers to intrapreneurship because all orders are dictated from top to bottom and entail various formalities in organisational relationships and communications. However, entrepreneurship programmes within organisations are commonly constructed around bottom-up processes (Herbert & Brazeal, 1997). Consequently, companies miss unique opportunities due to sluggishness and the long decision paths involved in bureaucratic processes (Quinn, 1985).

Organisational inflexibility sometimes creates problems involving the budget processes that generally obstruct the realisation of innovations (Kuratko *et al.*, 1990). On the other hand, Fry (1987) suggests that flexible organisational settings allow diverse developmental departments and units of the company to share resources, which helps to save substantial costs. Therefore, the organisation's structure should minimise formalities in relationships and allow flexibility in dealings to run the intrapreneurship process in the organisation effectively.

#### **V- Organisational Culture:**

Organisational culture is an essential factor in fostering an intrapreneurship environment. According to Boksjo and Delin (1991), the root of organisational barriers can be the disparities in people's behaviour, attitudes, and styles from integral organisational culture. Employees' attitudes and behaviours within the organisation are influenced by their peers' and colleagues' perceptions and stances. Therefore, organisational culture has been recognised as a barrier to innovation and creativity. Meg and Roberts (1996, p.8) argue that culture is a solid influencer for organisations and employees because organisational cultures create fear among employees, which leads to barriers ('threat barrier',

‘risk barrier’, and ‘reluctance barrier’). For instance, an employee might be accused of the potential failure of an initiative they originated; thus, the employee will try to remain static or the same.

Quinn (1985) believes that employees with an entrepreneurial attitude and resilient initiative in big organisations are often perceived as troublemakers and not considered to be team players. In general, people are sceptical of changes that come to their environment as most such initiatives lead to ‘rocking the boat’; ultimately, others are forced to adapt to the new settings (de Jong & Wennekers, 2008).

#### **VI-Management Support:**

Management support is critical to generating new ideas and implementing creative projects. The issues faced by employees during the intrapreneurship process (from idea generation to execution of the project) in terms of problem solving and conflict resolution requires management support (Damanpour, 1991). The undesirable attitude and how management recognise intrapreneurship effort affect the level of their support for intrapreneurial activities; thus, this can sometimes act as a considerable barrier to entrepreneurship behaviour. Organisational management may have different views and perceptions on intrapreneurship efforts. According to Whitney (2018), intrapreneurs can sometimes be seen as a threat to some leaders or managers in the organisation; as a result, they could be restricted in terms of the necessary support, which adversely affects individual innovative and creative behaviour.

Many innovations and creative projects require management commitment in terms of delivering support in financial, technological, psychological, and other areas. However, the unavailability of any required resource can be assumed a barrier to intrapreneurship (Hoskisson, Hitt & Hill, 1993). Meanwhile, McDermott and O’Connor (2002) consider that organisational support may not be obtainable if the organisation anticipates supporting only low-risk initiatives and radical innovations.

#### **VII- Inadequate Rewards and Incentives:**

Though all the intrapreneurs cannot be motivated identically, organisations must have a clear and transparent system or programmes to incentivise intrapreneurship initiatives and behaviour. Lack of rewards and incentives for intrapreneurial efforts can hinder fostering an environment that encourages innovation and intrapreneurship among employees. According to McDermott and O’Connor (2002), some organisations are without a reward system for intrapreneurs; even employees distinguish rewards as a substantial motivational factor in discovering innovative ideas and performing intrapreneurship initiatives. This discourages employees’ initiative and participation in intrapreneurial activities, and is a barrier to developing and encouraging intrapreneurial activities.



### **3.8.5.2 External Barriers**

#### **I- Regulatory Barriers:**

Organisational growth, sustainability, and success are partially dependent on the legal framework of the environment, its alignment with a business orientation, and the regulatory structure's compatibility. Regulatory frameworks or regulations have been identified as barriers to encouraging innovations and intrapreneurship activities.

According to Michalski (2006), regulatory barriers comprise laws, government regulations, and procedures to evaluate innovations and creativity. If there have been specific regulations that directly or indirectly disturb or affect intrapreneurship activities, organisations will be hesitant to employ them. Furthermore, political dynamism plays a crucial role in stabilising the economy and business sector in some environments. Therefore, Michalski (2006) considers that political factors are another critical regulatory barrier, including currency stability, political steadiness, and legal restrictions. These factors significantly affect organisational judgements in employing intrapreneurship activities within the company.

#### **II-Market Forces:**

The growth and advancement of industries depend on the strength and weakness of the market forces, investment of innovations, and the markets' dynamism. Market forces are the economic factors that influence the demand, price, and supply of the product; therefore, Piatier (2005) defines *market forces* as market sales, industry structure, population demographics and barriers to entry. Organisational intentions about intrapreneurship activities are dependent on such factors, and their success relies mainly on market potency. If there is a weak industry structure and considerably high barriers to entry, the demand for intrapreneurship and innovativeness can be affected.

Morris and Lewis (1995) emphasised that environmental disturbance exists in different markets while studying intrapreneurship determinants. They researched three dimensions of the external environment, heterogeneity, dynamism, and hostility, which affect organisational innovations. Huse *et al.* (2005) consider that organisations functioning in heterogeneous environments are required to move aggressively in meeting high customer demands, which will significantly push the organisation to produce more and newer innovations. Therefore, different market forces and the hostility of the environment can obstruct their mission and entrepreneurship activities at a different level in the organisation. Huse *et al.* (2005) contemplated that such hostile factors can shrink the organisational profit margin due to the extensive pressure on realising radical innovation.

### III- Social Values and Norms:

Social values and the norms commonly practised by people significantly influence organisational innovations and their approaches linked with the socio-economic conditions and technological transformations. These changes can be essential elements to grow or hinder intrapreneurship in organisations. Therefore, intrapreneurs must understand their target markets' various cultural features and social norms to align their innovations for their customers' needs and bid greater customer satisfaction to benefit superior advantage over their opponents or competitors.

Huse *et al.* (2005) assert that organisations can attain their long-term competitiveness by acquiring market knowledge, understanding the behavioural changes that happen to their markets on a timely basis, and adjusting accordingly. Therefore, environmental volatility demands constant alertness by organisations on market demands and future requirements. Consequently, to eliminate these challenges, intrapreneurs must closely monitor the changes to their markets, understand market requirements, and accommodate future projections. Table 3.12 below summarises the barriers to intrapreneurship, with appropriate descriptions.

Table 3.12: Barriers to Intrapreneurship

Level	Barrier	Description	References
Internal	Internal Resistance	Unwillingness to engage in risky or unfamiliar initiatives	Devarajan, Ramachandran & Ray, 2006; Moerdyk & Fone, 1987; Hill, 2003; McDermott & O'Connor, 2002
	Organisation Policies	Policies hindering intrapreneurship activities	Roberts, 1968
	Lack of Training	Unavailability of training required for innovation and intrapreneurship	Zimmerman, 2010; Fry, 1993
	Organisational Structure	Organisational structure or institutionalisation opposing the agility of the organisation required for new opportunities	Herbert & Brazeal, 1997; Quinn, 1985; Kuratko <i>et al.</i> , 1990; Fry, 1987
	Organisational Culture	Organisational norms and traditions opposing intrapreneurship	Boksjo & Delin, 1991; Meg & Roberts, 1996; Quinn, 1985; de Jong & Wennekers, 2008
	Management Support	Lack of managers and supervisors' support to intrapreneurship behaviours	Damanpour, 1991; Hoskisson, Hitt & Hill, 1993
	Inadequate Rewards and Incentives	Unavailability of recognitions, rewards, and incentives for the applaudable initiatives	McDermott & O'Connor, 2002
External	Regulatory Barriers	Laws and regulations oppose specific initiatives	Michalski, 2006
	Market Forces	Market forces hinder inventions	Piatier, 2005; Morris & Lewis, 1995; Huse <i>et al.</i> , 2005
	Social Values and Norms	Social values influence and hinder new initiatives	Huse <i>et al.</i> , 2005

### **3.8.6 Intrapreneurship Enablers**

Intrapreneurship enablers are organisational requisites an effective intrapreneurial atmosphere to be established within the organisation for maximum utilisation of its innovation abilities. Intrapreneurship can be effectively nourished through its enablers, ensuring organisational position in the market and subsistence of the organisation's wellbeing. These enablers bear significant competitive advantages to the organisation, such as the production of innovative commodities, increasing the profit made by the organisation, establishing an innovation-oriented brand, and creating a loyal customer base through which the organisation can earn a more significant portion of its revenue (Almannaei, 2019, P. 24). Literature on the characteristics of intrapreneurial organisation shows several characteristics that enable intrapreneurship among the employees of an organisation, including vision, strategy, culture, structure, processes/systems, risk-taking, teamwork, employee involvement, reward system, autonomy, resources, competitiveness, and learning (Foba, 2007, p. 131). Among these, some of the more significant characteristics are discussed below.

#### **I- Culture for Innovation and Intrapreneurship Approach**

Organisational culture for innovation and its approach to intrapreneurship plays a significant role in encouraging employees to perform intrapreneurship behaviour. Kuratko *et al.* (1990) suggest that if organisational leadership encourages risk-takers, it will positively influence employees' intrapreneurship attitudes and behaviours. Meanwhile, a culture of innovation should be stimulated (de Jong & Wennekers, 2008). In such a climate, groups can promote and influence individuals to adjust their attitudes and behaviours to engage and perform intrapreneurship activities when required. Organisations with an intrapreneurial approach develop employees' capabilities and talents to establish and retain employees' commitment to the organisation, such as developing new products, services, and processes (Brigic & Umihanić, 2015).

Innovative organisations usually recognise their employees as being amongst the company's critical assets; therefore, they value their workers, anticipating high potential from them (Kanter, 1985). As a result, these companies invest heavily in their organisational cultures and their people, assuming it will pay off through commendable accomplishments. Such positive cultures are established through public acknowledgements, recognitions, and awards, leading to establishing a standard within the organisation and stimulating others.

## **II-Organisational Resource and Funding Support**

Organisational support in resources and funding is one of the most common enablers of organisations' realisation of intrapreneurship projects. Organisations extensively promote and engage in innovations, expect and reward achievements, and invest significantly in innovation projects as they expect results (Kanter, 1985). Intrapreneurs expect a system that allocates funding for innovation projects that can be made readily available on short notice and is flexible, and does not require a year of planning like organisational budgets. Resources and funding availability allows employees to be committed and occupied (de Jong & Wennekers, 2008; Fry, 1987).

Organisations that allow funds and resources for innovation not only motivate the existing employees or intrapreneurship mindsets but also attract external entrepreneurial talents to them. According to Kenney and Mujtaba (2007), entrepreneurial employees are more attracted by the innovative organisations and explore the organisations that facilitate funding and resources for innovation and creativity, and they prefer working with intrapreneurial organisations to a greater extent than traditional companies.

## **III- Management Support**

Employees' motivation for higher performance in the organisation partially relies on the bond and relationships between the manager and the employees. Besides, managers' and leaders' support help trigger intrapreneurship and is a strong motivator to make employees engage in such activities (de Jong & Wennekers, 2008). The managers' and superiors' eagerness to facilitate and guide entrepreneurial initiatives are critical enablers in fostering an entrepreneurial climate to realise employees' entrepreneurial ideas effectively. This can be done by supporting the ability to take calculated risks and bending rules that assist the effective implementation of intrapreneurship projects. Furthermore, intrapreneurship behaviour is more apparent if top managers have experience implementing innovations in the organisations and are ready to sponsor and guide potential projects (Kuratko *et al.*, 1990). According to Fry (1987), intrapreneurs will be discouraged if managers are not prepared to set aside the existing plans to grab or explore a new and meaningful opportunity.

## **IV-Team Composition**

The group composition is a powerful feature of the intrapreneurship climate, and the development of creative teams can be achieved through careful considerations. The group can be an effective tool if it

has been constructed with specific diversity in terms of their knowledge and experience to establish a collaborative and supportive team for pursuing new ideas and solutions (Amabile, 1998).

According to Judge *et al.* (1997), most innovative organisations strongly emphasise fitting the applicant into the group context during their recruitment process. All the team members must be enthusiastic in collaborating and supporting their colleagues, share excitement for their achievements, and team members appreciate the diversity in knowledge and experience. Establishing such a team can be a challenge for the management. One of the common faults in establishing a team is making it too homogenous, which can develop rapid solutions amid more minor disagreements; however, it never helps to increase the knowledge spectrum or expand the members' perspectives (Amabile, 1998). Furthermore, team leaders with unmatched skill-sets can hinder the team members' innovative capabilities and undermine the team's creativity (Amabile & Grysiewicz, 1987).

## **V- Autonomy and Creativity**

Organisations need active, creative mindsets to become successful in the competitive environment. Such creative employees are generally the intrapreneurs who initiate innovative projects, and demand for innovations happens to the organisation's products, services, or processes. Therefore, it is vital to allow a certain degree of freedom to display their creativity and benefit from it. Furthermore, the employees must be allowed to use their creativity to solve problems, mainly deciding on the process to be utilised, but not necessarily the outcome.

Organisations encouraging autonomy and freedom in their employees over their work process boosts the sense of ownership and intrinsic motivation, which upsurges employee creativity. Amabile (1998) states that the challenge for the leadership here is to communicate a clear goal and permit employees a certain degree of autonomy based on trust. In supporting this notion, Bailyn (1985) distinguished the role of autonomy on innovation performance as cited by Judge *et al.* (1997). Bailyn (1985) described autonomy in two levels: operational and strategic. Operational autonomy is expressed as having the authority to make one's own choices in solving a problem or completing a job task, which ultimately gives a feeling of accomplishment on the completion of the project and is a source of increasing entrepreneurial spirit. On the other hand, strategic autonomy is referred to as deciding the objective of a task or a job that is generally a responsibility of the management, which aligns it with the organisation's aim. According to Judge *et al.* (1997), the most innovative organisations emphasise operational autonomy but limit strategic autonomy to top management, ensuring a good balance in providing autonomy.

To become innovative, organisations need to synchronise employees’ creativity and organisational aims (Daft, 2005). This way, organisations can be cost-effective and reduce their expenditure on research and development because they benefit from having intrapreneurs within the company who are motivated to explore innovations, instead of having to make considerable investment in the training of R&D staff. Creative intrapreneurs can help the organisation become innovative and self-sustaining (Gursoy and Guven, 2016). Table 3.13 above summarises intrapreneurship enablers.

Table 3.13: Intrapreneurship Enablers

Enabler	Description
Culture for innovation and intrapreneurship approach	Organisational behaviour encouraging innovation and valuing human resources
Organisational Resource and Funding Support	Provision of sufficient funding and resources to intrapreneurship projects
Management Support	Leaders and supervisors actively stimulating innovation and helping the intrapreneur
Team Composition	Compiling teams with suitable candidates and diversity
Autonomy and Creativity	Freedom allowed in solving problems and mating creativity to the aim of the company

It is believed that the resort islands, where employees’ creativity is valued with resort objectives and seeded elements to foster an innovative culture within the organisation in order to perform better than resorts where intrapreneurship, is not encouraged. Therefore, this study will help to identify the resorts where intrapreneurship is encouraged and the extent to which intrapreneurship affects organisational performance.

### 3.9 Organisational Performance

#### 3.9.1 Definition of the Concept

Organisational performance is one of the most significant dependent variables examined concerning different management aspects (Richard *et al.*, 2008; Engstrom & McKelvie, 2016), which depicts its position compared to its competitors and reveals how well an organisation achieves its goals. Organisational performance is the core of the business because any business organisation or social enterprise’s primary goal is to amplify overall performance, which leads to a higher return on investment. Therefore, one of the critical questions concerning organisational performance is why some are highly successful in their performance, and others are not. Iravo *et al.* (2013) suggest that this difference is contingent on organisational performance drivers. These drivers can be different to organisations; however, the majority of companies can be evaluated through similar factors depending on the industry in which they compete.

According to Alrubaiee *et al.* (2015) and Tubigi and Alshawi (2015), organisational performance is a mirror that can exhibit the company's dominance and capacity in terms of their productivity, customers' satisfaction, market share, and the profit they produce from their work. In elaborating performance, Reinhart (2000, p. 1) states that 'performance is what people do to make an organisation work'.

Organisational performance can be described in terms of the organisational ability to achieve the organisational goals and targets concerning product quality, profits, market share, financial gain, and business survival through appropriate strategic renewals and actions (Koonts & Donnell 1993), and these are a few indicators of how successful an organisation is in fulfilling organisational objectives (Fakhrul *et al.*, 2018). Organisations must recognise the different aspects of the organisational performance to ensure the expected outcome and maintain the business strategies' anticipated progress; however, there is no consensus on what might comprise an appropriate instrument by which to measure organisational performance (Lusthaus *et al.*, 2002).

### **3.9.2 Dimensions of Organisational Performance**

Studies in management and organisational behaviour have extensively used the concept of organisational performance, and many researchers have focused on exploring the elements that influence performance outcomes; however, it is a 'loosely defined' variable (Rogers & Wright 1998, p. 6; March & Sutton 1997; Richard *et al.*, 2008).

According to Lusthaus *et al.* (2002), organisational performance can be expressed using components such as *effectiveness* (the capability of a company to achieve its objectives), *efficiency* (accuracy, the capability of an organisation to turn its resources/inputs into economic gain), *relevance* (the degree of flexibility to adjust an organisation to address the evolving environment and stakeholders), and *financial viability* (the strength and the capacity of the organisation to raise funds). Tangen (2003) stated that the metrics used to measure firm efficiency or effectiveness are implied to be organisational performance measures. However, Richard *et al.* (2008) described the concept based on three primary outcomes of the organisation, (I) financial performance (this includes profits, return on assets, etc.), (II) market performance of the product (this includes sales, market share, etc.), and (III) shareholder return (this includes total shareholder return and added economic value, etc.).

One of the common approaches in investigating the organisation's position and analysing the company's viability is the Balanced Scorecard (Kaplan & Norton, 1996). In this technique,

organisational performance is analysed from the financial and value creation perspectives. However, (Liang *et al.*, 2010; Ozsahin *et al.*, 2011) considers organisational performance in terms of organisational effectiveness through financial and operational progress. Odhiambo (2009) and (Waiganjo *et al.*, 2012) suggests three different approaches in assessing organisational performance, including goal approach (performance in terms of attainment of established identifiable goals), systems resource approach (performance in terms of securing limited and valued resources in its environment), process perspective (performance in terms of employee behaviour in the organisation).

Organisational performance is not limited only to financial outcomes or progress achieved through organisational finance; therefore, Chong (2008) argues that financial and non-financial measures can quantify organisational performance. Several scholars largely agree with this claim because non-financial measures can act as an incentive to organisational leaders in terms of advancing the long-term financial objectives of the organisation, and measures such as employee job satisfaction, employee turnover rate, customer satisfaction and referral rates, delivery time, and innovation can lead to organisational performance (Kaplan & Norton, 1996, 2001; Lynch & Cross, 1991; Otley, 1999; Van Veen-Dirks & Wijn, 2002). Meanwhile, Kaplan and Norton (2001) believe that non-financial measures are meaningful indicators of organisational financial performance. Conversely, Moers (2000) argues that financial measures mainly emphasise the advancement of short-term financial performances, which is 'backwards-looking'.

Traditionally, organisational performance has been associated with a company's accounting data or financials like net earnings and return on investments; however, scholars (Zulkiffli & Parera, 2011; Kaplan and Norton, 1996, 2001) argue that organisational performance should not be limited to financial performance indicators and a few non-financial aspects; instead, overall accomplishments must be considered. These authors emphasise the prominence of challenging business environments; therefore, they argue that the environment is critical to organisational leaders and scholars in terms of assessing organisational performance.

According to Zulkiffli and Parera (2011), many studies on SMEs' performance have used subjective measures in their investigations because most SMEs are reluctant to reveal their actual financial figures publicly. Dess and Robinson (1984) dispute the use of objective data since there is the possibility that managers manipulate it for the purposes of corporate and/or personal tax evasion; therefore, they claim that objective data never completely represents a firm's actual performance. In supporting this notion, Wall *et al.* (2004) affirmed that general subjective measures suggest explicit objective measures of the organisation; therefore, they advocate utilising subjective measures instead of objective measures in assessing firm performances. According to Kim (2006), when assessing the current organisational



condition, subjective measures are more relevant; besides, they help draw comparisons across the organisation's contexts, including the industry, business type, and economic conditions (Song *et al.*, 2005). Notably, it is more appropriate to use subjective measures where there is the potential for inaccurate financial records (Wall *et al.*, 2004).

In resorts and hotels, the organisational performance is highly dependent on the intangible products they offer, increased costs, exceeded labour charges and exposure of emergencies (Zech, 2016; Hurduzeu, 2015). Supporting this view, Law, Pearce and Woods (1995) argue that since tourism enterprises are highly labour intensive and customer-oriented, employing non-financial performance measures is essential. Therefore, Chen and Barnes (2006) defined *hotel performance* as converting inputs to outputs in accomplishing established organisational goals and objectives. In detailing this perception, Ćorluka, Mikić and Peronja (2017) state that *hotel performance* is the output or the attainment of quantifiable objectives and the practical approach of implementing predefined responsibilities. However, a consensus is not yet available as to the criteria for assessing hotel performance (Cameron & Quinn, 2006), and they claim that hospitality businesses' stakeholders favour their organisation's flexibility in effectiveness, efficiency, and adaptability. Efficient organisations usually show strong relationships among stakeholders, including management, different workgroups, and organisations in achieving organisational targets (Cohen & Bradford, 2005). Therefore, Scott and Davis (2007) believe that a firm's capability and flexibility to leverage its surroundings to attain internal and external resources could potentially represent appropriate hotel performance indicators, measured as the stock market.

Ivankovic, Jankovic and Persic (2010) consider that resorts or hotels operating in transitional economies or emergent economies are required to embrace strategies that are effectively challenging in terms of gaining competitive advantage over rivals in the industry. Therefore, due to the customers' and clients' constant demands, tourism organisations must implement strategic performance measurement programmes to analyse hotels' and resorts' performance. In the hospitality context, organisational performance considers how satisfactorily companies realise both non-financial and financial objectives. According to Alvarez *et al.* (2001) and Orfila-Sintes and Mattsson (2009), hotels' financial performance is referred to as "objective measures", including market share, average occupancy rate, and lodging index; however, "perceptual measures" like customer retention and reputation are hotels' non-financial measures (Wang *et al.*, 2012; Chen, Tsou & Huang, 2009). Service-oriented organisations like resorts and hotels should have high regard for non-financial measures because customers are enthusiastic about spending a premium for services that match their needs and preferences; as a result, the service provider can accordingly enhance their financial

performance (Moreau & Herd, 2010). Various scholars agree that increased customer value improves non-financial performance, including organisational reputation and loyalty (e.g., Carpenter & Moore, 2009; Allard *et al.*, 2009).

Based on the above literature, this study intends to examine the effects of effective leadership style on intrapreneurship and performance and adopts both objective and subjective performance measures to examine the resort hotels of the Maldives.

### **3.10 The Relationship between Leadership Style and Intrapreneurship**

Intrapreneurship has been acknowledged as a means to stimulate employees to engage in organisations' innovation through the products, services, processes, and technologies they belong to. This has been believed to be an effective way of retaining the best employees and attracting the most remarkable minds. Scholars have advocated encouraging intrapreneurship in organisations to ensure the survival and sustainability of organisations in hostile and highly competitive markets. Peter Drucker (1985, pp. 144), in his famous book 'Innovation and Entrepreneurship - The Practice of Entrepreneurship', states, "Today's businesses, especially the large ones, simply will not survive in this period of rapid change and innovation unless they acquire entrepreneurial competence". Therefore, entrepreneurship within organisations is crucial for sustainability, ensuring creativity and innovation among organisational employees and allowing them to contest in hostile markets.

The literature has established that the most critical factor for implementing entrepreneurship is leadership and management support (Hornsby *et al.*, 2009). Leaders' leadership style is crucial to moulding employees according to organisational requirements and shaping the culture of the organisation in line with its goals and objectives. Zhao and George (2003) suggested that the leader's approach or the leadership style applied by organisational leaders is critical to instigate an intrapreneurial mindset among employees and establish an entrepreneurial culture. According to Holt, Rutherford and Clohessy (2007), leaders' support can be expressed as their style applied in leading the innovative activities in the organisation, their proactive behaviours, the level of tolerance on risks and experimentations are some of the crucial factors to ensuring that entrepreneurship behaviours flourish among employees.

### **3.10.1 Transformational Leadership Style and Intrapreneurship**

Transformational leadership has been acknowledged as a leadership style that significantly improves organisational performance based on the ability to adapt to the surroundings and the firm characteristics that fit different situations. These characteristics inspire employees to adjust and adapt their behaviours to environmental changes (Su & Baird 2017). Furthermore, transformational leaders incite an innovative culture, where their employees are encouraged to bring new ideas by involving them in innovative business projects (Howell & Higgins, 1990; Jung *et al.*, 2003) and increasing individual and group motivation by changing perceptions about risks and developing innovative aptitudes. These leaders are perceived as an excellent source for building confidence in employees by allowing them to act independently and encouraging them to explore innovative ideas, leading to intrapreneurial behaviour among them.

Several research studies have established the relationship between leadership styles and intrapreneurship. The research conducted by Moriano *et al.* (2014) examines the influence of organisational leaders' leadership styles on employees' intrapreneurial behaviour and the mediating role of organisational identification using 186 employees from public and private organisations based in Spain. The result confirmed that transformational leadership positively impacts intrapreneurial employee behaviour; however, transactional leadership negatively influenced it. Farrukh, Lee, and Shahzad (2019) study also revealed the same result. They investigated the relationship among the leadership styles and employees' intrapreneurial behaviour and psychological empowerment as a mediator in higher educational institutes in Pakistan using 280 academic staff from Pakistani universities. The findings indicated the positive impact of transformational leadership and authentic leadership on intrapreneurship behaviour, while a negative association between transactional leadership and intrapreneurship behaviour was also found.

Nevertheless, the research carried out by Yang (2008) showed a different result. According to Yang's study, using 423 top-level managers from Taiwanese SMEs to examine the relationship between leadership styles, entrepreneurial orientation, and business performance show a positive but small correlation between transformational and transactional leadership styles and entrepreneurial orientation. However, transformational leadership has a significant positive correlation with innovation, proactiveness, and risk-taking. Moreover, transformational leadership has a stronger correlation with entrepreneurial orientation than transactional leadership style.

Razavi and Ab Aziz (2017) investigated the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation (EO) and intrapreneurial intentions using the transformational leadership style as a moderator. The study was conducted among knowledge workers in the Iranian R&D sector using 380 participants from 48 R&D centres falling into different industries in Iran. The result shows that transformational leadership has a significant and positive relationship with ‘innovativeness’, ‘proactiveness’, ‘risk-taking’, and ‘networking’ towards ‘intrapreneurial intention’. However, there is no relationship with the ‘need for achievement’ (NFA).

### **3.10.2 Transactional Leadership Style and Intrapreneurship**

Transactional leaders also allow employees to engage in intrapreneurial behaviours to a certain extent; however, this style is not a significant influencer in terms of instigating entrepreneurship among organisational employees. These leaders ensure the achievement of goals and objectives by creating clear structures and assigning roles. These leaders believe that employees are only motivated by the rewards they receive for their work and the results they produce. This leadership style closely monitors and punishes employees’ errors and failures to reach organisational expectancy. These attributes are significant to ensure consistency in the organisational status quo; however, they never help innovation or organisational change (Moriano *et al.*, 2011). Due to these factors, Jung (2001) argues that employees are motivated extrinsically, which may infuse creativity and innovation at a minimal level. Therefore, the best that these leaders can do is establish a policy that encourages employees to engage in innovative work by maintaining the employees’ focus on their routine jobs (Parker, 2011).

The study conducted by Cheng, Yang and Sheu (2014) indicates that transactional leadership positively correlates with middle-level managers’ creativity. Vaccaro *et al.* (2012) also show the role of transactional leadership on innovation, which indicates the role of transactional leaders’ influence on the implementation of management innovations. Chang *et al.* (2015) argue that the subfactor of contingent reward positively correlates with innovative behaviour. However, Öncer’s (2013) research showed the absence of relationships between transactional leadership and innovativeness or risk-taking dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation. The research conducted by Moriano *et al.* (2014), Farrukh, Lee, and Shahzad (2019), and Afsar *et al.* (2016) also indicates a negative association with transactional leadership and intrapreneurship.

Yang’s (2008) study, using top-level managers of Taiwanese SMEs to examine the relationship between leadership styles, entrepreneurial orientation and business performance, shows that the transactional leadership style was significantly positively correlated with innovation. Roslan (2010)

has also found that transactional leadership has a positive correlation with corporate entrepreneurship. Radwan and Radwan's (2020) study, using frontline hotel managers in four-star hotels in Cairo to investigate leadership styles' impact on employees' creativity and organisational commitment, shows that the transactional and autocratic leadership styles are commonly used in Cairo's hotel industry.

### **3.11 The Relationship between Leadership Style and Organisational Performance**

The primary objective of any organisation is to improve its performance and productivity to achieve its mission. Organisational performance is the consequence of the synergies created from the company's resources, processes, and time. Performance can be achieved through individual employees or groups according to the organisation's objectives, responsibilities, and the empowerment afforded to them by their leaders at specific times. In order to achieve these goals and objectives, organisations not only need to provide a leader with unique attributes, but a leader with an effective leadership style who is capable of understanding the requirements of the environments and circumstances and appropriately adopting their practices to the situation (Irmayani *et al.*, 2018; Tobari *et al.*, 2018). According to Mahdinezhad and Suandi (2013), leadership is the primary factor for any organisation's performance, and it has been recognised as a critical element that influences employee engagement and employee turnover (Reed, 2019).

Several investigations have established the influence of leadership style on employee performance, and the style that the leader applies can have a positive or a negative impact on the employee job performance and productivity (e.g., Wang *et al.*, 2011; Schaubroeck, Lam & Cha, 2007; İşcan, Ersarı & Naktiyok, 2014). Effective leadership behaviours, including leader-member relationships, effective communication and organisational support and commitment, ensure employee motivation, productivity, and retention, while ineffective leadership behaviours negatively affect employee performance and satisfaction, leading to the intention to leave the organisation. According to the research conducted by Kruse (2013), nearly 70% of workers' engagement with their organisation is based on the relationship with their supervisor or manager who motivates, leads, and directs them in attaining the departmental or organisational objectives.

Mangkunegara (2017) suggests that there are two different factors that leaders can improve employee's performance, namely the *ability factor* and the *motivation factor*. The ability factor describes the manager's ability to satisfy employee needs in terms of providing adequate training, guidance, and

support to perform the job effectively. Motivational factors refer to the leader's behaviour in building confidence among employees and providing a positive attitude towards the work situation.

Research shows that different leadership styles influence organisational performance or productivity in different habits (Ali & Ibrahim, 2014; Wall *et al.*, 2004). However, almost all agree that leaders are the primary factor for higher performance in organisations (Wang & Zhu, 2011). Also, leaders' performance has been established as an essential indicator for measuring organisational performance (Wall *et al.*, 2004).

### **3.11.1 Transformational Leadership Style and Organisational Performance**

Transformational has been extensively studied in different contexts and it has been established that the transformational leadership style can improve performance to a relatively higher level and there is a positive relationship between the transformational leadership approach and performance (Wang & Zhu 2011). Transformational leaders act as good examples for their employees due to the exemplary role they play in inspiring their followers through generating a resilient value-based system and organisational culture; as a result, employees enjoy working in a creative environment which significantly contributes to their overall productivity (Gyanchandani, 2017). Tabassi *et al.* (2017) agreed with this view and state that transformational leaders create a substantial impact on organisational performance through the work environment they develop, which embody characteristics such as strong interpersonal relationships, effective communications among members, support and help to team members, and responsibility and accountability among individual employees.

Research carried out by Wang *et al.* (2011), Patiar and Wang (2020), and Schaubroeck, Lam and Cha (2007) found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and performance at the organisational and team levels. İşcan, Ersarı and Naktiyok (2014) found a similar result, revealing that transformational leaders significantly affected SMEs' performance and innovativeness. Due to the compelling nature of current business trends, the literature is more favourable towards the application of the transformational leadership style in business settings. Supporting this notion, Dvir *et al.* (2002) believe that better results and more success can be expected from followers of transformational leaders compared to other leadership approaches. Zumitzavani and Udchachone (2014) asserted that the transformational leadership style positively affected organisational performance in Thailand's hospitality industry. The study carried out by Sofi and Devanadhen (2015) in the banking industry to investigate the effect of leadership style on organisational performance confirmed a positive relationship between the two variables.

Alsayyed *et al.* (2020) conducted a study at the University of Jordan examining the impact of transformational leadership on organisational performance using 280 employees. The study confirmed that transformational leadership has a significant impact on organisational performance. Waham, Abdul Rahman and Wan Mustaffa (2020) conducted a study using 387 academic staff from five different universities in Iraq to explore the influence of transformational leadership style on organisational performance, which established that this style has a notable effect on organisational performance. Purwanto *et al.* (2020) performed a study to explore company climate and transformational leadership on work performance and the mediating effect of innovative work behaviour, engaging 1199 employees from a service company in Indonesia. The result confirmed that transformational leadership and corporate culture positively and significantly affect work performance. Nagele and Awour (2018) researched the relationship between the transformational leadership style and the operational performance of Kenya's hospitality industry using 385 star-rated hotels in Nairobi. The result confirmed that all transformational leadership characteristics significantly and positively relate to hotels' performances.

These results ensure that the transformational leadership style has gained popularity throughout recent years. It has been acknowledged as an effective leadership style particularly because it considers the factors that help develop and motivate employees and address their individual needs. When employees perceive that their organisation appreciates their contributions and sustains their motivation, employees' performance will increase significantly, and organisational productivity and performance will also be increased.

### **3.11.2 Transactional Leadership Style and Organisational Performance**

Transactional leaders focus on achieving organisational objectives through rewards and punishments. Employees are rewarded or punished for the completion of the tasks they are assigned or punished for failing to achieve the required jobs or not meeting the required standards and perform MBEA behaviour in correcting mistakes; thus, leaders ensure that employees can contribute significantly to elevating organisational performance and meeting organisational objectives (Tosi, 1982).

Several research efforts have established a positive and significant relationship between transactional leadership and SMEs' performance (Ali & Ibrahim, 2014; Aziz *et al.*, 2013; Koech & Namusonge, 2012; Mgeni & Nayak, 2016). However, Voon *et al.* (2011) found a significant negative relationship between transactional leadership and performance.

Research on transactional leadership and organisational performance never confirm consistency in the outcome, and various pieces of research in the literature have established both negative and positive associations between those two variables. To effectively run their business, organisations need workers, or employees, and the majority of these individuals require tangible things to be motivated. When workers strive to realise the organisational objectives, the rewards received in exchange for their effort enhance their motivation to work further and successfully achieve company objectives. The literature confirms that organisations today comprise employees who desire tangible rewards in exchange for their contributions to a greater extent than emotional or psychological rewards. The research conducted by Amirul and Daud (2012) to study the relationship between transactional leadership and leadership outcomes using 325 SMEs in Malaysia confirmed that transactional leadership is positively related to organisational performance. This result is supported by Arham (2014), who investigated the relationship between transactional leadership and organisational performance in Malaysian SMEs in the manufacturing and service sector. It shows a positive relationship between those two variables.

The study carried out by Longe (2014) confirmed a positive influence of transactional leadership style on organisational performance. He argues that transactional leaders develop a sustainable environment with employees, and organisational capabilities are fully exploited. This leadership style allows employees to achieve tangible and intangible rewards while developing an ideal environment for employees to perform well. However, Sofi and Devanadhen (2015) quantified that transactional leadership style never directly influences organisational performance. They argue that the transactional leadership style never inspires innovation and creativity within an organisation's employees; thus, employees' performance never matches organisational expectations, though it can match leaders' expectations.

The research conducted by Khan and Adnan (2014) explored leadership styles on organisational performance in different businesses in Pakistan, which confirmed a lower but positive relationship between the transactional leadership style and organisational performance compared to the transformational leadership style. He argues that this is because the transactional leadership style emphasises task performance more than the company itself.



### **3.12 The Relationship between Intrapreneurship and Organisational Performance**

Theoretical and empirical studies have demonstrated the significant effect of intrapreneurship on organisational performance. Theoretically, intrapreneurship can be considered a substantial variable that positively impacts organisational performance because organisations that enjoy intrapreneurship capabilities have a competitive advantage over their rivals, who can see and predict the emerging opportunities in the market and obtain the most benefit from them. Istocescu (2003, as cited by Maier and Zenovia, 2011) argues that intrapreneurship is a mechanism that increases organisational economic and financial performance by employing a more effective utilisation of resources and occupying a more appropriate motivational system to inspire the organisation's workforce. Especially during turbulent and challenging economic satiations, intrapreneurship can be a factor that can allow the organisation to survive and can increase income for the company (Kanter, 1989). Several research efforts have established the relationship between intrapreneurship and performance; as a result, in the recent literature, this relationship has been considered one of the main topics of interest (Arshad *et al.*, 2014). Antoncic and Hisrich (2001) advocate that organisational performance can be acknowledged as the most significant effect of intrapreneurship, and Covin and Slevin (1991) contend that performance can be expressed, such as in the forms of growth and profitability.

Madzikova and Nani (2020) researched the influence of intrapreneurship on organisational performance and substantial growth of iron and steel manufacturing companies in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe, using 315 samples employing mixed methods. The result shows that intrapreneurship correlates with the organisational growth of iron and steel manufacturing companies in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe.

Past studies have, at the empirical level, shown a positive relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance, e.g., a longitudinal study has found that entrepreneurial orientation has a long-term effect on small businesses' growth and financial performance (Wiklund & Sheperd, 2003). Felício, Rodrigues and Caldeirinha (2012) considered the influence of intrapreneurship on organisational performance, employing 217 employees from medium-sized companies in Portugal. The result confirms the influence of intrapreneurship on organisational growth and performance. Antoncic and Antoncic (2011) researched the relationship between employee satisfaction, intrapreneurship and organisational growth using 149 companies in Slovenia, confirming the relationship between employee satisfaction, intrapreneurship, and organisational growth. Yang (2008) conducted a study using 423 top-level managers of Taiwanese SMEs to examine the effects of

leadership styles and entrepreneurial orientation on business performance. The result shows that entrepreneurial orientation has a significant correlation with organisational performance. The study by Loveday, Nongo and Aloh (2016) also supports this result, who examined the effect of intrapreneurship on organisational productivity among manufacturing organisations in North Central Nigeria using 165 respondents. The study established that intrapreneurship influences the organisational productivity of North Central Nigeria.

Consequently, this study intends to test whether these results apply to the context of the resorts in the Maldives and to further explore the influence of intrapreneurship on organisational performance using financial and non-financial measures of the resorts of the Maldives.

### **3.13 Research Gap**

The literature on various leadership approaches and styles has been extensively studied across different contexts; several studies (Kozak & Uca, 2008; El Masry, Kattara & Demerdash, 2004) have examined different aspects of leadership style on individual and organisational performance, organisational productivity, organisational development, employee motivation, entrepreneurship, employee job satisfaction, and many more. These studies have identified transformational and transactional leadership styles as the trend more than any other leadership style (Ahmad, Ambad, & Mohd, 2021; Elshwesky *et al.*, 2022; Khan, 2019).

The evidence regarding the effects or influences of different leadership styles on individual and organisational performance varies extensively; most literature on transformational and transactional leadership styles show a significant positive relationship with individual and organisational performance, while some studies sought to establish a negative correlation with these leadership styles and performance in different contexts (Ali & Ibrahim, 2014; Aziz *et al.*, 2013; Koech & Namusonge, 2012; Mgeni & Nayak, 2016; Voon *et al.*, 2011; Mekraz & Gundala, 2016).

As suggested in the reviewed literature, several studies have been conducted to establish the influence of leadership styles on organisational performance (e.g., Ali & Ibrahim, 2014; Aziz *et al.*, 2013; Koech & Namusonge, 2012; Mgeni & Nayak, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Schaubroeck, Lam & Cha, 2007). Nevertheless, limited studies have been found to determine the most effective leadership style among transformational and transactional leadership styles with regard to the intrapreneurship and organisational performance of island resorts in the Maldives. The studies carried out in the educational sector were the nearest studies that examined transformational and transactional leadership in the Maldives. For example, Ngang (2011) study sought to investigate the effect of transformational

leadership of primary school principals of the Maldives on school culture using 217 teachers from five primary schools. However, this study presents a conceptual gap since it examined the effect of transformational leadership on school culture but not the organisation's performance, and it investigated only public schools. Therefore, the current study will bridge this gap by examining the organisational performance of resort islands in the Maldives.

The limited studies in the Maldivian context regarding leadership present several gaps. Most such studies have been focused on the school environment, where the relationship between instructional leadership and school effectiveness has been explored. The school effectiveness of public schools is different from the business enterprises' performance as a dependent variable. Likewise, Ahmed (2016) examined the instructional leadership practices of selected principals in the Maldives. However, this study has a methodological limitation since it has employed only a qualitative approach and explored the public school environment and instructional leadership. Furthermore, this research has never used organisational performance as the dependent variable; therefore, it has a conceptual gap and never proves that instructional leadership is the most appropriate style for organisational performance. Hence, this study fills the conceptual and methodological gap by employing quantitative methods and examining the relationship between the transactional and transformational leadership styles with organisational performance in the private sector, especially the resort hotels in the Maldives.

Waheeda and Shaheeda (2018) examined leadership styles among academic leaders in Maldivian Higher Education Institutions (MHEI) using 13 academics from three MHEIs. The study revealed that affiliative and task-oriented leadership styles are the most prevalent among Maldivian Higher Education Institutions' (MHEI) academic leaders. However, this research has a conceptual and methodological gap since no empirical evidence proves the theory, and which is solely focused on public organisations. Thus, this study sought to fill this gap using the quantitative method and explore the most effective leadership style among transactional and transformational leadership styles on the organisational performance of resort hotels in the Maldives.

A study by Sadiq (2011) sought to investigate the Maldivian culture and its impact on the transformational leadership practices of individuals in the Maldives, where 204 samples from both public and private managers were employed. This research established a significant correlation between the national culture of Maldivians and transformational leadership practices, where Maldivians have been identified as low on power distance, high on individualism, moderate on masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation. However, even though the cultural dimensions are correlated with transformational leadership practices, this cannot be perceived as evidence to prove that transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style for all settings

in the Maldives. This contrasts with the research carried out by Waheeda and Shaheeda (2018). Thus, this research will bridge the conceptual and contextual gap by identifying the most effective leadership style among transformational and transactional leadership styles for organisational performance in the context of the resorts of the Maldives.

Piuchan and Prachansit (2019) carried out a study to assess two leading hotel operators' leadership characteristics and styles in Asia. This research employed a biographical research technique using secondary data where content analysis was employed to identify the selected leaders' leadership styles and critical characteristics. Though both leaders in this study have been identified as transformational leaders, this research has conceptual and methodological gaps. Organisational performance has never been used as the dependent variable; therefore, it never proves that their choice of leadership style is the most effective for performance in the resort settings, and it has no empirical evidence to confirm its findings. This research will bridge the conceptual, contextual, and methodological gap using the quantitative method and exploring the most effective leadership style for resort performance.

Yuping *et al.* (2019) researched the preferred leadership styles of leaders in four-star hotels in Johor Bahru (Malaysia) using a two-step cluster analysis including 190 samples from hotel employees. However, this study has conceptual limitations since organisational performance has never been used as the dependent variable; therefore, it never shows that transformational leadership is the most effective in terms of organisational performance. Furthermore, the conclusion was made based on employees' emotions or perceptions and has no empirical evidence to prove the effect of transformational leadership variables on organisational performance. Therefore, this research bridges the conceptual and contextual gap by exploring the most effective leadership style for resort performance.

Nazarian *et al.* (2019) explored which leadership styles among transformational and transactional leadership are the most effective for organisational effectiveness using 272 managers from 83 small- and medium-sized independent hotels in the Netherlands. The result shows neither transactional nor transformational leadership directly affects organisational effectiveness. This research has a conceptual, contextual, and methodological gap as the study context is the Netherlands and employed only medium- and small-sized hotels. The current research will fill the conceptual, contextual, and methodological gap by using resorts of all sizes in the Maldives and using organisational performance as the dependent variable.

Orchard, Ribiere and Achtzehn (2018) studied the factors influencing the environment for intrapreneurship in UK Technology SMEs. This study employed 162 employees from nine SMEs. The

study focused on exploring the leader's influence on the intrapreneurship environment but not the individual intrapreneurship behaviours and their effects. Therefore, the study has conceptual and contextual limitations. The current research will fill this gap by exploring effective leadership styles for individual intrapreneurship behaviour in the resorts of Maldives.

Nielsen *et al.* (2019) studied how leadership style and organisational structure characteristics influence employees' intentions to start entrepreneurial ventures, ideas, or projects within an organisational setting in Serbia. This research has used 208 employees from 19 Serbian companies. In this research, the variables for entrepreneurial intentions used are different from the intrapreneurship variables that need to be tested. Therefore, the current research will address the conceptual and contextual limitations by using the factors associated with intrapreneurship behaviour in the resorts of Maldives.

Further, Gerards, Wetten and Sambeek (2020) researched the relationship between the facets of New Ways of Working (NWW) and intrapreneurial behaviour while testing transformational leadership and co-worker social interaction as mediators. The research has used 254 samples from Dutch employees and applied the Preacher and Hayes' (Behav Res Methods, 2008) bootstrap method for multiple mediations. The result shows transformational leadership correlates with intrapreneurship in the Netherlands context; however, the conclusion cannot be generalised to a developing economy like the Maldives and the isolated island resort context. Moreover, this research presents a conceptual and contextual gap. Therefore, the current research will bridge this gap by identifying the effective leadership style for intrapreneurship and the mediating role of intrapreneurship in the relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance in the context of the resorts of the Maldives.

Anuranga (2015) examined the entrepreneurial orientation of a hotel in Sri Lanka. This research employed a qualitative method and investigated entrepreneurial orientation (at the organisational level) and entrepreneurship effects. Therefore, the study has conceptual, contextual, and methodological limitations. The current research will fill this space by exploring the level of intrapreneurship behaviour of individuals in the resorts of the Maldives using the quantitative method.

Agca, Topal and Kaya (2012) sought to explore the links between the external environment, intrapreneurship, and firm performance using 331 Turkish manufacturing firms. The research has a contextual and conceptual limitation as the research is to explore the relationship between external environmental factors and intrapreneurship and performance in manufacturing companies but not to seek the effective leadership style for intrapreneurship and performance. Thus, the current research will bridge the contextual and conceptual gap by studying effective leadership for intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the resort hotels of the Maldives.

Nazri, Aroosha and Omar (2016) studied the factors affecting youths' entrepreneurial intention: using 150 young people (18-20 years old) in the Maldives. The findings indicated enterprise education, perceived social norms, entrepreneurial motivations and innovativeness have a positive and significant relationship with entrepreneurial intention among the youth. The study never explores intrapreneurial behaviour exhibited by the youth; therefore, it has conceptual limitations. The current study will bridge the conceptual gap by studying intrapreneurship behaviour and its effects.

According to the reviewed studies, it is evident that the literature assessing the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles on organisational performance and intrapreneurship in resort hotels is unavailable. Therefore, these factors of generalisation of the effect of leadership style on firm performance and intrapreneurship, inadequate literature regarding particular industries, and the absence of knowledge on resort hotels encouraged the researcher to carry out this study and contribute to the body of knowledge. Thus, the current study attempts to develop a generalised framework combining existing theories and concepts to explore the effective leadership style among transformational and transactional leadership styles regarding improved organisational performance and employee intrapreneurship behaviours in tourist resorts in the context of SIDS like the Maldives.

Based on the findings in the literature, a summary of the research gap has been highlighted in Table: 3.14 below.

Table 3.14: Summary of Research Gap

Author & Year	Study Focus	Methodology	Findings/Results	Gap (Relevance to study)
Ngang (2011)	The effect of transformational leadership of primary school principals of the Maldives on school culture.	Pearson correlation and multiple regression using 217 teachers from five primary schools	A strong, positive correlation relationship between the overall transformational leadership and school culture.	This research solely explored public school environment, where the dependent variable is school culture but not school performance. The current study bridges this gap by examining the organisational performance of resort islands in the Maldives.
Yuping <i>et al.</i> (2019)	The preferred leadership styles of leaders in four-star hotels in Johor Bahru (Malaysia) and explored the preferred leadership style.	Full range leadership of Avolio and Bass (2001), using 190 samples from four-star hotel employees using two-step cluster analysis.	Employees from both clusters expressed preference for transformational leadership.	Organisational performance has never been used as the dependent variable, therefore it never shows that TFL is effective leadership for performance. The current study bridges the conceptual and contextual gap by investigating the most effective leadership style with regard to resort performance.

Piuchan and Prachansit (2019)	The leadership characteristics and styles of two leading hotel operators in Asia.	A biographical research technique using secondary data. Content analysis was employed to identify the leadership styles and key characteristics of the selected leaders.	Sonu Shivdasani, the founder of Soneva and Six Senses Resort and Spa, demonstrated a transformational leadership style while Mohan Singh Oberoi, the founder of Oberoi Group, exhibited transformational and charismatic leadership.	This research has conceptual and methodological gaps. Organisational performance has never been used as the dependent variable; thus, it never proves that their choice of leadership style is the most effective leadership style for performance. No empirical evidence is available in this research. The current study bridges the conceptual and methodological gap using the quantitative method and investigating the most effective leadership style for resort performance.
Ahmed (2016)	The instructional leadership practices of selected principals in the Maldives.	Qualitative methodology	The findings of this study revealed that principals practiced the six dimensions of the instructional leadership behaviours and patterns as highlighted in the conceptual framework.	The study solely explored public school environment and instructional leadership using the qualitative method. The current study fills the conceptual and methodological gap by employing the quantitative method and examining the relationship of transactional and transformational leadership style with organisational performance in the private sector, especially the resort hotels in the Maldives.
Waheeda and Shaheeda (2018)	The leadership styles among academic leaders in Maldivian Higher Education Institutions (HEI).	Qualitative approach using 13 academics from three HEIs.	The most prevalent leadership styles used were affiliative, task-oriented, laissez-faire, democratic and visionary leadership styles. Affiliative and task-oriented leadership styles were perceived to be the most prevalent. It was also perceived that task-oriented leadership was the most negative leadership style and laissez-faire leadership was surprisingly favoured due to its advantages in enhancing confidence and helping academics to empower themselves.	Empirical evidence is required to prove the theory. The study solely explored public school environment. The current study fills this gap by using quantitative method and exploring the most effective leadership style among the transactional and transformational leadership styles on intrapreneurship and organisational performance of resort hotels in the Maldives.
Sadiq (2011)	The Maldivian culture and its impact on transformational leadership practices of individuals in the Maldives.	Hofsted's five national cultural dimensions and Kuozes and Posner's transformational leadership model. 204 respondents from both public and private managerial	Significant correlation with national culture and transformational leadership practices.	Though our cultural dimensions are correlated with the transformational leadership practices, this never supports the idea that TFL is the most desired leadership style for all the settings in the Maldives. The current study bridges the conceptual and contextual gap

		positions were employed.		by identifying the most effective leadership style among transformational and transactional leadership style for intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the resort context of the Maldives.
Nazarian <i>et al.</i> (2019)	The relationship between transformational and transactional and effectiveness in the context of small- and medium-sized independent hotels and which leadership styles had the most positive effect on effectiveness.	272 valid questionnaires were collected from managers of 83 small and medium-sized independent hotels in the Netherlands by using selective and snowball sampling techniques.	In contrast to previous studies, neither transactional nor transformational leadership was found to have a direct effect on organisational effectiveness. Instead, the effect was through the intervening variables ability to acquire resources and reward mechanisms.	The variables of organisational effectiveness can be different from those of organisational performance. The current research fills the conceptual, contextual, and methodological gap by using the resorts in all the sizes in the Maldives, using organisational performance as the dependent variable.
Orchard, Ribiere and Achtzehn (2018)	Factors influencing the environment for intrapreneurship in the UK Technology SMEs.	Used Multivariate linear regression model employing 162 employees from nine SMEs.	The Leader/led relationship significantly influences 5 dimensions of the intrapreneurial environment; organisational boundaries, work discretion/autonomy, time availability, management support and rewards/reinforcement.	It explores the influence of the leader on intrapreneurship environmental but not the individual intrapreneurship behaviours and its effects. The current research fills the conceptual and contextual gap by exploring effective leadership styles for individual intrapreneurship behaviour in the resorts of Maldives.
Nielsen <i>et al.</i> (2019)	How leadership style and organisational structure characteristics influence employees' intentions to start their own entrepreneurial ventures, ideas or projects within an organisational setting.	Using a questionnaire on a random sample of 208 respondents employed in 19 Serbian companies.	Appropriate leadership style has a positive influence on employees' entrepreneurial intentions. There is a positive correlation between the leader's initiative, pioneering and proactive behaviour, (transformational leadership qualities) and the employees' intentions to start innovative entrepreneurial ventures.	The variables for entrepreneurial intentions used are different from the intrapreneurship variables that need to be tested. Therefore, the current research fills the conceptual and contextual limitations by using the factors associated with intrapreneurship behaviour in the resorts of Maldives.
Gerards, Wetten and Sambeek (2020)	The relationship between the facets of New Ways of Working (NWW) and intrapreneurial behaviour, while testing transformational leadership and co-worker social	Used a sample of 254 employees of the Dutch working population and applied the Preacher and Hayes' (Behav Res Methods 40(3):879–891, 2008) bootstrap method for multiple mediation.	Transformational leadership correlates with entrepreneurship.	This study never identifies a specific sector therefore, the result could be different based on geographic and contextual difference. The current study fills the conceptual and contextual limitations using the factors associated with intrapreneurship behaviour in the resorts of the Maldives.



	interaction as mediators.			
Anuranga (2015)	Entrepreneurial orientation in a hotel in Sri Lanka.	Case study of a Sri Lankan Hotel	Entrepreneurial Orientation (EO) dimensions (risk-taking, innovativeness, proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness were practiced at ABC Hotels plc. But not autonomy.	This was qualitative research that investigated organisational-level entrepreneurship but not individual-level and its effects. The current study fills this gap by exploring the level of intrapreneurship behaviour of individuals in the resorts of the Maldives using the quantitative method.
Agca, Topal and Kaya, (2012)	The study investigates the relationships between the external environment, intrapreneurship, and performance of Turkish firms.	Data collected using the survey method from 331 Turkish manufacturing firms.	The results showed that environmental factors have statistically significant impacts on the intrapreneurship activities of these firms and only innovation is positively and significantly associated with both customer and employee satisfaction, which are the main non-financial firm performance measures.	The research has a contextual limitation as the research is for manufacturing companies and never explores effective leadership style for intrapreneurship and performance. The current study bridges the contextual gap by studying the effective leadership for intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the resort hotels of the Maldives.
Nazri, Aroosha and Omar (2016)	Examination of Factors Affecting Youths' Entrepreneurial Intention: A Cross-Sectional Study	Cross-sectional quantitative survey using 150 young people (18-20 years old) in the Maldives.	The findings showed enterprise education, perceived social norms, entrepreneurial motivations, and innovativeness have a positive and significant relationships with entrepreneurial intention among the youth.	The study never explores intrapreneurship and its effects; therefore, it has conceptual limitations. The current study bridges the conceptual gap by studying intrapreneurship behaviour and the associated effects.

### 3.14 Towards Proposing a Framework for Effective Leadership Style for Intrapreneurship and Organisational Performance in the Resorts

Limited research is available on the leadership styles that promote intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the context of tourism industry of SIDS, and no research could be found focusing on resorts belonging to the SIDS, since the resort context in SIDS is quite different from the majority of organisations in the hospitality industry, such as travel agencies, restaurants, guest houses, etc. Most of the studies on leadership found in the area concentrated on instructional leadership in schools or academics (Ngang, 2011; Waheeda & Shaheeda, 2018 & Ahmed, 2016).

Research has suggested that the effectiveness of leadership styles varies according to the situational circumstances (Sethuraman & Suresh, 2014; Kozak & Uca, 2008; El Masry, Kattara & Demerdash, 2004). It could be argued that there is a certain extent of differences in the effectiveness of leadership styles and intrapreneurship behaviours among the different hospitality settings such as hotels,

restaurants, resorts, and other service providers. The majority of the literature examining the effectiveness of leadership styles on intrapreneurship and organisational performance focuses on hotels, restaurants, or companies, but not resorts or islands as a context (Nazarian *et al.*, 2019; Anuranga, 2015; Nielsen *et al.*, 2019; Yuping *et al.*, 2019).

Research has suggested that the studies on intrapreneurship have never been conducted on an individual level, but rather tested as organisational level constructs (Blake, 2019) or in different contexts (Anuranga, 2015; Orchard, Ribiere & Achtzehn, 2018; Agca, Topal & Kaya, 2012). Therefore, this research will address this gap by investigating the intrapreneurship at an individual level.

Limited research has been found with combined models of transformational and transactional leadership styles and employee intrapreneurship in the resort context to explore the most effective leadership style for the resorts. Therefore, this study attempts to combine the theories of transformational and transactional leadership and intrapreneurship theories to explore effective leadership in resorts in the context of SIDS.

### **3.15 Summary**

This chapter has delivered a literature review on the variables concerning this research. The chapter started by defining leadership concepts and further discussed the evolution of leadership theories that have led to the transactional and transformational leadership paradigm. In addition, this chapter detailed leadership styles, including transformational and transactional leadership styles, compared the differences in the two, and emphasised the factors and dimensions of these leadership approaches. The chapter also studied leadership outcomes, reviewed intrapreneurship and organisational performance concepts, and explained the relationships between these two concepts and leadership styles. Furthermore, the chapter discussed the current research gaps and outlined how the attempt will be made to address them.

The following chapter presents a conceptual framework for the study that integrates the two leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance. Hypotheses are established based on this framework.

**Chapter 4:**  
**Conceptual Model and Hypotheses Development**

## **4.1 Introduction**

The preceding chapter presented a critical review of the related literature on the crucial issues that guided the research. This chapter will present the conceptual framework with hypotheses that originated from the literature review and the justification for the chosen conceptual framework. This chapter is comprised of six sections. Section 4.2 presents the justification for the conceptual framework. Section 4.3 provides the theoretical framework and hypotheses, and the conceptual framework is presented in Section 4.4. with a summary of research objectives, research questions and hypotheses. Finally, Section 4.5 presents a summary of this chapter.

## **4.2 Justification for the Conceptual Framework**

Organisational leaders play a crucial role in shaping the organisational environment and fostering an effective organisational culture through a motivated workforce in order for their organisation to become a competitive and successful. Those leaders are responsible for harnessing organisational culture to develop and motivate employees to increase organisational performance (Hickman, 1998; Yukl, 1989b). Therefore, leadership has been identified as one of the essential skill sets required for any individual leader to succeed and sustain organisational competitiveness and transformation (Cherry, Davis & Thorndyke, 2010; Souba, 2004).

In achieving the desired goals and objectives, organisational leaders employ different leadership styles and approaches according to the situation and context. One of the essential objectives of contemporary organisations is to adjust the organisational capabilities to the changing environment and gain a competitive edge in the market. Organisations increase their competitiveness by fostering intrapreneurship among their employees and encouraging them to become innovative in their products, services, processes, and new technologies. These capabilities ensure organisational productivity and higher performance (Maier & Zenovia, 2011; Kanter, 1989).

Organisational leaders working in the hospitality industry, especially managers at different levels in the resorts and hotels of developing countries, promote intrapreneurship and increase their firm performance by employing different leadership styles. However, it is not clear which leadership style is suitable or which approach is the most effective in the context of SIDS island resorts like the Maldives. Therefore, the researcher believes that a conceptual framework would help comprehend the

relationships of leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance in this particular resort setting (Voxco, 2021).

It has been identified that there has been limited research or conceptual or theoretical frameworks developed to explore the most effective leadership style to encourage intrapreneurship and improve organisational performance in SIDS island resorts or even in the island resorts of the Maldives. However, studies have been seen that focused on the relationships between transformational or transactional leadership styles and performance, entrepreneurship, corporate entrepreneurship, and entrepreneurial orientation in different contexts, but not intrapreneurship of employees or a resort context (Orchard, Ribiere & Achtzehn, 2018; Nielsen *et al.*, 2019; Gerards, Wetten & Sambeek, 2020). Several studies on transformational and transactional leadership styles in the hospitality industry have established distinct advantages (Patiar & Mia, 2009; Erkutlu, 2008; Chiang & Jang, 2008). Among the leadership styles, transformational and transactional leadership styles have been the two most common leadership styles found in the current literature concerning tourism and hospitality. Each of these styles has different characteristics and can significantly impact both followers and organisations.

The literature on transformational and transactional leadership styles predicts different results; however, most research establishes a solid correlation to organisational performance. Nevertheless, these leadership styles are not observed as polar opposites, as it were, because leaders can be both transformational and transactional (Lowe *et al.*, 1996). According to Gardner and Stough (2002), the general opinion on these leadership styles suggests that transformational leadership is more effective than transactional leadership. The literature generally supports this opinion and establishes that transformational leadership is superior to transactional leadership (Bass *et al.*, 2003; Dvir *et al.*, 2002; Mekraz & Gundala, 2016; Mgeni & Nayak, 2016). Yang (2008) also suggests that the transformational leadership style is the best predictor for organisational performance. These conclusions have been drawn because transformational leadership correlates more strongly with superior productivity and organisational performance (Lowe *et al.*, 1996), a more significant level of organisational culture (Block, 2003), and a better degree of emotional intelligence (Gardner & Stough, 2002).

Several studies (Huang, Hsu & Chiau, 2011; Noruzy *et al.*, (2013; Choudhary, Akhtar and Zaheer, 2013) distinguished that the transformational leadership approach can increase organisational performance. For instance, Noruzy *et al.* (2013) established that transformational leaders positively influence manufacturing firms' performance. Transformational leaders inspire and alters employees' value and utilise them to increase organisational vision and goals (Bass 1985a). Therefore, directly and indirectly, transformational leaders influence organisational performance (Noruzy *et al.*, 2013). In addition, leaders' characteristics or traits can affect their perceptions and acceptance (Howell & Frost,

1989). Therefore, Choudhary, Akhtar and Zaheer (2013) established that it is vital to employ a transformational leadership style to increase organisational performance and profitability.

On the other hand, transactional leadership has been identified as the second-most sought-after leadership style next to transformational leadership (Bass & Bass 2008). Transactional leadership works on a mutual contract that clearly defines the roles and structure, achieving the expected goals from the employee. In this leadership style, the relationship between leader and employees is “transactional”, where the leader controls the rewards and contingencies. The literature on transactional leadership style and organisational performance shows mixed results.

A study on transactional leadership style conducted by Longe (2014) established a positive effect on organisational performance. The study carried out by Butnaru and Balcan (2012) also confirms a positive correlation between transactional leadership style and organisational performance. However, the research carried out by Sofi and Devanadhen (2015) never shows a direct impact of transactional leadership on organisational performance. This could be because the transactional leadership style never inspires employee innovation and creativity; therefore, employees are not motivated to perform according to the organisation’s best interests. However, there has been no research carried out to determine the significant role that transformational and transactional leadership styles play in the context of the island resorts of the Maldives. No study has established the most practised leadership style among the managers and leaders in the resorts of the Maldives. Most leadership research conducted in the Maldives context has been educational in nature (Ngang, 2011; Ahmed, 2016; Waheeda & Shaheeda, 2018). Therefore, this study explores the most practised leadership style of the two, and identifies the most effective style to improve organisational performance.

*Intrapreneurship* is a buzzword in the organisational behaviour literature associated with innovation, creativity, and organisational sustainability. Organisational leadership is one of the critical elements required to introduce intrapreneurship into an organisation and encourage intrapreneurs to perform intrapreneurial behaviours to implement innovation and creativity. Leadership styles never only influence organisational performance; they have a significant effect on almost all organisational behavioural aspects and play an essential role in an organisation’s sustainability (Antoncic & Hisrich, 2001; Covin & Slevin, 1991).

Currently, intrapreneurship has been accepted to encourage the generation of innovative products, services, processes, and techniques while retaining the organisation’s best employees. As a result, the literature suggests the need for intrapreneurship in organisations due to its contribution to organisational survival and the increased performance in incredibly competitive and hostile

environments. Furthermore, Carrier (2000) contemplates that intrapreneurship could be a path to supporting organisations in their search for innovation in a time of globalisation and trade liberalisation.

Organisational leaders play a crucial role in fostering an entrepreneurial environment that promotes and facilitates employees to perform intrapreneurial behaviours (Hornsby *et al.*, 2002; Kuratko *et al.*, 2005b). These leaders can lead their followers or employees in engaging in intrapreneurial activities in various forms, including promoting new and innovative ideas, offering expertise or essential resources, or funding for small trial projects (Kuratko *et al.*, 2005a). There are many leadership theories; however, research has confirmed that the most appropriate style of leadership in terms of promoting intrapreneurship is the transformational leadership style because it inspires follower's innovation and creativity (Eyal & Kark, 2004; Elenkov & Manev, 2005; Jung *et al.*, 2003; Shin & Zhou, 2003; Ling *et al.*, 2008). Chen *et al.* (2014) established that top leaders' transformational leadership approaches significantly influence intrapreneurship. Northouse (2016) supported this finding and stated that transformational leadership engages and establishes a relationship with leaders and followers, raises their motivation and morality, and facilitates the individual needs and motives of followers, which allows followers to reach their fullest potential. Furthermore, Northouse (2016) states that transformational leaders can raise followers' levels of consciousness concerning organisational objectives, inspire followers to acquire the tools needed to reach a higher-level, and to move beyond their interests for the team's sake. These benefits of the transformational leadership style can be assumed to be the foundation for establishing an entrepreneurial mindset among organisational employees.

Research has established that leaders rated higher on transformational leadership constituents by their employees encourage their followers to put extra effort into their jobs, engage in innovative and creative initiatives, and perform organisational citizenship behaviour (Jung *et al.*, 2003; Howell & Higgins 1990; Koh *et al.*, 1995). Additionally, transformational leaders can harness the environments suitable to perform intrapreneurship behaviours such as developing a clear vision and mechanisms for discovering new opportunities (Eyal & Kark 2004) and boost employees' skillsets and confidence to devise innovative responses to address the existing problems facing their organisation (Howell and Higgins, 1990; Jung *et al.*, 2003). Salamti (2020) studied the influence of transactional and transformational leadership on intrapreneurship and confirmed that transformational leadership has a more significant influence on organisations' dynamic and operational capacity development.

Consequently, the few studies on the effect of transactional leadership styles on intrapreneurship show mixed results. Evidence shows that transactional leaders also allow employees to perform intrapreneur

activities, even though some literature suggests that this style has never been a significant influencer in activating intrapreneurship. Nevertheless, in organisations where transactional leaders effectively manage existing organisational cultures with established rules, procedures, and norms, they can continue innovative practices, as Bass and Avolio (1994) suggested. The study of Yang (2008) among Taiwanese SMEs to examine the relationship between leadership styles, entrepreneurial orientation, and business performance shows that the transactional leadership style was significantly and positively correlated with innovation. Roslan's (2010) study has found that transactional leadership positively correlates with corporate entrepreneurship. Finally, Radwan and Radwan's (2020) study, using frontline hotel managers in four-star hotels in Cairo to investigate leadership styles' impact on employees' creativity and organisational commitment, confirms that transactional and autocratic leaderships are the prevailing styles among the hotel industry in Cairo. No research has been observed concentrating on the effects of leadership style on intrapreneurship (individual level) in an island resort context. Therefore, this study sought to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and intrapreneurship in the island resorts of the Maldives.

Intrapreneurship is considered to be one of the central elements to organisational success. Several empirical studies have confirmed the essential role of intrapreneurship in improving organisational performance. Antoncic (2007) suggests that organisational performance can be the most significant result of intrapreneurship. Antoncic and Hisrich (2001) conducted a study to examine the relationship between intrapreneurship and organisational performance on profitability and growth variables using 51 U.S. and 141 Slovenia companies to confirm the presence of a correlation between intrapreneurship and profitability and growth in Slovenian companies. Consequently, they found a significant association between intrapreneurship and growth in U.S. firms but no significant correlation between intrapreneurship and profitability. The study of Zahra, Neubaum and Huse (2000) among 231 US companies found that innovativeness has a significant and positive relationship with profitability, growth, and shareholder wealth. Furthermore, a study conducted in Finland by Jantunen *et al.* (2005) using 217 companies found a positive and significant correlation between intrapreneurship and organisational performance. Based on the arguments and evidence, it can be established that there is a significant relationship between intrapreneurship and organisational performance (Yang *et al.*, 2007; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2004; Luo, Zhou & Liu, 2005; Dess *et al.*, 2003), and it is anticipated that intrapreneurship should have a moderating effect on the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance.

Although few studies (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2003; Wolf & Pett, 2007; Baysak & Bozkurt, 2020) have researched the moderating role of entrepreneurial orientation, there is no research exploring the



moderating role of intrapreneurship on the relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance. For example, Wiklund and Shepherd (2003), using 384 SMEs of Swedish companies, found that entrepreneurial orientation plays a moderating role in the relationship between knowledge and performance. The study carried out by Wolf and Pett (2007), employing 700 manufacturing companies, established that entrepreneurial orientation moderates learning orientation and firm performance. A study conducted by Baysak and Bozkurt (2020) using 175 techno-park firms in Istanbul shows a fully mediating role of entrepreneurial orientation on the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance. These studies never estimate the moderating role that intrapreneurship plays in the relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance. Therefore, as a result of this research gap, this study endeavoured to find the moderating role of intrapreneurship on the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance in the resorts of Maldives.

The study is intended to develop a conceptual framework suitable for the particular context – the resort islands of the Maldives. This includes appropriate testing and validation of the framework within the case study resort islands in the Maldives, where management and organisational decisions are expected to differ from ordinary hotels and land-linked resorts. It is expected that the proposed conceptual framework will be beneficial to resort owners, managers, supervisors, researchers, industry practitioners, and trainers in employing the most suitable leadership style to improve the performance of the resorts and instigate intrapreneurship among employees. This will be considered in the subsequent sections.

### **4.3 Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses**

This section discusses the theoretical models, conceptual framework, and hypotheses developed on the arguments presented in the previous section. The proposed framework could potentially be helpful to industry leaders, researchers, and practitioners to understand the effective leadership style better to improve organisational performance and intrapreneurship in the resorts. Therefore, by incorporating these models and theories addressed in the earlier chapter (transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance), the researcher proposes a conceptual framework to identify the effective leadership style for intrapreneurship and organisational performance, which potentially contributes to leadership and organisational studies.

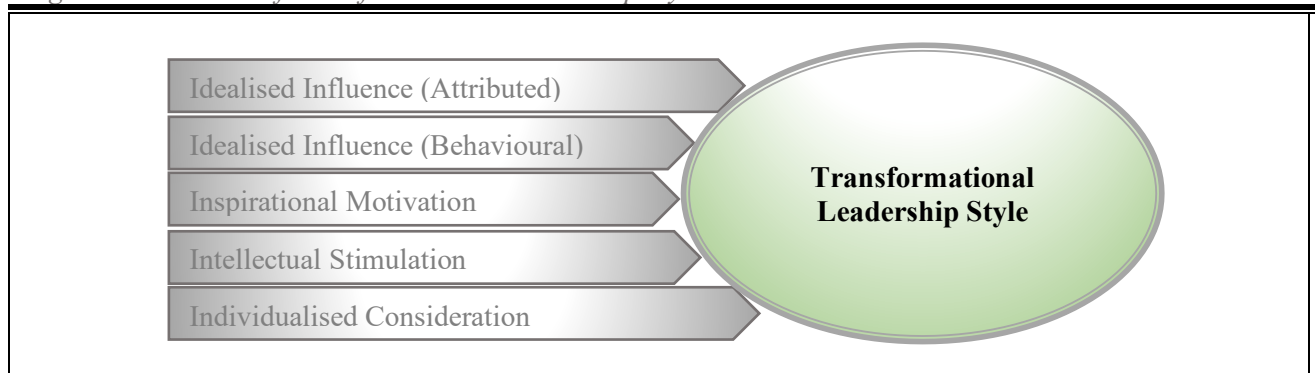
The hypotheses are proposed based on the theoretical descriptions, empirical evidence, and the conceptual framework, and are constructed on the four primary relationships between the proposed

variables. (I) the relationships between leadership styles and organisational performance, (II) the relationship between leadership styles and intrapreneurship, (III) the relationship between intrapreneurship and organisational performance, and (IV) the moderating role of intrapreneurship on the relationships between leadership styles and organisational performance.

### **4.3.1 Transformational Leadership Style (Independent Variable)**

The first independent variable in this conceptual framework is the transformational leadership style (Figure 4.1).

*Figure 4.1: Factors of Transformational Leadership Style*



The transformational leadership style is defined as a process in which leaders move followers or employees beyond their self-interests for the betterment of the organisation or the team by taking appropriate actions to expand their awareness on matters that are right and important for the team, and by uplifting their followers' motivation (Bolden *et al.*, 2003; Bass 1985, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2012).

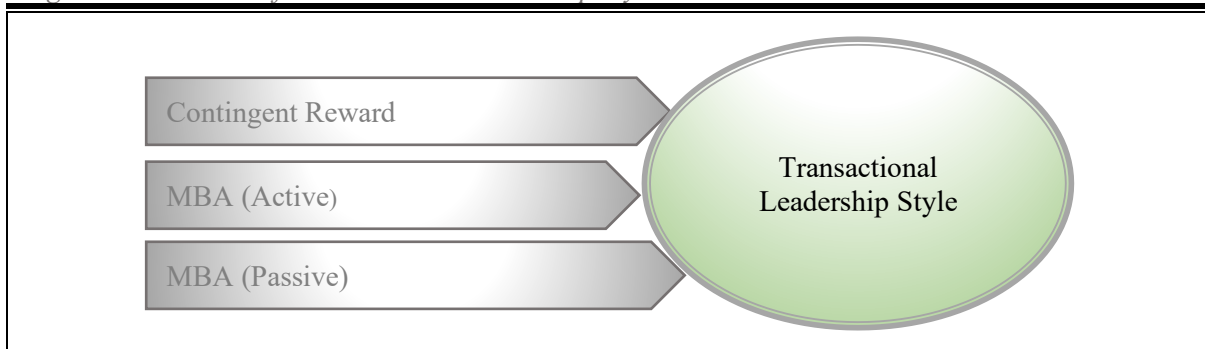
As illustrated in Figure 4.1 above, there are five dimensions of transformational leadership, (I) Idealised Influence (Attributed), (II) Idealised Influence (Behavioural), (III) Inspirational Motivation, (IV) Intellectual Stimulation, and (V) Individualised Consideration. The definitions of these factors were given in Chapter 3 (Bolden *et al.*, 2003; Bass 1985, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2012).

### **4.3.2 Transactional Leadership Styles (Independent Variable)**

The second independent variable in this framework is the transactional leadership style. The transactional leadership style is referred to as a leadership style, where employees explain what needs to be done and what they will get in return. It is a transaction between the leader and the employer (Bass, 1990; Bass *et al.*, 2003).

As illustrated in Figure 4.2, three dimensions of transactional leadership style have been used in this study. These are (I) Contingent Reward, (II) Management by Exception (active), and (III) Management by Exception (Passive) (Bass, 1990, 1996; Bass *et al.*, 2003). The definitions of these factors were given in Chapter 3.

*Figure 4.2: Factors of Transactional Leadership Style*



### **4.3.3 Transformational Leadership Style and Transactional Leadership Style**

Transformational leaders inspire their followers and direct the way forward to cater for their higher order's need and go beyond expectations, fostering trust among their followers that leads the followers to sacrifice their interests for the sake of their organisation (Bass, 1985). Additionally, leaders adopting the transformational leadership style foster an environment of trust, admiration, and loyalty among their employees and instil pride in their organisation, allowing them to feel that their efforts and participation are essential to the wellbeing of their organisation (Rust *et al.*, 2000).

On the other hand, transactional style leaders establish a relationship between the managers and their followers in exchange for economic or psychological values or return. The relationship is established based on a quick negotiation process instead of a lasting and enduring association. These leaders achieve their objectives through their followers by rewarding them when meeting agreed-upon performance standards (Ravichandran *et al.*, 2007). Transactional leaders clarify the roles of their subordinates and guide them to reach predetermined targets and compensate for what they could achieve or what they failed to achieve. Employees who follow transactional leaders get limited opportunities to participate in decision making (Patiar & Mia, 2009).

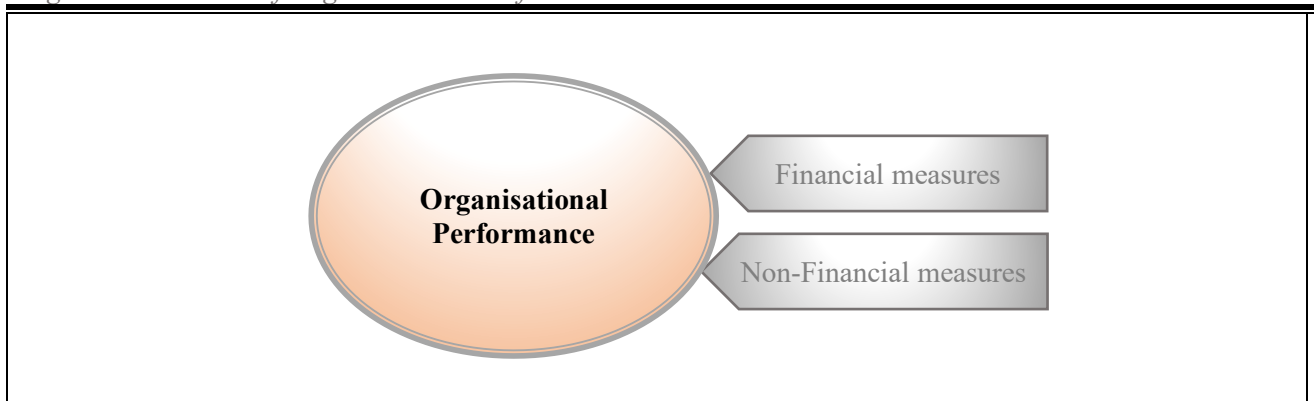
Transactional and transformational leadership styles are the most researched leadership styles in the hospitality management sector (Dai *et al.*, 2013). Research implies that managers' transactional leadership style in people-oriented industries like resorts and hotels negatively impacts performance areas such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, customer service, and overall performance

(Patiar & Mia, 2009). However, studies suggest that transformational leadership is more influential (Lee *et al.*, 2011), and transformational leaders are more effective than transactional leaders (Zopiatis & Constani, 2010).

#### **4.3.4 Organisational Performance (Dependent Variable)**

The dependent variable in this conceptual framework is organisational performance (Figure 4.3). Organisational performance is a multidimensional concept (Lumpkin and Dess 1996) where multiple factors can be used to measure organisational performance. This includes (I) financial and (II) non-financial measures such as market share, profitability, average occupancy rate and lodging index, customer retention and reputation (Wang *et al.*, 2012; Chen *et al.*, 2009, Alvarez *et al.*, 2001; Orfila-Sintes & Mattsson, 2009). This study employs the measures developed by Chen, Tsou and Huang (2009) and Avci, Madanoglu and Okumus (2011) to measure organisational performance.

*Figure 4.3: Factors of Organisational Performance*



#### **4.3.5 Transformational Leadership Style and Organisational Performance**

Transformational leadership is acknowledged as a leadership approach that transforms followers' and employees' mindsets through the charismatic qualities of the leader to achieve high organisational performance. These leaders increase employees' enthusiasm and awareness in their organisation to build confidence and progress towards achievement. In addition, they help their peers to take leadership roles to empower them to go beyond their traditional performance standards and goals (Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1993, 1994).

Transformational leaders effectively influence their followers' motivation and productivity. They inspire the employees to attach their sense of identity to the organisation and help them feel a sense of belonging to the organisation or the group, and become a role model for their followers, which elevates

their interest in their leader and inspires them to imitate their role model, stimulating followers to take on more significant challenges, and acknowledges the individual differences in employees. Through these behaviours, transformational leaders can suit their followers to relevant and appropriate jobs that amplify their performance (Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013).

The majority of the literature and empirical data on the effects of transactional and transformational leadership styles on organisational performance confirm that transformational leadership is more effective than transactional leadership (Gardner & Stough, 2002; Bass, 1999, Bass *et al.*, 2003; Hood, 2003). Therefore, based on these arguments, it is hypothesised that:

*H1a: Managers' transformational leadership style has a more significant effect on organisational performance than transactional leadership style does in the resorts of the Maldives.*

#### **4.3.6 Transactional Leadership Styles and Organisational Performance**

The transactional leadership style generally serves the role of supervision in an organisation where the leaders' approach ensures the effectiveness of groups and organisations. Transactional leaders encourage employees to comply with the established procedures and agreed-upon terms of the work through rewards and punishments. These leaders focus on maintaining operational stability and never expect the status quo to be affected (Odumuru & Ifeanyi 2013). It is a process of exchange between leaders and employees where employees fulfil the leaders' expectations and the desired outcomes, and followers are rewarded (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). This process entails honouring commitments from both sides and increasing the level of trust and respect among them.

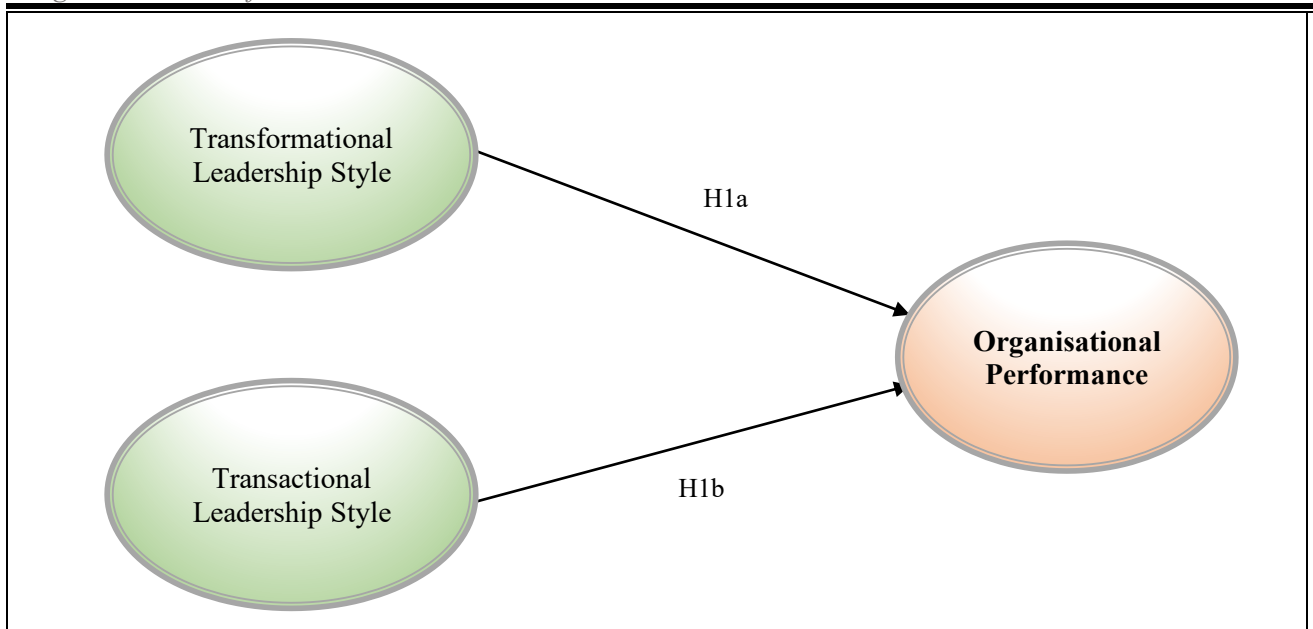
Even though some research has suggested that there is a negative effect of some of the variables of transactional leadership on organisational performance (Yammarino & Bass 1990; Pedraja-rejas *et al.*, 2006), the majority of studies have confirmed a positive and significant relationship between transactional variables and organisational performance (Podsakoff & Schriesheim 1985; Paracha *et al.*, 2012). Figure 4.4 illustrates the relationship between the transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, and organisational performance.

In this research, the transactional leadership style is considered a highly effective leadership style for island resort hotels. This is because transactional leaders appreciate their employees' work and efforts, execute an effective exchange mechanism for the employees, and proactively identify problems or

variations before they become serious to the organisation and co-workers, positively influencing organisational performance. Based on these arguments, it is, therefore, hypothesised that:

*H1b: Managers' transactional leadership style has a more significant effect on organisational performance than transformational leadership style does in the resorts of the Maldives.*

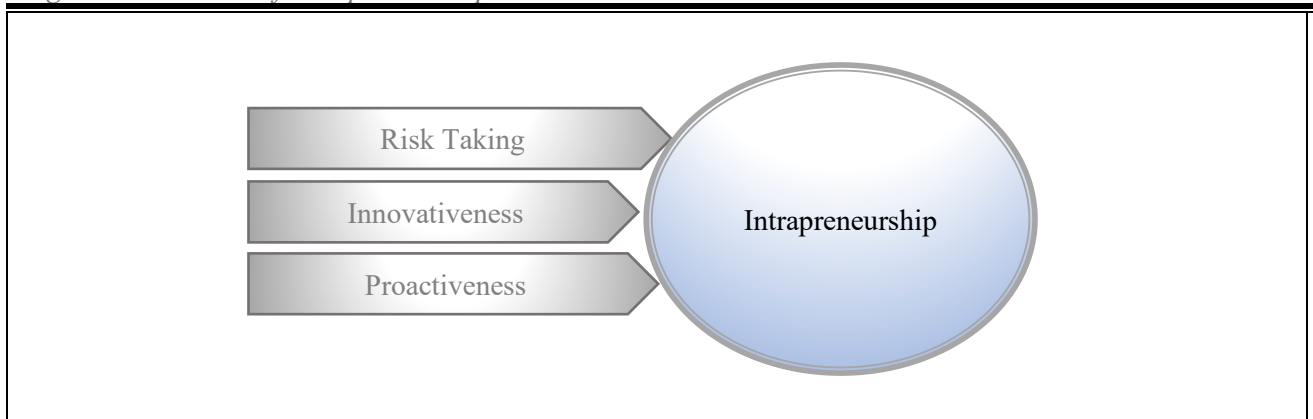
*Figure 4.4: Relationship between Transformational Leadership Style, Transactional Leadership Style and Organisational Performance*



### 4.3.7 Intrapreneurship (Independent Variable)

The third independent variable in this conceptual framework is intrapreneurship (Figure 4.5). In this study, intrapreneurship is like the organisational employees' initiatives to carry out something new by using intrapreneurs' creativity and innovation to change a simple idea into a lucrative venture within a business setting; as a result, the intrapreneur is acknowledged as an 'inside entrepreneur' who respects the organisational goals and objectives (Atari & Prause, 2019).

*Figure 4.5: Factors of Intrapreneurship*

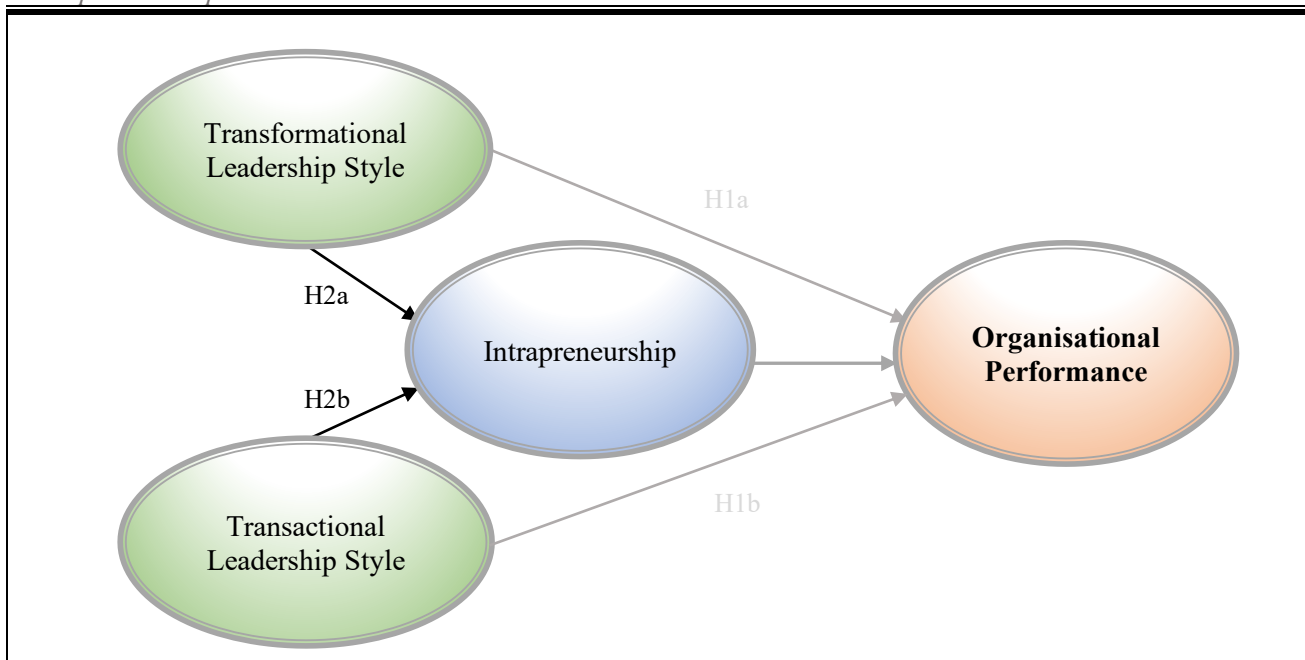


The factors of intrapreneurship (Covin & Slevin, 1989) used in this study are (I) Risk-Taking, (II) Innovation, and (III) Proactiveness (Miller, 1983; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Covin & Miles, 1999; Antoncic & Hisrich, 2003). The definitions of these factors were given in Chapter 3.

#### **4.3.8 Transformational Leadership Style and Intrapreneurship**

Employees' intrapreneurship behaviours are crucial for the sustainability of organisations in competitive environments, as do transformational leaders (see Figure 4.6). Both transformational leaders and intrapreneurs are inclined to support and engage in the transformation and innovation of products, processes, and systems in the organisation.

*Figure 4.6: Relationship between Transformational Leadership Style, Transactional Leadership Style and Intrapreneurship*



The concept of intrapreneurship is described as entrepreneurship within the organisation which engages in behaviours such as new business creation, proactiveness, innovativeness, and self-renewal (Antoncic & Hisrich (2001). These behaviours can be performed when organisations have effective leaders who influence and direct their employees towards exploration and innovative activities and can foster an environment of innovation and empowerment of employees (Stevenson, 2012).

The transformational leadership style has been acknowledged as a leadership approach that significantly improves organisational performance based on their capability to adapt to the surroundings and the firm characteristics that fit different situations. Furthermore, these characteristics

inspire employees to incite an innovative culture where they are encouraged to bring new ideas by involving them in innovative business projects (Howell & Higgins 1990; Jung *et al.*, 2003) and increasing individual and group motivation by changing their perception about risks and developing their innovative aptitudes. Furthermore, transformational leaders instil confidence in employees by empowering them and encouraging them to implement innovative ideas and inspiring intrapreneurial behaviour among them. Therefore, this study hypothesises that:

**H2a:** *Transformational leadership style of the managers is significantly and positively related to employees' intrapreneurship in the resorts of the Maldives.*

### **4.3.9 Transactional Leadership Style and Intrapreneurship**

Businesses in this era need to engage with ongoing transformations of their products and services; therefore, employees with intrapreneurial behaviour and employee engagement in intrapreneurship projects are vital to organisations (see Figure 4.6).

Companies seeking to integrate intrapreneurship into the organisational system require an effective leadership style that nurtures a culture of entrepreneurship. Research such as that by Nahavandi (2006) suggests that transactional leaders foster an entrepreneurial orientation environment within the organisation through the concept of exchange. Apart from this, transactional leaders are seen as role models because they develop effective relationships with their employees based on their mutual understandings of the exchange of benefits for both parties. For example, Yang (2008) indicates that transactional leadership style positively correlates with corporate entrepreneurship but is less significant than the relationship between transformational leadership style and corporate entrepreneurship. Therefore, his study hypothesises that:

**H2b:** *Transactional leadership style of the managers is significantly and positively related to employees' intrapreneurship in the resorts of the Maldives.*

### **4.3.10 Intrapreneurship and Organisational Performance**

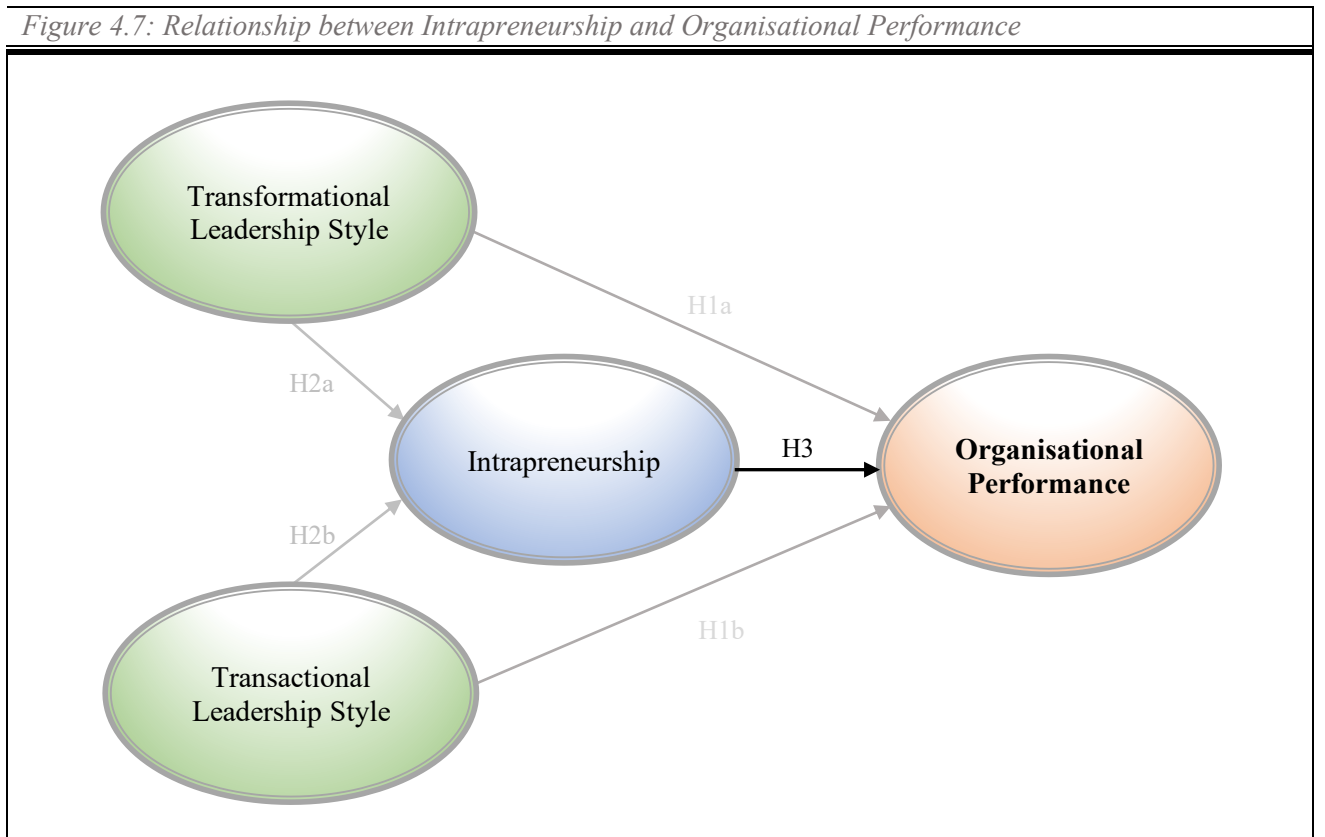
The literature on the relationship between intrapreneurship and organisational performance confirms the strong effect of intrapreneurship on organisational performance (Figure 4.7). Intrapreneurship's theoretical viewpoints suggest a convincing variable that positively influences performance because intrapreneurship involves bringing innovation and employing creativity in organisational products, services, and processes, which can create a competitive advantage over their rivals that ultimately



increases its productivity and performance. According to Istocescu (2003, as cited by Maier & Zenovia, 2011), intrapreneurship is a mechanism that increases organisational economic and financial performance by employing a more effective utilisation of resources and using a more appropriate motivational system to inspire the organisation's workforce. Especially during the turbulent and challenging economic satiations, intrapreneurship can be a factor that can allow the organisation survive and that can increase the company's income (Kanter, 1989).

Several research studies have established the relationship between intrapreneurship and performance due to the recent literature; this relationship has been considered one of the main topics of interest (Arshad *et al.*, 2014). Antoncic and Hisrich (2001) advocate that organisational performance can be acknowledged as the most significant effect of intrapreneurship, and Chong (2008) suggests that organisational performance should be measured using financial and non-financial measures. Based on the arguments, this study, therefore, hypothesises that:

**H3:** *Level of intrapreneurship of employees in the resorts of the Maldives is significantly and positively related to organisational performance of the resorts.*



### **4.3.11 Transformational Leadership Style, Intrapreneurship, and Organisational Performance**

Various leadership styles can impact employee motivation and spirit in engaging in innovative and creative behaviours that lead to improved organisational performance. Transformational leadership has been acknowledged as an effective leadership style that influences employees or followers' motivation, improves their confidence and loyalty to the leader, and acknowledges the primary conditions for a radical entrepreneurial approach (Eyal & Kark, 2004). Furthermore, research confirms that transformational leadership has a strong positive relationship with intrapreneurship and entrepreneurial orientation (Yang, 2008; Arif & Akram, 2018).

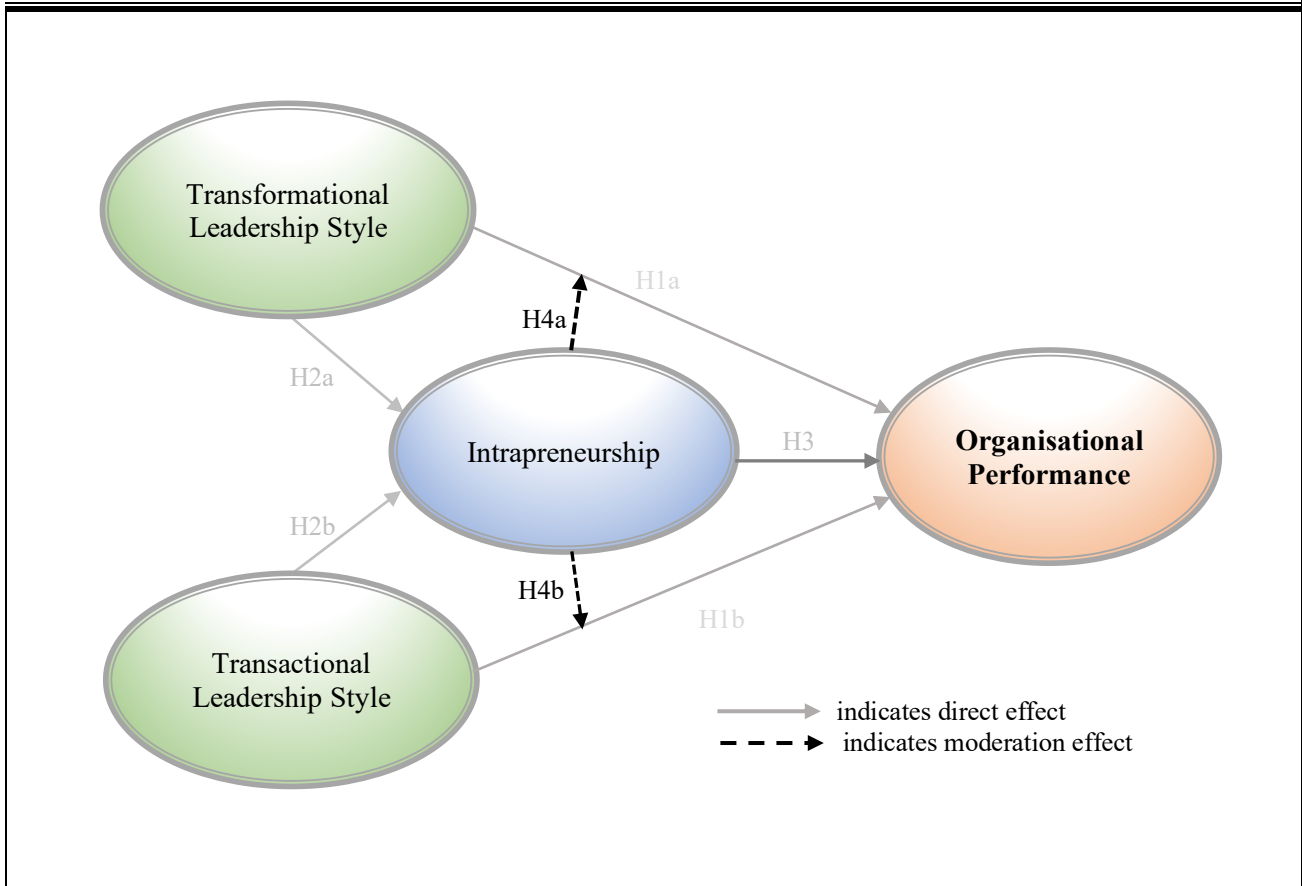
Organisational innovativeness depends on several factors, and Jung *et al.* (2008) and Dess and Picken (2000) suggest that leadership behaviour is one of the most, if not the most, crucial elements. Leaders, especially transformational leaders, encourage employees to engage in critical thinking and come up with new and innovative ideas to challenge existing processes and products. This kind of behaviour allows organisations to become entrepreneurial and employees to perform intrapreneurial behaviour. Research suggests that intrapreneurship is more consistent with the transformational leadership style than the transactional leadership style. Based on these arguments, this study hypothesises that:

*H4a: Employees' intrapreneurship has a moderating effect on the relationship of managers' transformational leadership style and organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.*

### **4.3.12 Transactional Leadership Style, Intrapreneurship, and Organisational Performance**

Organisational leadership has been acknowledged as a solid influencer of intrapreneurship behaviour (Shafique & Kalyar, 2018), and leadership style also significantly influences their peers and organisational strategic entrepreneurial approach (Tarabishy *et al.*, 2005). Besides, their research established a significant correlation between the transactional and transformational leadership styles and organisational strategic entrepreneurial orientation. Furthermore, the literature suggests that entrepreneurship significantly influences organisational performance (see Figure 4.8). The critical point here is that the ultimate objective of both leadership styles and intrapreneurship is to improve organisational performance and create value for the organisation, even taking different roles.

Figure 4.8: Moderating Link between Intrapreneurship and the Relationship of Leadership Styles and Organisational Performance



The transactional leadership style promotes organisational stability by closely monitoring whether employees follow organisational procedures and protocols while ensuring employees meet agreed targets. Through these behaviours, employees are rewarded for their accomplishments and are punished for failures. This way, it can be assumed that transactional leaders can instil a climate where employees are involved in innovative projects and perform intrapreneurship behaviours. Research into transactional leadership and entrepreneurship revealed mixed results. Martin's (2015) and Yang's (2008) studies suggested a slight positive relationship between transactional leadership and entrepreneurship; however, Eyal and Kark's (2004) research did not show any significant relationship.

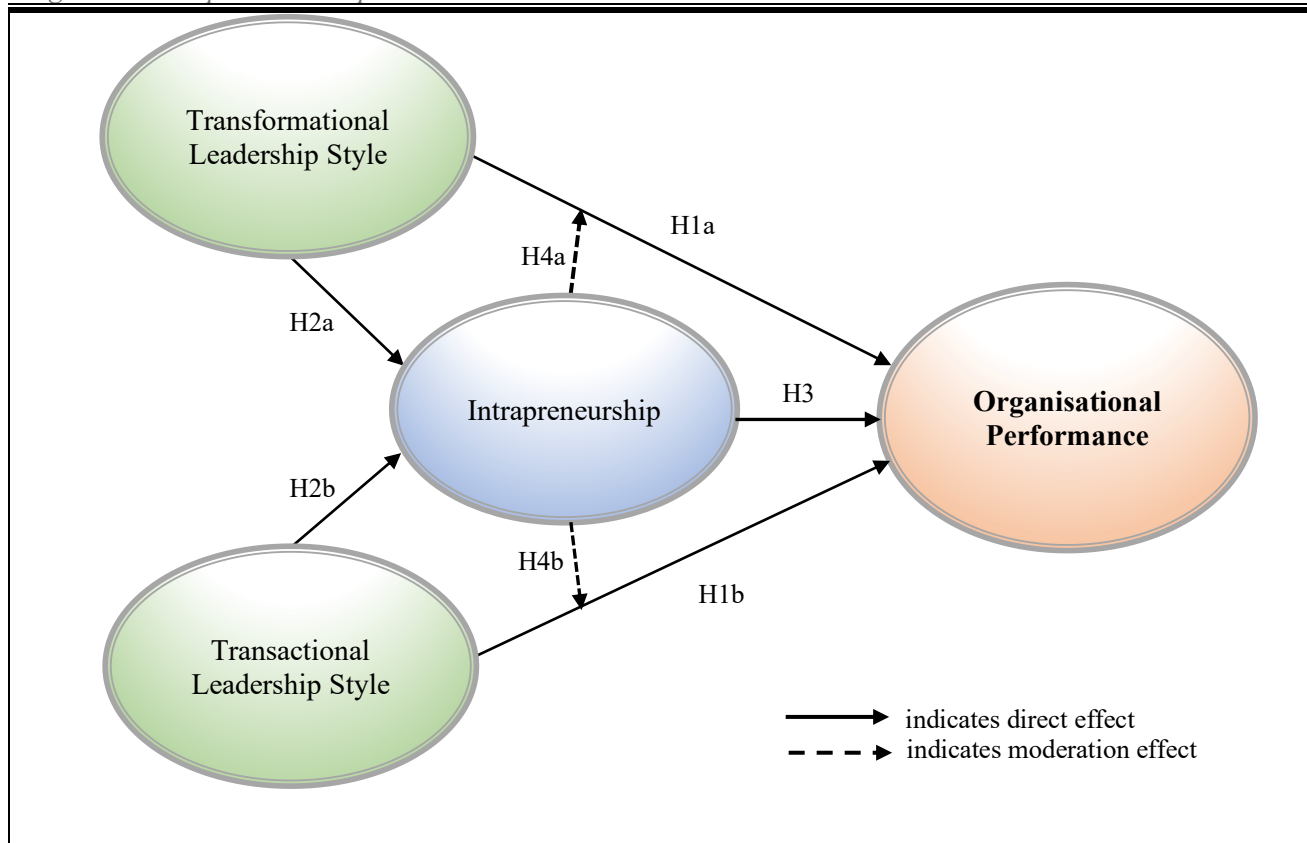
Sometimes, the indirect influences of leaders' strategic choices may not be as evident as direct implications. According to Wiklund and Shepherd (2005), organisational, entrepreneurial orientation or intrapreneurship may be a strategic choice that an organisation makes which involves specific entrepreneurial aspects of decision-making style or practices. This is key to increasing organisational performance (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). Therefore, with these arguments, this study hypothesises that:

**H4b:** *Employees' intrapreneurship has a moderating effect on the relationship between managers' transactional leadership style and organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.*

## 4.4 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework in research (Figure 4.9) illustrates the relationship between the theories, models, and concepts incorporated in the research to systematically manage knowledge in an analysis (Adom, Hussein & Agyem 2018). It exhibits a visual display of a logical structure or the relationships between the concepts and ideas in a study that are associated with one another. According to Grant and Osanloo (2016), the conceptual framework, from a statistical perspective, explains the correlations and the strengths of the relationships between different constructs or variables in the study. Therefore, it is imperative to develop a conceptual framework for this study to explore the essential leadership style for improving the resort hotels in the Maldives. This is based on the gaps found through the literature reviewed in Chapter 3 and previous sections.

*Figure 4.9: Proposed Conceptual Framework*



In this study (refer to Figure 4.9), the independent variable was leadership style, representing the transformational and transactional leadership styles. Transformational leadership comprises idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration.

Likewise, the transactional leadership style describes contingent reward, active management-by-exception, and passive management-by-exception. The moderating variable in this model was intrapreneurship, which consists of risk-taking, innovativeness, and proactiveness. In addition, organisational performance was the dependent variable representing the financial and non-financial measures.

The relationships among leadership style and organisational performance, intrapreneurship and organisational performance, and leadership style and intrapreneurship have been studied independently; nevertheless, no previous study has sought to determine the relationships in the context of the Maldives. The mediating role of intrapreneurship between leadership style and organisational performance has not, to date, been examined in the context of the Maldives. Therefore, this study explores the most effective leadership style for intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the resorts of the Maldives through the investigation of the relationships between the variables mentioned above. Resort hotels were chosen for this study because they are the most significant component of the tourism industry in the Maldives, which has been the most substantial contributor to national GDP.

The Table 4.1 summarises the research questions, objectives and the hypotheses of the study.

*Table 4. 1: Summary of Research Objectives, Research Questions and Hypotheses*

<b>Research Questions</b>	<b>Research Objectives</b>	<b>Research Hypotheses</b>
<p>1. What is the main leadership style used by decision makers to improve the services – transformational or transactional leadership and to what extent has intrapreneurship impacted the employees and managers in the resort hotels of the Maldives? Moreover, which leadership style has a more substantial effect on organisational performance among them?</p>	<p><b>1a.</b> to examine the most frequently adopted leadership style, be it transformational or transactional, within the context of the island resorts of the Maldives.</p>	<p><i>None, Primary Data</i></p>
	<p><b>1b.</b> to examine the extent to which intrapreneurship is encouraged among employees.</p>	<p><i>None, Primary Data</i></p>
	<p><b>1c.</b> to determine the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership style and organisational performance among island resorts in the Maldives.</p>	<p><b>H1a:</b> <i>Managers’ transformational leadership style has a more significant effect on organisational performance than transactional leadership style does in the resorts of the Maldives.</i></p> <p><b>H1b:</b> <i>Managers’ transactional leadership style has a more significant effect on organisational performance than transformational leadership style does in the resorts of the Maldives.</i></p>
<p>2. To what extent has intrapreneurship influenced leadership styles and organisational performance in the resort hotels of the Maldives? Does intrapreneurship have a moderating effect on the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance in the resort hotels of the Maldives?</p>	<p><b>2a.</b> to assess the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and intrapreneurship among island resorts in the Maldives.</p>	<p><b>H2a:</b> <i>Transformational leadership style of the managers is significantly and positively related to employees’ intrapreneurship in the resorts of the Maldives.</i></p> <p><b>H2b:</b> <i>Transactional leadership style of the managers is significantly and positively related to employees’ intrapreneurship in the resorts of the Maldives.</i></p>
	<p><b>2b.</b> to examine the relationship between intrapreneurship and performance in the Maldives resorts.</p>	<p><b>H3:</b> <i>Level of intrapreneurship of employees in the resorts of the Maldives is significantly and positively related to organisational performance of the resorts.</i></p>
	<p><b>2c.</b> to examine whether intrapreneurship moderates the relationship between leadership styles and performance in the Maldives resorts.</p>	<p><b>H4a:</b> <i>Employees’ intrapreneurship has a moderating effect on the relationship of managers’ transformational leadership style and organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.</i></p> <p><b>H4b:</b> <i>Employees’ intrapreneurship has a moderating effect on the relationship between managers’ transactional leadership style and organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.</i></p>

## **4.5- Summary**

This chapter has presented the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study and the development of the hypotheses for the research and discussed the justifications for the framework. Based on the proposed study framework, five hypotheses have been suggested concentrating on the relationships among leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance, and the role of intrapreneurship as a moderator in the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance. The chapter additionally addressed the pertinent literature and presented empirical findings in establishing the hypotheses. The following chapter presents the research methodology adopted in this study.

## **Chapter 5: Research Methodology**



## **5.1 Introduction**

The aim specified for this thesis is to investigate the effects of transformational and transactional leadership styles on intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the resort hotels in the Maldives and to investigate the moderating role of intrapreneurship in the relationship between leadership style and organisational performance in these resorts.

Several research objectives employing quantitative and descriptive correlational design research were also stipulated in the first chapter, which includes: (1) establishing the most frequently used leadership style, whether transactional or transformational, in the island resorts of the Maldives, (2) assessing the relationship between the transactional and transformational leadership styles and intrapreneurship among island resorts in the Maldives, (3) to determine the relationship between the transactional and transformational leadership styles and organisational performance among island resorts in the Maldives, (4) to examine the relationship between intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the island resorts in the Maldives, (5) to examine whether there is any moderating effect of intrapreneurship on the relationship of leadership styles and organisational performance, and (6) to determine the extent to which intrapreneurship is encouraged among employees.

In achieving the research aim and objectives, the contextual overview of the Maldives has been presented as a pathway in Chapter 2. The relevant theories backing the objectives of the research were reviewed in Chapter 3. Finally, Chapter 4 discusses the conceptual framework of the research and its proposed hypotheses. This chapter clarifies and justifies the research methodology selected for testing the proposed hypotheses in Chapter 4, thus focusing on the research objectives stated in the first chapter.

The chapter consists of 14 sections. Section 5.2 will discuss the research paradigm and philosophy, while Section 5.3 will focus on the research approaches and justify the selected approach for the study. Section 5.4 elaborates on research design, explaining both exploratory and descriptive studies, while Section 5.5 will address the methods utilised in this research, and Section 5.6 will discuss data type. Section 5.7 will discuss the research strategy. Section 5.8 will focus on the data collection technique, while Section 5.9 will concentrate on the population and sampling, detailing the population, sampling technique, sampling frame, and size determination. The data collection techniques utilised in the research are reviewed in Section 5.10, while Section 5.11 will give an overview of data analysis and

presentation. The trustworthiness of the research will be outlined in Section 5.12, including research validity and reliability, while Section 5.13 will deliberate the study's ethical considerations, emphasising ethical approval, confidentiality, and data storage. Finally, a summary of the chapter will be presented in Section 5.14.

## **5.2 Research Paradigm**

The manifestation of the philosophical 'worldview' of the research is an essential constituent of the research design. The term 'worldview' can be referred to as the research paradigm (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Sobh & Perry, 2005), whereas Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009, p. 84) described a research paradigm as a 'worldview with different philosophical assumptions associated with that point of view'. It is the researcher's belief or viewpoint that guides the development of an overall conceptual framework that the researcher might follow. According to Creswell (2003), 'worldview' is the researchers' basic set of beliefs that guide their efforts and indicates the overall world orientation and the nature of research that the researcher inspires. This can be crafted on the researcher's interest or the area of their discipline, beliefs of influencers, and research experience. The terms 'paradigm' and 'worldview' help researchers to identify the philosophical assumptions about the knowledge and the intended work directed towards their investigations (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007).

Worldviews constitute diverse standpoints even though they have common elements. For example, Guba and Lincoln (1994) assert that three types of questions can explain the fundamental beliefs about research paradigms. The first question concerns the different opinions on the nature of reality, referred to as 'ontology'. The second question concerns the researcher's relationship (knowers) and what will be researched (what can be known), which can be referred to as 'epistemology'. The final question is about the research process and can be called the 'methodology'.

Additionally, Creswell and Plano-Clark (2007) introduced two more to the list, including the function of research values, commonly referred to as 'axiology', and research language, referred to as 'rhetoric'. The different stances in the research determine the overall process of carrying and reporting it. According to Creswell (2003), worldviews can be classified into four distinctive types: post-positivism, constructivism, advocacy and participatory, and pragmatism.

Table 5.1 indicates the various worldview elements and their implications for research practice.

Table 5.1: *Worldview Elements and Implications for Practice* (Source: Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2007, p. 24).

World view element	Post-positivism	Constructivism	Advocacy / Participatory	Pragmatism
Ontology (what is the nature of reality?)	Singular reality (e.g., researchers reject or fail to reject hypotheses)	Multiple realities (e.g., researchers provide quotations to illustrate different perspectives)	Political reality (e.g., findings are negotiated with participants)	Singular and multiple realities (e.g., researchers test hypotheses and provide multiple perspectives)
Epistemology (what is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched?)	Distance and impartiality (e.g., researchers objectively collect data on instruments)	Closeness (e.g., researchers visit participants at their sites to collect data)	Collaboration (e.g., researchers actively involve participants as collaborators)	Practicality (e.g., researchers collect data by 'what works' to address research question)
Axiology (what is the role of values?)	Unbiased (e.g., researchers use checks to eliminate bias)	Biased (e.g., researchers actively talk about their biases and interpretations)	Negotiated (e.g., researchers negotiate their biases with participants)	Multiple stances (e.g., researchers include both biased and unbiased perspectives)
Methodology (what is the process of research?)	Deductive (e.g., researchers test a priori theory)	Inductive (e.g., researchers start with participants' views and build up to patterns, theories, and generalisations)	Participatory (e.g., researchers involve participants in all stages of the research and engage in cyclical reviews of results)	Combining (e.g., researchers collect both quantitative and qualitative data and mix them)
Rhetoric (what is the language of research?)	Formal style (e.g., researchers use agreed definitions of variables)	Informal style (e.g., researchers write in an informal style)	Advocacy and change (e.g., researchers use language that will help bring about change and advocate for the participants)	Formal and informal (e.g., researchers may employ both formal and informal styles of writing)

### 5.2.1 Post-positivism / Positivist Paradigm

Post-positivism is interchangeably used in positivist research, recognised with quantitative approaches. According to Creswell (2003), researchers usually work from establishing theory to hypotheses in this paradigm in determining the possible causes that affect consequences, emphasising the constructs of the theory, focusing on the methods of information or data gathering and the empirical observations to substantiate the selected theory.

### **5.2.2 Constructivism / Interpretivist Paradigm**

The constructivism paradigm (often referred to as interpretivism) is a bottom-up approach where participants' views and opinions patterns help translate to theory. This paradigm has been recognised with qualitative approaches, where the theory is generated dependent on the researcher's understanding and worldview on the participants' responses and perceptions (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007).

### **5.2.3 Participatory Paradigm**

Participatory worldview is generally used in qualitative research but can lead to quantitative investigation, where researchers' political ideologies or political viewpoints influence the worldview (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007). This paradigm can also be change-oriented and collaborative (Creswell, 2003). Participatory worldview "holds that research inquiry needs to be intertwined with politics and a political agenda" (Creswell, 2009, p.9). This approach can have a specific agenda in the study with the intention for reform.

### **5.2.4 Pragmatism Paradigm**

The pragmatism paradigm typically employs all the approaches to understand the subject or the problem thoroughly; however, it never stands alone on a single method - studies with a pragmatic stance practice mixed method, including quantitative and qualitative research. According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), this philosophical approach generates practical and feasible solutions through factual results presented by the quantitative method and insights provided by the qualitative method.

### **5.2.4 Study Philosophy**

This research is inclined towards the positivist's research philosophy or paradigm. As stated earlier, post-positivism employs quantitative tools and techniques in conducting research that stresses measuring and counting, and, according to Jakobsen (2013), the importance of empirical data and the scientific method is emphasised. The research is motivated by descriptive correlational features of the constructs in the research.

The post-positivism philosophy was employed as the study's axiology to ensure the autonomy of the internal belief of the researcher and help to obtain a critical understanding of the empirical observations acquired.

Epistemology denotes the philosophy of knowledge and how we acquire it (Krauss, 2005). The study utilised questionnaires to obtain knowledge as the primary data source. The ontology of the study implies the standpoint of reality and is related to epistemology (Krauss, 2005); therefore, the research scenario mirrored an objective reality that is deductively emanated with known probability from empirical data.

Since the research needs objectivity and is free from bias, the researcher was independent of the researched setting, and therefore the post-positivism philosophy was the most relevant research philosophy or paradigm to apply in this study.

### **5.3 Research Approach**

Selection of the research approach is an essential step in an effective research strategy to establish the validity of social research (Creswell, 2007). Therefore, it is essential to review the various prevalent approaches in social science research. The researchers' approach is subjective according to the paradigm employed. In fact, the selected approach can influence the design and strategy of the study (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) suggest three different research approaches, including inductive, deductive, and a mix of these two approaches.

The significance and the positioning of the hypotheses in this investigation can be the critical distinction in one's preference for the deductive approach over the inductive approach. According to the methodological literature, the deductive approach ensures the validity of assumptions regarding the proposed hypotheses, while the inductive approach helps generate and build new theories. Furthermore, the abductive approach usually addresses the weaknesses linked with the inductive and deductive approaches, where it starts with surprising facts, and the research process is devoted to the explanation.

Exploring these approaches ultimately guided our determination of the appropriate approach for this research. Therefore, the following section details these approaches and methods and explains the selected approach and method, as supported by the literature.

### **5.3.1 Deductive and Inductive Approaches**

The deductive research approach moves from the common to the specific where it starts from the theory, tests the theory, and amends the original theory (Burney, 2008; Locke, 2007; Nola & Sankey, 2007). The deductive approach allows the researcher to select a theory or a hypothesis to solve a specific problem, then tests the theory or hypothesis through empirical observations. In this approach, the outcome is established based on facts and evidence available from the previous literature; therefore, arguments are remitted for the reasoning for a fact, where these arguments have been derived from established laws, rules, or regulations.

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) advocate that the deductive approach employs quantitative techniques to explain the causal relationships among variables through established theories. According to Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008), this approach acknowledges theory as the foundation of knowledge, and the process of deduction advances from the theory to the empirical test. However, this approach mainly involves primary data collection where the researcher is required to be objective.

Inductive research, however, moves from the specific to the common, where concepts and theories are developed based on empirical observations of a curious phenomenon (Locke, 2007). This approach can be utilised to overcome the limitations of the deductive approach, where the inductive approach can go deeper and study a phenomenon in depth.

According to Burney (2008), the inductive research approach employs more general and broader ways and analyses of more specific concepts. In this approach, a predetermined theory is not required to carry out the research; consequently, it allows flexibility for the investigator. This bottom-up approach systematically moves from observation, flowing patterns, crafting tentative hypotheses, and forming theory. Furthermore, the inductive approach is more appropriate for constructing hypotheses because research begins with the collection of information to comprehend the phenomenon of interest (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). In this interpretation, some contend that a hypothesis is generated through observational research, but not the other way around. Thus, Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) consider that the researchers initiate clear evidence to generate hypothetical explorations.

In general, it can be suggested that the inductive approach assesses why a specific thing or phenomenon is appearing, whereas the deductive approach tries to explain what is going on (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). However, Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) suggest that the deductive approach has

been the most prominent sociology approach, which helps build up the theoretical learning base. In this study, the deductive approach has been employed to test the relationships between leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance in the resort hotels in the Maldives.

## **5.4 Research Design**

Research design can be expressed as the chronicle of evidence-based practices, procedures, and standards that deliver the basic framework and tools to investigate (Majid, 2018). Yin (2013) states that research design is an overall strategy to combine different study constituents logically and reasonably to achieve a study's objectives. Therefore, it is the blueprint or the design for the research's critical elements, including data collection, measurement, and analysis. This can be the investigation structure that helps get the answers to the research questions and assists the researcher in effectively managing the limited resources by selecting the crucial choices in methodology (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Supporting this notion, McGivern (2006) states that the main objective of a research design is to arrange the investigation to deliver the proof and evidence for the research questions as clearly, accurately, and unambiguously as possible.

Meanwhile, it is not only a framework for the research, but it can be a roadmap for the research (Kuada, 2015; Kumar, 2019). Furthermore, it discloses the researchers' priorities and the type of research, whether descriptive, explanatory, or correlational. The researcher's priorities can be reflected in the study's purpose and will be directed into the research questions. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009), the methodological literature categorises research purpose into three main categories: descriptive, exploratory, and explanatory. However, they suggest that a study may have multiple purposes; for instance, a research question can be both explanatory and descriptive, or it can be descriptive and exploratory. Exploratory research is conducted in areas where few or no studies are available for information (Thomas & Lawal, 2020).

As justified earlier, this research sits within the quantitative paradigm; however, several research designs are available as choices within the quantitative paradigm. The specific type largely depends on the research problem and data collection timeframes. As the main aim of this study is to describe and establish the relationships between leadership styles and organisational performance rather than establishing causal relationships, the study is correlational. More specifically, the study is cross-sectional correlational, as data is collected only at one point (Creswell, 2007). This type of study design

is widespread in understanding the various phenomenon in developmental psychology, social sciences and education (Creswell, 2007). Likewise, as the literature suggests, cross-sectional correlational studies are predominantly used in the business and hospitality industry as well (Mahmoud et al. (2022), Spector (2019), Tharenou et al., (2007)). Therefore, a cross-sectional correlational study design was adopted in this study.

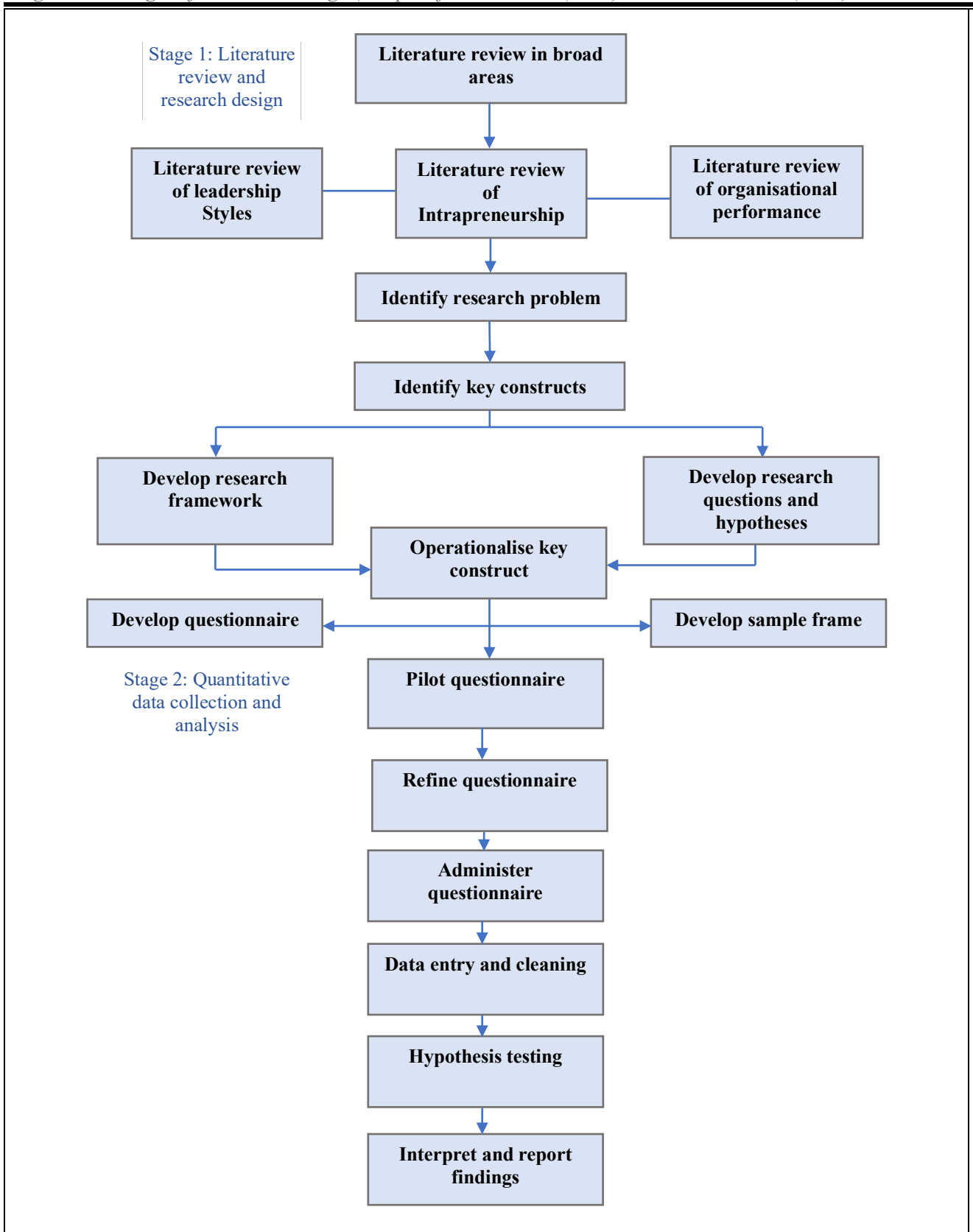
Before the data collection, the research begins with a comprehensive literature review on leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance (Figure 5.1). The literature review process enabled the identification of critical constructs, developed the research's conceptual framework, formulated research objectives and research questions, and generated the hypotheses. Consequently, the final constructs that need to be integrated into the model were operationalised, and the research instruments were developed. The final step of the first phase was identifying the sampling frame for the data collection.

The next stage starts with pilot testing and data collection. The pilot testing process is detailed in Section 6. The pilot testing process was carried out to improve the questionnaire's clarity and accuracy and better understand the questionnaire's format, design, content comprehension, and expected completion time. Some adjustments and modifications were brought to the survey questionnaire. The administration of survey forms includes the distribution of the questionnaires to potential participants and answering their queries. After collecting the completed forms from respondents, data analysis preceded data entry to data cleaning. The next step involves testing the proposed hypotheses.

The final stage of the research was interpreting and reporting the results. The results are presented in Chapter 7.



Figure 5.1: Stages of Research Design (Adapted from Neuman (2006); Creswell & Clark (2007))



## **5.5 Research Method**

According to Creswell (2014), research method can be categorised into three broad strands, including the qualitative (case study, narrative research, grounded theory, phenomenology, and ethnographies), quantitative (experimental and non-experimental), and mixed methods (explanatory sequential, convergent, and exploratory sequential and transformative, multiphase, or embedded). However, when classifying the research designs, it gets overlapped. For example, a case study investigation can be quantitative and qualitative due to the nature of the variables in the study and how the researcher measures the variables.

### **5.5.1 Quantitative and Qualitative Methods**

Quantitative research is commonly referred to as a systemic measurement of quantity employing some form of statistical test. Watson (2015) describes quantitative research as a systematic investigation of a social phenomenon using statistical data. This method can be appropriate to interpret a phenomenon where it can communicate in terms of numbers. According to Watson (2015), this method adopts to study, measure, and analyse data relationships. Therefore, the number of differences can be listed when comparing the two research methods.

The quantitative method mainly considers the ‘confirmatory scientific method’, emphasising testing hypotheses and theories (Antwi & Hamza, 2015, p. 220). To do this, the hypotheses are first stated, and then the researcher will test if the empirical data support the hypotheses. Quantitative researchers typically attempt their investigation with the assumption of objectivity (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). They seek to be as neutral as possible and put their best efforts into evading human biases. Hittleman and Simon (1997) state that quantitative research collects data through questionnaires, surveys, and experiments where data are presented in a number format for easy statistical analysis. In these studies, variables are measured in relation to the subject of the studies and the relationships between variables are expressed through different statistical tests such as frequencies, correlations, and differences between means.

Qualitative research is commonly an exploratory investigation where it is unstructured, and the data is collected from a small sample. The critical function of this method is to provide an in-depth

understanding of a phenomenon of interest. Supporting this view, Antwi and Hamza (2015) assert that qualitative researchers mainly follow the exploratory scientific method where the researcher explains the observations locally and develops new hypotheses and theories. This method is standard when there is limited information or insufficient knowledge on a subject. Qualitative researchers assert that knowledge and reality are socially constructed (e.g., Guba & Lincoln, 1989), and that human behaviour respects social norms.

For this reason, qualitative researchers prefer to study individual perspectives and insights to understand a subject in depth. Therefore, the researcher becomes the main instrument for data collection in this method, where he/she is practically involved in the data collection process. Where quantitative research presents its results in a numerical or statistical data format, qualitative research presents its findings in a descriptive format with words. According to Keegan (2009), qualitative investigations particularly acknowledge and give importance to their validity, reliability, and methodology. This could be because the treatment of subjective perspectives on a phenomenon can influence the research findings. Therefore, the data collected for qualitative research produces relative trends and themes depending on the texts and words but not numbers or statistics (Patten, 2009). Silverman (2000) suggests that the quantitative method is superior because it is value-free from these two scientific research methods. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) reiterate this notion and suggest that the quantitative method is more valuable than the qualitative method because of its methodology. It proposes more valuable descriptions of the phenomena observed and clarifies the potential relationships between descriptive reviews, longitudinal signs of progress, and correlational factors.

Mixed-method research is the employment of both quantitative and qualitative methods when the researcher has less confidence with regard to employing a single method to provide insights into the research subject (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2010). Therefore, both methods are employed in the data collection process to postulate a more comprehensive understanding of the research subject (Creswell, 2014). The application of this method depends on the purpose and research question.

The research has utilised the quantitative method to study the relationships between leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance in the resort hotels of the Maldives.

Table 5.2 below displays a summary of the main differences between the quantitative and qualitative methods in research.

Table 5.2: Comparison of Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods (Adapted from Antwi &amp; Hamza, 2015).

<b>Orientation</b>	<b>Qualitative</b>	<b>Quantitative</b>
<b>Paradigm/Worldview</b> (assumption about world)	Positivism/Realism	Interpretivism/Idealism
<b>Research Purpose</b> (rationale)	Numerical description Causal explanation Prediction	Subjective description Empathetic understanding Exploration
<b>Ontology</b> (nature of reality)		
<b>Epistemology</b> (theory of knowledge)	Dualist/Objectivist	Subjectivist
<b>Methodology</b> (aims of scientific investigation)	Experimental/Manipulative	Hermeneutical/Dialectical
<b>Research Methods</b> (techniques and tools)	Empirical examination, Measurement, Hypothesis testing, Randomisation, Blinding, Structured protocols, Questionnaires	Ethnographies, Case studies, Narrative research, Interviews, Focus group discussion, Observations, Field notes, Recordings, and Filming
<b>Scientific Method</b> (role of theory)	Deductive approach, testing of theory	Inductive approach, generation of theory
<b>Nature of Data Instruments</b>	Variables Structured and collection instruments Validated data	Words, images, categories In-depth interviews, participant observation, field notes, and open-ended questions
<b>Data Analysis</b>	Identify statistical relationships among variables	Use descriptive data, search for patterns, themes and holistic features and appreciate variations
<b>Results</b>	Generalisable findings	Particularistic findings; provision of insider viewpoint
<b>Final Report</b>	Formal statistical report with: Correlations, Comparisons of means, Reporting of statistical significance of findings.	Informal narrative report

### 5.5.2 Justification for a Quantitative Study

The objectives of this study were to determine the managers' leadership styles and the employees' intrapreneurship behaviour and establish the extent of the relationships between leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance using simple linear and multiple regression models. The study applied a quantitative method and descriptive correlational design because it has been acknowledged to be the most efficient and effective method in attaining the desired objectives of this research. The quantitative method is the preferred choice for this research because its intention lies in testing a theory. According to Curtis, Comiskey and Dempsey (2016), the critical function of correlational research is to examine data or information and translate the links between the variables and the degree of strengths through emerging patterns and trends. On the other hand, Creswell (2009) suggests that quantitative descriptive correlational research employs questionnaires and surveys for academic scientific investigation, allowing inferences to be outlined on a sample representing a larger

audience. Therefore, a survey was applied as a self-assessing instrument to collect participant data to study the relationship and strength between the variables.

There are several reasons that the quantitative method is preferred in this research. Firstly, it allows data to be arranged so that objective numerical data can be well assessed through a particular statistical application (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). Secondly, the accuracy and the effectiveness of quantitative research depend on its empirical observations, reliability, the validity of the instruments used for data collection, the accuracy of responses and the appropriateness of operationalisation of the different constructs allowing for the process of quantifying the data (Creswell, 2014; McCusker and Gunaydin, 2015). Therefore, this study intends to be as objective as possible to employ a sufficient population representation. On the other hand, qualitative research brings a subjective interpretation in the form of the conclusion to the collected data's findings, which can vary according to the personal judgements of the researcher and the perimeters he/she set for the investigation (Rahman, 2017).

The study aimed to exploit a suitable instrument to collect pertinent data and information about the subject. This research intends to analyse the statistical significance of the relationships among the variables; thus, subjective perspectives and biased interpretations were minimised. The data was then processed to test the hypotheses and measure the association and the degree of the relationship between leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance, utilising a statistical tool (Rahman, 2017). Since this study intends to identify the most effective leadership style between the transformational and transactional leadership styles that affect organisational performance, this method should be the most appropriate because Lodico, Spauldin and Voegtel (2010) argue that quantitative research facilitates the identification of the most influential independent variable that impacts the dependent variable.

One of the benefits of the quantitative method is objective evaluation. Therefore, the data was assessed objectively, and inferences were drawn based on the results of the statistical analysis (Creswell and Creswell, 2017). This method ensured the participants' anonymity; thus, it helped to minimise the bias since their identity was kept in confidence for the researcher and the organisation to which the participants belonged. A qualitative approach, in contrast, can be biased due to preconceived views about leadership styles or the level of understanding of concepts and their applications. This method requires a personal approach, allowing the researcher to include non-verbal responses in explaining the feedback. The interview process for a qualitative study can create multiple issues relating to participants' anonymity, as participants may be less approachable or truthful in their answers if they believe that honest answers are not the most suitable or acceptable. The mixed-method approach shares

the benefits and limitations of both methods. Some of the most common limitations of the qualitative method include subjectivity and lack of anonymity. Even though the mixed method allows a practical follow-up study to compare the results with the participants, the limitations will continue (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015; Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

## **5.6 Data Sources**

Data for studies can be amassed mainly through primary and secondary sources. The selection of a data collection method primarily depends on the aim and objectives of the research under consideration. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2015), both approaches are equally crucial for the study and provide distinct perspectives and further understanding of the topic. The choice of the type of data for the research improves reliability and validity and strengthens the result of the study, ultimately enhancing its credibility (Malhotra, Birks & Wills, 2012). This investigation utilises both primary and secondary data.

Primary data refers to original data that researchers gather to study their subjects of interest, which may not have been used before in any other research (Malhotra, Birks & Wills, 2012; Bryman & Bell, 2015). Primary data could be qualitative or quantitative and is generally related to a specific subject (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2015). Researchers may employ interviews, case studies, surveys, or questionnaires to collect such data.

Secondary data sometimes refers to desk data collected by other researchers for various purposes and are obtainable from books, reports, journals etc. Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2015) define secondary data as published or written data in government reports, journals, media content and other publications from various organisations. Secondary data has advantages over primary data in terms of accessibility, availability, cost, and time (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2015; Malhotra, Birks & Wills, 2012). However, it has some disadvantages, such as issues related to its reliability and relevance to the research purpose and adopted methodology for collecting and processing those data (Malhotra, Birks & Wills, 2012).

Both primary and secondary data were utilised in this research. Primary data were collected through questionnaires which allow for respondents' anonymity, scalability, data accuracy, and flexibility to the participants regarding when and where to complete the survey forms. This research probed various secondary data sources that are obtainable in the literature review, and the foundation of the primary

data collection for this research is instituted according to the understanding of the subject through the available secondary sources.

## **5.7 Research Strategy**

Research strategy refers to the roadmap for systematically examining a subject or a phenomenon of interest (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). It is the general plan that the researcher conducts to answer the proposed questions and a more straightforward strategy for the research, which is highly critical for any investigation (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009, p. 141). According to Al-Ababneh (2020, p. 87), a research strategy is “a general plan of how to answer the research question(s) that includes clarifying research objectives, specifying the sources of data collection, and considering research constraints”.

Different authors propose various research strategies that could be utilised in studying the subjects under consideration; therefore, researchers have the choice of employing different strategies, irrespective of whether the research nature is exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory, even though some of them are deductively inclined while others are more inductive in approach (Yin, 2013). None of these strategies is superior to any other; however, the choice of the strategy depends on the research question, its aim and objectives, existing knowledge about the subject, available time and resources, and the researchers’ philosophical stance (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009).

Yin (1984, 2009) proposed three conditions to look into when choosing a strategy for the study: research question type, degree of control that the investigator has over the behavioural events, and the degree of focus on historical or contemporary events under study. Based on these criteria, the researcher can choose any best strategy of interest. However, Yin (2003b) and Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) believe significant overlaps exist among the strategies; thus, the researcher must consider the most promising strategy for their specific research. Consequently, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) and Yin (2009) argue that the most significant issue related to research strategy is not the name or labelling of the strategy but instead selecting the appropriate strategy to meet the study’s objectives and answer the research question.

Based on this argument, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) distinguished seven research strategies, including survey, ethnography, action research, experiment, archival research, grounded theory and

case study, while Yin (2009) suggested five main research strategies: survey, case study, experimental study, archival analysis, and historical research. Some of these strategies are discussed briefly in the next section.

### **5.7.1 Survey Research**

Survey research is one of the most widely utilised methods to investigate business or management research (Adams *et al.*, 2007), sociological or psychological phenomena (Singleton & Straits, 2009) by employing a statistical survey, asking questions face to face or via telephone interview, or questionnaires to collect information about the actions and thinking of individuals using standardised procedures. Survey research is practical to explore the conditions of an existing community, document the features of a population, and understand the pattern of a community view. According to Rates (2004), survey research is a strategy that can be utilised to determine and explain an applied phenomenon. In this method, the researcher often develops questionnaires to simplify the questions that need answers and select samples to investigate as the core component of the survey research. Historically, survey research includes large samples in collecting data, and the primary objective of such surveys is to collect data or information that define the characteristics of a large group or more significant sample of individuals relatively quickly (Ponto, 2015); similarly, a sample could be on a tiny scale only.

### **5.7.2 Historical Research**

Historical research allows a systematic examination of previous events to explore an event or a phenomenon, including interpretation, to recapture the nuances, personalities, and ideas that influenced those events. Historical research is thus the act of researching the events that have occurred historically or communicating an understanding of past events. This strategy not only seeks to explore a specific historical event or to look back at the consequences of events in the past but also to relate it to the present and future (Mohajan, 2018).

Kerlinger (1972) describes the term ‘historical research’ “as a critical investigation of events, development and experiences of the past, careful consideration of past testimonies from the perspective of information sources validity and subsequent interpretation of the concerned testimonies” (Špiláčková, 2012, p. 23). Špiláčková (2012) argues that the primary function of historical research is



to collect all the available facts and sources on the study subject and then utilise scientific methods in classifying, arranging, clarifying, evaluating, elaborating upon, and publishing them.

### **5.7.3 Experimentation**

Experimentation is a very successful tool and has been recognised as one of the practical tools in physical research because it can be reliable and efficient in collecting data to verify or nullify theories (Adams *et al.*, 2007, p. 110). Experimentation is used to determine the effectiveness of certain factors on a response variable by changing those factors under controlled conditions and in a controlled manner. Adams *et al.* (2007, p. 110) state that this strategy is rarely used in business and management research due to the difficulty in controlling the influential variables in experimentation.

### **5.7.4 Case Study**

The case study strategy can be employed to describe, explain, or explore a situation or a phenomenon that occurs in a natural context as it appears (Yin, 2009). These can assist in explaining or comprehending the “causal links and pathways resulting from a new policy initiative or service development” (Crowe *et al.*, 2011, p. 4). The case study strategy allows the collection of detailed information from single or numerous sources on a specific subject. According to Adams *et al.* (2007, p. 112), case studies are employed “to study particular phenomena in particular settings”. This strategy usually involves a comprehensive contextual investigation of an individual, group, place, thing, organisation, unit, or event in exploring underlying beliefs or principles (Schoch, 2020, p. 246). It allows the collection of different kinds of data through interviews, documents, surveys, and various other sources.

According to Schoch (2020, p. 249), a case study’s research questions can be both qualitative and quantitative; however, similar to other qualitative research studies, most of those questions concentrate on terms including “explain, explore, describe and understand”. Case studies allow us to comprehend the case or the circumstance from a distinctive viewpoint. In explaining the use of the case study strategy, Crowe *et al.* (2011, p. 4) state that:

The case study approach provides information on more explanatory ‘how’, ‘what’ and ‘why’ questions, such as how the intervention is being implemented and received on the ground.....

can offer additional insights into what gaps exist in its delivery or why one implementation strategy might be chosen over another.

(Crowe *et al.*, 2011, p. 4)

According to Lee and Lings (2008, p. 200), a case is most referred to as “a single social setting”. In detailing the phenomena, Stake (2000, p. 435) defined a *case study* as a choice of what is to be studied but “not a methodological choice” and can be studied in multiple ways. Stake (1995) and Yin (2003b) classified case studies differently. For example, Stake (1995) characterised three main types of case studies: intrinsic, instrumental, and collective. An *intrinsic* case study refers to studying a unique phenomenon where the researcher describes the distinctiveness of the occurrence or the fact that differentiates it from others. In contrast, *instrumental* case study analyses a specific case (that could be better than others) in studying a broader perspective of a problem. *Collective* case study refers to examining multiple cases concurrently or sometimes chronologically, intending to produce a more comprehensive understanding and appreciation of a precise issue.

Yin (2003b) further differentiates between single or holistic case studies and multiple-case studies. He defines a single or holistic case study as a study focusing on the same issue in a single setting but that may coincide with different units of the case. According to Yin (1994), a single case study strategy is often used in confirming or challenging a theory or sometimes to characterise an extreme or exclusive case which is also ideal for indicative cases, in that the researcher may have the opportunity to access a phenomenon that was previously inaccessible. The holistic case study strategy helps to comprehend “one unique/extreme/critical case” (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 550).

On the other hand, multiple case studies or collective case studies involve more than one case study with contextual differences. In a multiple-case study, the study employs several cases and studies the similarities or differences among the cases. If research employs a dissimilar or more than one case to study, it is called a multiple case study and is often associated with various experiments.

Yin (2009) further classified case studies depending on the research type employed in the study. For example, research using an exploratory case study is used for deductive approach research, while explanatory cases are employed to explain a phenomenon such as an organisational business process. Descriptive case studies are to describe the effects or impacts of a variable on a dependent variable.

A case study strategy in research encompasses a deep investigation and intense analysis of a complex phenomenon involving a life of units having a vision of determining a generalisation on a broader population (Jude, 2010). This strategy often has troubles with generalisability; nevertheless, the insights yielded from this strategy are useful for other critical determinations (Jude, 2010). Johansson

(2003, p. 8) states that “if the findings are generalised, it is done by audiences through ‘naturalistic generalisation’ ”. He believes the outcomes may be specific for this group alone; however, the research may be replicated in similar groups. However, Schoch (2020) contends that samples obtained from probability samples representing a population in quantitative research can be generalised to the population and that it never matters who the individual units are, though the sample is required to be statistically representative of a bigger population.

### **5.7.5 Justification for Adopting a Case Study Strategy Research**

The study has utilised a descriptive correlational and a case study design, as Yin (2003b, 2009) characterised, which is an empirical investigation of an existing circumstance in depth within its natural context, mainly when the contextual boundaries and the phenomenon are not evident. This involves answering the research questions (in Chapter 1), addressing the research context, the resort islands of the Maldives, the leadership of resort managers, and the intrapreneurship of resort employees.

The resort sector of the Maldives was identified as an appropriate case study because the case (leadership style and intrapreneurship at the resorts of Maldives) has intrinsic interest to the researcher, as it appears. The resorts (sub-units) employed in the research are considered homogeneous, contemplating their products and services in terms of natural and environmental outlook and fundamental business functions. Coherent with the research goals and objectives and to achieve a superior richness of the data, the study results are merged and presented as a single case, the ‘Maldives tourist resorts’.

A case study strategy has been utilised in this study because it intends to study a situation or a phenomenon that occurs in a natural context as it appears (leadership style and intrapreneurship at the resorts of the Maldives) (Johansson, 2003). According to Yin (2003b), this strategy is appropriate for this research because (a) the researcher wants to cover the contextual conditions since the resort hotels in the Maldives are believed to be little different from the majority of resorts around the world and are significant to the phenomenon we intend to study, (b) the researcher cannot manipulate the study participants’ behaviour, and (c) the study borders are not well-defined from the occurrence and the environment. Moreover, the study intends to answer the question of ‘what’ questions, as suggested by Crowe *et al.* (2011, p.4), by “offering additional insights into what gaps exist in its delivery”. In this study, the case is the resort managers’ leadership style and employees’ intrapreneurship behaviour; however, the case could not be perfectly reflected by eliminating the resort context, namely the

organisational setting, the environment they live in and spending their on/off-duty time. Therefore, it is anticipated that the managers' leadership style and employees' intrapreneurship behaviours were developed and utilised congruent to these settings.

## **5.8 Data Collection Techniques**

*Data collection* is a process that follows a systematic practice of information collected about the sub-categories of the problem of interest to research using various techniques. Black (2002) states that data is collected to acquire relevant and sufficient information to solve a problem or answer a question of interest. Data collection starts when the researcher determines where and from whom they will collect the information. The researcher's choice of data collection technique depends on the nature of the research problem, research framework, research design, and available resources.

According to Yin (1989), there are four standard techniques for data collection in case study strategy, including observation, questionnaire, interviews and archives. The data collection was reflective to allow the participants to express their experiences, opinions, and perceptions about the most effective leadership style to foster intrapreneurship and improve organisational performance in the resorts under study.

The researcher adopted web-based questionnaires among the four types of surveys. This technique was used for several reasons. The printed questionnaire is one of the most effective tools to collect data from the resorts on the researcher's experience; therefore, a questionnaire was developed and shared with some potential participants for pilot testing. From the participants' feedback in the pilot testing, the researcher understood the limitations in distributing and handling printed questionnaires due to COVID measures in the resorts; therefore, a web-based form was developed. The form was developed in Google, separately in English and Dhivehi, for the convenience of the participants. This method is convenient and cost-effective; however, it is time-consuming.

### **5.8.1 Questionnaire**

The tool employed to collect data for this research is a structured online questionnaire. The questionnaire began with an introductory statement outlining the research purpose and ensuring

respondents' confidentiality and anonymity. The questionnaire was developed into four main sections to address the research objectives. The first section reports the leadership styles to resort managers commonly practice among transformational and transactional leadership styles. The second section was designed to capture data about employees' intrapreneurship behaviour. The third section collected data about the level of organisational performance of resorts. The final section reports the respondents' demographic information, and the organisations better understand the respondents and resort situations of the Maldives.

The study used validated instruments for all the variables. Keller (2015) and Thompson and Panacek (2007) recommend employing validated instruments over new survey instruments whenever possible because of increased validity, eliminating potential misunderstanding for participants, and minimising the wastage of time and resources on the scale development process.

Participants' responses were measured using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 'Strong Agreement' to 'Strong Disagreement' in leadership style measures and 'Strongly Disagree' to 'Strongly Agree' for other measures. Struwig and Stead (2013, p. 98) argue that scaled-response questions are more suitable for collecting data on people's perceptions, attitudes, and behaviour. Applying the Likert scale will help avoid dichotomous multiple-choice and open-ended questions (Kankisingi, 2019).

A written questionnaire has several advantages over disadvantages; where van der Velde, Jansen, and Anderson (2004) articulate the incurred cost, study timeframe, the anonymity of participants, and the simplicity in gathering and processing data as significant advantages of the questionnaire. This study has cast-off participants' biographical data, attitudes, opinions, and behaviour data to ensure that the research questions are answered well.

### **5.8.1.1 Questionnaire Designing and Measurements**

A well-designed questionnaire enhances the validity and reliability of the collected data and increases the response rate (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). According to Wrenn *et al.* (2002), questionnaire design and measurement are essential phases of the development process of the questionnaire. Thus, they stressed the attention required in this process, including creating, writing, and reviewing the questionnaire items, layout, and content.

Three different survey instruments have been utilised for data collection. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X Short, Rater form) of Avolio and Bass (2004), the Intrapreneurship Scale

developed by Bolton and Lane (2012), and an instrument developed from combined items from the instruments of Chen, Tsou and Huang (2009) and Avci, Madanoglu, and Okumus (2011) to measure organisational performance have utilised in measuring the variables of the study. The MLQ and intrapreneurship measurements were utilised to measure the predictor variables of transformational and transactional leadership styles of resort managers and intrapreneurship of resort employees to predict the outcome variables of the organisational performance of the resorts. A demographic questionnaire was also employed along with these instruments to collect demographic data about the participants (see Appendix B).

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X-Short) was a copyrighted instrument developed by Bass and Avolio (2004). The researcher sought copyright approval for the instrument from the Mind Garden Company in the USA (Appendix C). The revised MLQ form (MLQ 5x-short) measures transformational, transactional, and non-transactional leadership styles, described as Bass and Avolio's (2004) full-range leadership model (illustrated in Chapter 3). It also can be utilised to estimate leadership outcomes. Scholars have considered the MLQ instrument one of the leading and more reliable instruments to measure the renowned leadership styles known as transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. According to Tejeda, Scanura and Pillal (2001, p. 31), it is 'one of the most widely used instruments to measure transformational and transactional leadership behaviours in the organisational sciences'.

Considering the reviews and assessments regarding the applicability and usage, the instrument of MLQ has undertaken several modifications since its inception in 1985. The current version of MLQ (5X-Short) consists of 45 items, whereby items 1-36 measure the dominant leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles) and items 37-45 measure extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction (Avolio & Bass 2004). The instrument consists of close-ended questions and uses a five-point scale to rate managers' behaviours as perceived by their followers (MLQ 5X-Short Rater Form) and managers themselves (MLQ 5X-Short Leader Form).

For several reasons, the MLQ (5X-Short Form) has been employed in this research as an instrument to measure leadership styles. Firstly, MLQ can measure a broad range of leadership styles and is practical and suitable for implementation at all levels of an organisation and across all organisations (Avolio & Bass, 2003). Employing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X-Short) helps to measure the five dimensions of transformational leadership style detailed in Chapters 3 and 4 (Idealised Influenced (Attributed), Idealised Influenced (Behavioural), Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and Individualised Consideration) and three dimensions of transactional

leadership style (Contingent Reward, Management-by-exception (Active), and Management-by-exception (Passive)).

Second is its ability to be used as a tool for professional development and comprehensive measurement abilities (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The instruments can be used at different levels of the organisation and can measure perceptions about the effectiveness of a team leader, supervisor, manager, or executive in an organisation or a group. In non-supervisory assignments, leaders' behaviour can be rated by co-workers. Likewise, to rate the leadership styles and evaluate the leaders or managers, this instrument is practical for use by peers, subordinates, or through direct reports in all organisations and industries. Customers or clients could be a source to serve MLQ ratings (Avolio and Bass, 2004).

Finally, the MLQ (5X-Short) is a well-known instrument among scholars and researchers and is utilised worldwide in approximately 200 research programmes, including Doctoral and Master's dissertations (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The instrument confirmed an excellent construct validity (Bass & Avolio, 1994, 2000; Antonakis & House, 2002; Vandenberghe, 2002; Antonakis *et al.*, 2003; Hartog, van Muijen & Koopman, 1997; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008), demonstrates that the factors of MLQ are suitable for application universally across cultures (Abdualrub & Alghamdi, 2012; Al-Hosis *et al.*, 2013; Suliman, 2009) and is usually high in reliability (Babbie, 2009, Muenjohn & Armstrong (2008). Therefore, the instrument is an appropriate choice for this study.

The intrapreneurship instrument developed by Bolton and Lane (2012) was adopted to measure employees' intrapreneurship. The instrument contemplates three dimensions, including innovativeness, risk-taking, and proactiveness. These three dimensions were constructed on Covin and Slevin's (1989) and Miller's (1983) conceptualisations and the questions were focused on individual-level competencies instead of organisational ones. This instrument has been widely utilised in other studies (Gawke, Gorgievski & Bakker, 2017; Arunga, 2017; Schachtebeck, 2018; Kraus *et al.*, 2019, Koe, 2016; Ibrahim & Lucky, 2014). The factors of the instrument confirm its reliability with a Cronbach's alpha greater than 0.7 (Bolton & Lane, 2012) and show consistent results across the studies. Keller (2015) claims that it is imperative to adopt an existing instrument to ensure the compatibility of the outcome and eliminate time and resource wastage on scale development.

The variable of organisational performance was measured using two constructs, including financial and non-financial performance measures. In this study, financial performance was measured utilising the instrument of Chen, Tsou and Huang (2009). This measurement consists of items to measure organisational profitability, profit objectives, sales objectives, market share objectives, and cost

reduction. The measurement established a strong reliability coefficient (Alpha = 0.946; CFA factor loading ranges = .85-.94) (Chen, Tsou and Huang, 2009). Weng, Chen and Chen (2015) also confirmed the instrument's reliability, which has been employed in several other studies (Sharma & Bhat, 2020; Grisseemann, Plank & Brunner-Sperdin, 2013; Weng, Chen & Chen, 2015).

The non-financial measurement was a combination of items by Chen, Tsou and Huang (2009) and Avci, Madanoglu, and Okumus (2011). The items adopted from Chen, Tsou and Huang (2009) include improving existing customer loyalty, attracting a significant number of new customers, the company's perceived image, and maintaining a good reputation. Chen, Tsou and Huang (2009) claim that the measurement established a strong reliability coefficient (Alpha = 0.932; CFA factor loading ranges = .83-.92). The items adopted from the instrument of Avci, Madanoglu, and Okumus (2011) were two items about employee satisfaction ('Employee satisfaction in our organisation has increased', and 'Employee turnover in our organisation has decreased'). The author also claims strong reliability on these items.

All the factors used in this research were designed using a Likert 0 to 4 estimation scale format. In leadership instrument, 0 denotes 'Not at All', 1 denotes 'Once in a While', 2 denotes 'Sometimes', 3 denotes 'Fairly Often', and 4 denotes 'Frequently, If Not Always'. In Intrapreneurship and Organisational Performance instrument, 0 denotes 'Strongly Disagree', 1 denotes 'Disagree', 2 denotes 'Neither', 3 denotes 'Agree', and 4 denotes 'Strongly Agree'. The five-point Likert scale was utilised to test the exogenous factors. According to (Sekaran 2003), the scale is suitable for evaluating the differences in individuals' perceptions and attitudes. Secondly, the Likert scale has been identified as one of the most common question formats for obtaining opinion data (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). It is also an easy way to understand the questions and respond. Finally, the Likert scale is simple for coding and is easy to utilise in various statistical methods (see Malhotra, 2010).

Since the original instruments used in this research were developed in English, this questionnaire was designed for people who understand English well. However, the survey was carried out in the resorts of the Maldives, where some may not comprehend the content of the questionnaire particularly well. Therefore, the researcher found the need for a questionnaire in the local language, Dhivehi, to allow for a better understanding and broader participation of different levels of resort employees in the organisation.

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012), if accurate answers are expected from the participants, they need to understand the questions. Hence, the researcher followed the proposed



translation techniques of surveys by Usunier (1998, cited in Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012, pp. 383-5). In translating the surveys, Usunier (1998) recommends that attention be given to the glossary meaning, idiomatic meaning, experiential meaning, grammar, and syntax. Usunier (1998) also recommends a parallel translation method to ensure the translated version accurately describes the survey wordings. Therefore, the translated questionnaire was revised by two independent and experienced management doctors teaching in universities who are strong in English and Dhivehi. The revised translated versions were compared and amended to ensure the rigour and clarity of the text, including grammar and syntax. In addition, special attention was given to the layout and design of the survey, which helped attract participants and reduce the time consumed by them.

The employed questionnaire was developed by leveraging existing scales in the literature, and endeavours were made to bring appropriate changes following the participants’ dialect and work environment. The scales used in this research are summarised in Table 5.4, presented below.

Table 5.3: Research Instruments

Variable Type	Construct	Referenced Standard Instrument Scale	Dimensions	Scale	Comment on Instrument
Independent	Transformational Leadership	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X-Short) (Bass and Avolio, 2004)	1. Idealised Influence (Attributed) 2. Idealised Influence (Behavioural) 3. Inspirational Motivation 4. Intellectual Stimulation 5. Individualised Consideration	Five-point Likert scale (Not At All to Frequently, If Not Always)	Widely validated construct (Avolio <i>et al.</i> , 1991) Cronbach’s alpha of 0.81 (Jung <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
Independent	Transactional Leadership	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X-Short) (Bass and Avolio, 2004)	1. Contingent Reward 2. Management-by-exception (Active) 3. Management-by-exception (Passive)	Five-point Likert scale (Not At All to Frequently, If Not Always)	Cronbach’s alpha of 0.84 (Gong, 2017)
Independent and Moderating	Intrapreneurship	Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation Scale (IEO), Intrapreneurship Scale (Individual) (Bolton and Lane, 2012)	1. Risk-taking 2. Innovativeness 3. Proactiveness	Five-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree)	Cronbach’s alpha of 0.70 (Bolton & Lane, 2012)

Dependent	Organisational Performance	Organisational Performance measures (Chen, Tsou and Huang, 2009; Avci, Madanoglu, and Okumus, 2011)	1. Financial Performance 2. Non-Financial Performance (Customer retention, Reputation and Employee Satisfaction)	Five-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree)	Cronbach's alpha for financial performance items was 0.95, and for non-financial performance items, .93 (Chen, Tsou & Huang, 2009). Cronbach alpha for the two non-financial performance items derived from Avci, Madanoglu, and Okumus (2011) was 0.74
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### 5.8.1.2 Pre-testing and Pilot testing

Although the questionnaire was developed using existing instruments, there is a need to have the findings rechecked by experts. Creswell (2003) and DeVellis (2012) advocate that experts and knowledgeable persons must check the findings to ascertain the accuracy and content validity. Therefore, three academic and industry experts shared and reviewed the pre-test results.

Pre-testing denotes testing the developed questionnaire or the survey form on a limited sample of potential participants to explore the difficulties and reduce those problems (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). The process of pre-testing is articulated by several researchers (Wrenn *et al.*, 2002; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012) to develop the questionnaire in a way that helps to collect the required data or information to satisfy the intended objective of the research. This means that it ensures the instrument's flexibility, design, and wording the questionnaire are accessible and meaningful to the participants to ascertain that the questionnaire is designed to accommodate a broader range of participants than those to whom the investigation is targeted. The questionnaire was pre-tested in advance of the actual data collection exercise. Therefore, to improve the questionnaire's content, the selected resort employees pre-tested its phrasing, layout, sequence, and instructions provided in the questionnaire.

The pre-testing exercise was based on Churchill and Iacobucci's (2002) suggestions because they argue that the instrument pre-testing helps refine the research hypotheses and the exploratory factor analysis. They also believe these additional benefits are included in the process.

- § It allows the researcher to check and test the planned statistical and analytical procedures, which helps evaluate the usefulness of the data or information for the research. This allows the

researcher to adjust the data collection methods and techniques to ensure that the main study is the most effective.

- § It helps to decrease the expected problems due to the opportunity to redesign the investigation exercise to overcome the barriers or challenges that the pilot study reveals.
- § It saves money and time because it supports sufficient data to help the researcher decide whether to continue the preliminary study.

Thirty questionnaires were sent to potential participants in two resorts for pre-testing, and the participants' feedback indicated a few potential adjustments in reordering a few questions and rewording two questions in Section One.

## **5.9 Population and Sampling Methods**

The research method can be expressed in terms of the techniques employed in collecting the required data for the research. This can engage several instruments such as interviews, focus group discussions, surveys, and self-completed questionnaires. Researchers usually differentiate the most common yet unorthodox methods in most research methodology studies: quantitative and qualitative. The choice of the method depends on the nature of the research problem (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). For this study, the quantitative method has been exercised to collect data.

### **5.9.1 Population**

A target population in research can be articulated as a definite collection of individuals or things with similar features or characteristics (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). According to Kombo and Tromp (2011), a research population can be recognised as a set of people, managements, components, circumstances, families, or things that feature a general characteristic chosen to summarise the conclusions. They further state that a perfectly described group of objects or people is considered for statistical purposes. Creswell (2012) further defined the research population as the leading group, consisting of some common characteristics appropriate to the research. Though most researchers desire homogeneity of the selected collection or the population in their research, these two definitions never have prioritised this property.

The population for this study was the managers, supervisors, and employees of four and five-star rated resorts in the Maldives. This is because the management of four- and five-star rated hotels were seen as being more pro and willing to embrace changes and adopt new leadership models compared to other levels of hotels (Fayed & Fathy, 2022).

In terms of the resorts available listed at the Ministry of Tourism of the Maldives (2021), there are 143 registered four- and five-star-rated resorts and 43,780 employees working in those resorts (NBoS, 2019) when this study was steered, as shown in Table 5.5.

*Table 5.4: Target Population (Source: Agoda.com, MoT, 2021; and NBoS, 2019).*

<b>Description of Population</b>	<b>Target Population</b>
Four- and five-star-rated resorts in the Maldives (According to Agoda ratings)	143 Resorts
Employees working in the resorts of the Maldives (Employees working in 2019)	44,954 Employees

## **5.9.2. Sampling Techniques**

The sampling technique is commonly referred to as the selection process of the population units for the research. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012), the sampling technique is employed to analyse the target sample while selecting the unit of investigation and the tactics to collect data through a survey. Davis (2004) argues that an appropriate sampling technique is paramount to decreasing sampling errors. There are two distinctive types of sampling, namely probability sampling and non-probability sampling.

### **5.9.2.1 Probability Sampling**

Probability sampling refers to the technique applied for selecting the sample where each member or character belonging to the population has an equal chance of being chosen for the study (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). In other words, everyone in the population has the probability of being selected. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009), the probability sampling technique is usually linked with experimental research design and surveys. They further suggested four types of probability sampling techniques, including:

1. Simple random sampling (i.e., the random selection of a sample from a target population),
2. Systematic sampling (i.e., choosing of a sample from an even interval from the population),

3. Stratified sampling (i.e., the process of dividing the selected samples into different groups and later choosing the samples from those groups in random or systematic sampling),
4. Cluster sampling (i.e., implies the breakdown of the total population into several groups and then choosing the samples from those groups).

### 5.9.2.2 Non-Probability Sampling

Non-probability sampling never provides equal opportunity for being chosen (Wrenn *et al.*, 2002). In this method, the selection is made on the researchers’ judgements, perceptions, and feelings. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) suggest four different techniques of non-probability sampling: (1) quota sampling, (i.e., a two-stage controlled sampling where different subgroups of the population will be chosen according to particular characteristics set by the researcher (Zikmund, 1994), (2) snowball sampling (i.e., signifies to a combination of two sampling groups where the first group is selected randomly; however, the second group is chosen based on the first group’s recommendations, (3) judgment sampling or purposive sampling (i.e., attributes to the selection of the sample merely based on the researcher’s belief or experience, and (4) convenience sampling (i.e., indicates the selection process where the investigator exerts the sample from where it is most conveniently obtainable to him/her).

Researchers commonly use this technique because it is the least expensive finance, time and energy (Marshall, 1996). However, Malhotra and Birks (2006) believe that the participants are chosen through this technique because they were perhaps in the correct place at the correct time. Thus, according to Malhotra and Birks (2006), the choice of sampling predominantly relies on the researcher. However, Hair *et al.* (2006) argue that selecting a sampling method or technique is contingent on the nature of the inquiry, approachability of the samples, availability of finance and time. Table 5.6 shows a comparison of different types of sampling.

*Table 5.5: Sampling Methods (adapted from Zikmund, 2003, p. 435)*

Type	Description	Advantage	Disadvantage
<b>Probability sampling</b>			
Simple random	For simple random selection	Easy to analyse data and compute error	Large errors for same sampling sizes, high cost
Systematic	Select every same interval member of population	Easy to check	May introduce increased variability
Stratified	Select equal sample for equal grade	Reduce variability for same sample size	They can be costly to prepare
Cluster	Ultimate units are groups to be selected at random	Lowest field cost, requires listing of all clusters	The researcher must be able to assign population members to unique clusters

Proportional	All the strata of population are essentially equal in size	Good classification process	Need accurate information on population
<b>Non-probability sampling</b>			
Convenience	Select in any convenient manner	No need for list of population	Projecting data beyond the sample is appropriate
Purposive	Selected the sample to fulfil a purpose	Useful for certain types of forecasting	Projecting data beyond sample is inappropriate
Quota	Selected for general population	Require no list of population	Have to know background of target population
Snowball	Additional respondents are selected by probability sample	Useful in locating members of rare population	High bias

### 5.9.2 Sampling Frame and Sampling Size Determination

In research, a sample is a limited number of units or elements in an identified population that needs to be investigated. It can be referred to as a subset of a target population (Koehler *et al.*, 2012; Marczyk *et al.*, 2015). One of the significant motives of selecting a limited amount or a portion of the constituents in a population is to establish inferences on the target population. Therefore, Konchitchki and O’Leary (2011) argue that selecting a sample illustrates the entire population that needs to be examined. Samples are derived from a sampling frame generally explained as a set of components from which the desired samples are outlined (Whittemore & Knafl, 2005). Knapp (2017, p. 22) states, “sample frame, sometimes referred to as the sampling frame, is the part of a population you could potentially access”. The sampling frame has been identified as one of the critical aspects of the research because it ultimately affects the quality and cost of the undertaken research. The sampling frame for this study was the resort list that appeared on the website of the Ministry of Tourism in the Maldives and the employees working in the selected resorts for this research when the study was conducted.

As the technique for selecting the samples from the population, sample size determination is equally significant for any empirical investigation. An insufficient number of samples or an immense sample size can distinctly affect the quality of the study (Bartlett *et al.*, 2001). If the sample is too small and insufficient for an investigation, the outcome may not be valid to draw inferences on a population. On the other hand, if the sample seems extremely large and is more than required, this can represent inefficiency, disorganisation, and waste of resources. Therefore, considering the importance of accuracy and reliability of the research, determining the criterion to choose the appropriate sample size, margins for error and confidence level has been worked out carefully.

There are several methods suggested by different researchers in selecting the appropriate sample size for the research. For example, Israel (1992) suggests several ways, including applying formulas to

compute the size, referring to a table published, imitating a sample size of similar research, or using a census for a small population. As a rule of thumb, Roscoe (1975) advocated sample sizes of between 30 and 500, which he believes can be suitable for most research. However, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) believe that a larger sample size can be more equally distributed and less likely to produce errors in generalising the result for the target population. Therefore, this research adopted the formula of Krejcie and Morgan (1970) to compute the minimum required sample size for this research, which specified the number of employees necessary to acquire through the equation below.

$$s = \frac{X^2 NP(1 - P)}{d^2(N - 1) + X^2 P(1 - P)}$$
$$s = \frac{3.8416 * 44954 * 0.5 (1 - 0.5)}{.0025(44954 - 1) + 3.8416 * .5 (1 - 0.5)}$$
$$S = \frac{43173.82}{113.34} = 380.92$$

Where:  $X^2$  = table value of chi-Squared @ d.f. =1 for a confidence level of .05 = 3.8416.

N = population size,

P = Population proportion (assumed to be .50)

d = degree of accuracy (expressed as a proportion)

This formula assumes a degree of accuracy as 0.5, confidence level of 5%.

Therefore, **the sample size required for this study is 381** employees.

#### **5.9.4 Sampling Strategy**

In this study, a stratified and random sampling technique has been employed in choosing the sample. A stratified random sampling technique was employed in the first sampling phase. In random sampling, each item in the population has an equal chance of getting selected as the research participant. Stratified sampling has been the choice for this phase because even though all the resort hotels express themselves as being luxury or high-end properties in their marketing materials, the researcher believes there are vast differences among them regarding the quality of the properties and their management styles, which show heterogeneity. Furthermore, hotel properties in the Maldives have no systematic star rating or a diamond system like in some other countries, where travellers depend heavily on their accommodations based on star or diamond ratings (Nasreen and Jamieson, 2015). However, the leading online trading platforms for holiday booking include Agoda

(<https://www.agoda.com/>) and Booking.com (<https://www.booking.com/>), which showcase a star rating against the properties, which is assumed as a mutual rating scale for both online buyers and sellers.

Nevertheless, this never fully ensures those resorts' total quality or service standards. There are significant differences in the product price and offerings among similar appraised resorts and a substantial disparity can be easily recognised; therefore, the room rates could be one of the measures of the quality standard of the resorts. The enormous differences in the room price are due to the factors associated with perceived luxuriousness, such as available services, location, star rating, customers' online reviews, the size and the quality of the hotel, cleanliness, perceived brand image, room view, and green practices are essential features that affect the customer's perception and hotel room price (El-Nemr, Canel-Depitre & Taghipour, 2017). The researcher believes these factors will affect the managers' leadership approaches and dealings with employees, employee behaviour and perceptions, and ultimately the resort's performance. Apart from this, the resort's size, the number of rooms/beds in the resort and the number of external and internal customers of the resort may be other significant factors affecting the organisational performance and the leadership styles of the managers in the resorts. Therefore, all the resorts appearing with four- and five-star ratings at Agoda.com were selected and further clustered into two groups to ensure an equal chance of inclusiveness of the different population levels and so that the data in a single group does not establish homogeneity. The population is split into subclasses with mutual characteristics, and representatives from each group have chosen the research sample. The stratified random sampling ensures a reduced skewness of the population in each stratum; thus, statistical efficiency was attained while sustaining the validity and reliability of the results. According to de Leeuw, Hox and Dillman (2008, p. 107), "If a sample that reflects the overall characteristics of the population is desired, the survey taker can use a stratified design with proportional allocation, in which the same proportion of population units is sampled in each stratum". The selection of this sampling technique depends on the researcher's discrete judgement (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

The sampling was done in two phases. In the first phase, the resorts registered at the Ministry of Tourism of Maldives were cross-checked from Agoda.com for their star rating and the four- and five-star-rated resorts were categorised into two groups: resorts with a five-star rating (103 resorts) in one group and resorts with four- and four-and-a-half-star rating (43 resorts) in another. Four of the 150 resorts registered in the Ministry of Tourism were eliminated from this research because they fell into the three-star category. Therefore, 146 resorts were chosen as the target population for the resorts.



Ten resorts were initially selected for the study. Among them, three resorts have been chosen from the four-star category and seven from the five-star category by employing stratified random sampling based on the proportion of the number of resorts in each stratum to attain a representative population sample. When some selected resorts failed to participate in the research, the researcher randomly selected another resort from the same strata.

Table 5.6: Resort Categories and Resort Participation

Resort Category	Number of Resorts	Number of selected Resorts	Participated Resorts
five-star resorts	100	7	7
four-star resorts	43	3	3

## 5.10 Data Collection

The data collection process typically begins after defining the research problem and sketching the research design. Though the data collection method has been used interchangeably with techniques and types, it depends on the person who uses it. The selection of the data collection method depends on the two data types, including primary and secondary data. According to Kothari (2004), primary data refers to the data gathered afresh or collected for the first time, which can be stated as the original. This can be implied as first-hand information. These primary data are recognised as original elements to study the anticipated problem (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Primary data are highly reliable and accurate since the researcher collects them, which is more time-consuming and expensive than secondary data. The collection methods utilised for the primary and secondary data generally contrast because primary data must be gathered originally; however, in the case of secondary data collection, the nature of the data collection effort can be envisaged as the compilation of data. Secondary data is generally collected by other parties and is labelled as second-hand data, which has previously endured some form of statistical analysis. These data are mostly cheap and easy to access; however, they can be concerns about their validity and accuracy.

### 5.10.1 Data Collection Procedure

Before commencing the data collection exercise, the researcher communicated with the Ministry of Tourism of the Maldives for their approval to conduct this research in the resorts to increase the latter's confidence and likelihood of participation. Simultaneously, the randomly selected ten resorts for the study were contacted through phone calls to determine their willingness to take part in this study. After this verbal communication, a formal letter, enclosed with a copy of the approval letter from the

Ministry of Tourism, was sent to all the selected resorts for their written confirmation and appointment of a focal point from the respective organisations to coordinate the data collection exercise. The letter detailed the researcher, the purpose of the study, and how it will maintain the participants' confidentiality in the research. Some resorts declined to include their names in the research; therefore, the report eliminates resort names.

Among the invited ten resorts, four resorts refused to conduct the study in their resorts; as a result, the researcher randomly selected another four resorts from the missed strata and sent the application letters to the newly chosen resorts. After two weeks, the researcher called the unanswered resorts to update the status.

After receiving the participation confirmation, the researcher sent the survey form link to the appointed focal points in each resort and provided instruction on effectively managing the distribution of the survey link to 50 randomly selected employees. The participants were given two weeks to complete the forms after the consultation with the focal points. Ten resorts confirmed their participation and sent back their forms. However, some resorts failed to return enough responses within the expected timeframe; they were given another month to return them. Nevertheless, due to the low response rates in some resorts, the researcher conducted follow-up calls and provided weekly updates to the focal points and GMs in some of the resorts. There was an unpredictable delay from some resorts because the time fell into the most occupied and busy season of the year; therefore, the most resort staff were overwhelmingly occupied with their official work. The data collection was conducted from mid-October 2021 to mid-January 2022.

The research has used sources of secondary data such as literature reviews from printed and online materials, including the websites of the Ministry of Tourism and online trading platforms such as Agoda.com, Booking.com, and TripAdvisor. In addition, academic publications, including published journals, books, online journals, dissertations, and conference reports, were referred to. Other publications and websites, such as UNWTO, WTTC, and UNDP, were also reviewed.

## **5.11 Data Analysis and Presentation**

The data analysis process involves cleaning, transforming, and modelling to summarise and compile the valuable information, suggesting assumptions for the research queries, and supporting to make decisions on the effective leadership style in the resorts of Maldives. It also involves interpreting the findings following the research questions and determining the consistency of the results with the hypotheses and theories attached to the study (Zikmund & Babin, 2010).

The data collected through the online survey form was tested for completeness and accuracy and followed by analysis through quantitative approaches to create descriptive outputs. Before the analysis, the data was edited and coded by assigning numerical values that could be comprehended by the chosen statistical software program in the analysis.

The study used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 28) to process the data. This package was employed to generate descriptive frequencies and inferential statistics that ultimately help generalisations and conclusions considering the population. The data analyses included normality, linearity, multicollinearity, standard method variance assessment, and item reliability tests. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were generated to ensure the reliability of the instrument utilised in the study to measure the dependent and independent variables.

In investigating the direction and strength of the relationships between independent and dependent variables, the Pearson correlation coefficient ('r') was used. The level or size of the effect was inspected to determine whether the effect of relationships among variables was sufficiently meaningful to decide on them. According to Coakes (2005), the relationship value ranges from -1.0 to +1.0.; the closer the r-value is to +1 or -1, the stronger the relationship between the variables, whilst an r-value of 0 indicates no relationship between the variables. In terms of strength, -1 to -.5 and 1 to .5 represent a strong relationship, -0.5 to -0.3 or 0.3 to 0.5 shows a moderate relationship, -0.3 to -0.1 or 0.1 to 0.3 a weak relationship, and -0.1 to 0.1 no relationship (Coakes, 2005). The T-test and ANOVA were used to test the differences between the study variables. The T-test shows whether any significant differences between the two sets of scores are present (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).

The study generated multiple linear regression models to measure the relationships between the independent and dependent variables and the Hierarchical Regression Model to test the moderation effect of intrapreneurship on the relationships between the transformational and transactional leadership styles with organisational performance. Multiple regression analysis was utilised because this test is a compelling statistical model, as advocated by Smith (2015), which helps to predict the influence of independent variables on a dependent variable (Yanney, 2014; Obiwuru *et al.*, 2011; Ojokuku, Odetayo and Sajuyigbe, 2012; Amoah-Mensah & Darkwa, 2018).

Regression Model:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + e$$

where:

Y = Organisation Performance X1 = Transformational Leadership Style

X2 = Transactional Leadership Style X3 = Intrapreneurship

$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ , = Regression coefficients to be estimated

e = Error term which is normally distributed with a mean and variance of zero.

The moderating variable in the study was intrapreneurship. The moderating effect of intrapreneurship on the relationship of transformation and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance of resort hotels in the Maldives was tested using the following model adopted from Ongore and Kusa (2013).

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X1.M + \beta_2 X2.M + e$$

where:

M = moderator (intrapreneurship)

X1.M = Interaction term 1 (transformational leadership style\*M)

X2.M = Interaction term 2 (transactional leadership style \*M)

e = Error term

## **5.12 Reliability and Validity of the Study**

The reliability and validity of the research were integrated into the research design because they are essential components in terms of conserving the trustworthiness of the research. Christiansen (2004, p. 182) defined the *reliability* of research as the “consistency, stability or repeatability of the results”. In support of this interpretation, Kent (2007) states that it is the degree to which the applied scale reproduces consistent results when repeated measures are applied. In other words, reliability demonstrates the strength of the measurement to produce the same result when used in similar settings. Zikmund (2000, p. 301) defined *validity* as “the ability of the measuring instrument to measure what is to be measured”. Therefore, validity denotes how well the collected data articulates the studied subject. The following section details the reliability and validity of the study.

### **5.12.1 Research Validity**

The validity of quantitative research refers to the accuracy of the measurement used in measuring the concept of the research (Heale & Twycross, 2015). According to Creswell (2014), validity can be

considered in content validity, predictive or criterion validity, and construct validity. Content validity can be defined as the extent to which the research instrument delivers an accurate account of measures in all the areas of the theory (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Face validity has been identified as a subset of content validity that reflects how well the instrument used in the research truly measures the phenomenon or the concept one anticipates to study (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Criterion validity, sometimes referred to as instrumental validity, can be expressed where the instrument correlates to the remaining instruments (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Construct validity denotes the extent to which the research tool measures the envisioned theory (Heale & Twycross, 2015).

It is vital to ensure the validity of the study to increase the trustworthiness of the investigation; therefore, the steps suggested by Cooper and Schindler (2006) have been followed in conducting the research.

- A panel of experts, including research supervisors, have reviewed the research instrument for conceptual clarity. The research instrument used in the study was pre-tested through a pilot study.
- Sampling was performed using stratified random sampling to ensure the inclusiveness of all the different segments of the population in the study, ensuring external population validity.
- A significant sample size has been used with a margin of error of not more than 5% and a confidence level of 95%.
- A thorough review of the literature was performed to prepare the research instrument, and comparisons were made with the instruments used in previous studies.

### **5.12.2 Research Reliability**

Reliability in research reflects the consistency with which the measures are free from error to produce consistent outcomes (Zikmund, 2000). It reflects the strength of the measures to produce a consistent result in measuring the concept or the phenomena in a similar context.

Reliability in a study can be predictable by employing different measures, even though an accurate computation of reliability is impossible (Heale & Twycross, 2015). One reliable and most used measure is Cronbach's Alpha (Coakes & Steed, 2003). Cronbach's Alpha is commonly employed to test the internal consistency of the multi-item scale (see Hair *et al.*, 2010). It intends to measure the correlation of individual items with the remaining items in the scale. Sometimes it is referred to as "the scale reliability test" (Cooper & Schindler, 2006, p. 352).

According to Manning and Munro (2006), Cronbach's alpha values above .70 can be considered acceptable reliability, between .80 and .90 as a good measurement, and above .90 as excellent reliability. Manning and Munro (2006) also argue that in exploratory research, the reliability limit can be reduced to .60.

According to Bryman (2008), researchers need to consider three essential factors, including internal reliability, stability, and interobserver consistency, to maintain the reliability of the study. Therefore, to maintain the reliability of the measurement instruments, the following steps were taken.

- Pre-testing the research instrument: during the developmental survey stage, pre-testing of the instrument has carried out through a pilot study.
- Five-point scales were employed in studying the factors
- The MLQ (5X-Short Form) instrument was used to test the leadership style, which has been commonly used in leadership research and has higher reliability and validity.
- Consultation with experienced researchers: Professional and experienced researchers in the field were consulted during the survey development stage and reviewed the questionnaire.
- Performing a thorough review of literature: the ideas and the concepts for the research were taken from a comprehensive literature review.
- Ensured the data collection method was consistent across all the participating resorts

Moreover, the study applied Cronbach's alpha to test the measurement reliability. The results are presented in Chapter 6.

## **5.13 Ethical Considerations**

This section presents the measures taken to address the ethical considerations of the study in ensuring participants' anonymity and confidentiality. It also discusses the management of data and its storage procedures.

### **5.13.1 Human Ethics Approval**

The approval to carry out the study, involving the research methodology and the procedure for data collection, was received from the University of Wales Trinity Saint David's (UWTSD) Ethics Committee on 11 January 2021 (see Appendix A). Additionally, an approval letter to research in the resorts of the Maldives was obtained from the Maldives Ministry of Tourism on 26 August 2021 (see Appendix B). The survey form briefed the participants about how the research was designed to be conducted; it explained that their participation in this study would be entirely voluntary, and they could

skip questions or withdraw their participation without any consequence. The questionnaire assured the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants.

### **5.13.2 Confidentiality**

Participation was entirely voluntary, and the consent to participate was acquired by answering the specific question at the beginning of the survey form to give such consent. One of the potential risks for participants was the fear of repercussions from their immediate managers for rating them. Participants were reached through resort GMs or HR managers rather than their immediate managers to tackle this issue and lower the associated risk. Furthermore, no other person has shared any information regarding the respondents, and all the forms were sent directly to the respondents' emails.

### **5.13.3 Data Storage**

The research data and the results were kept on the researcher's password-protected personal laptop computer with access only available to the researcher, ensuring participants' privacy and confidentiality. A backup of data files was stored on the UWTSD server with a secure password, and access limited to only the researcher. Additionally, the data were secured on a password-protected hard drive as a backup with access limited to the researcher and securely kept in a locked cupboard at the researcher's home.

## **5.14 Reflexivity**

My interest in the topic triggers two significant attributes. One is my individual experience in public life, beginning from a significantly lower-level civil servant role and advancing to the cabinet-level as a Minister, where the function of policymaking at the highest level in the government occurs. Working at different ministries and public institutions at different levels, I have witnessed the role of leadership and the impact of different leadership styles through different lenses (leader and follower) in formulating policies and programmes and implementing them. The consequence of weak leadership characteristics, skills, and ineffective leadership styles led to unanticipated events and jeopardised certain occasions, which resulted in comprehending the country's broader social, economic and political context. Such circumstances allowed us to better understand the perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours of the individuals in leadership roles, the followers and the beneficiaries.

Second is the experience acquired through working in the private sector, especially working under the roof of one of the largest conglomerates with diversified businesses, including tourist resorts. The stories and narratives transmitted among the colleagues working in different resorts and businesses under the leading company reflect the extent of the pressure on the resorts and companies' managers to overcome challenging circumstances, the resort managers' leadership style, and the employees' reactions. Furthermore, it strongly reflects the tensions built across all the strategic business units during the lower seasons of tourism and financial downturns. It establishes how well some resorts encourage intrapreneurship among employees and why some fail to achieve what other resorts enjoy, giving a broader understanding of the business community, especially the resort setting and operations.

According to the tourism employees' narratives, resort managers, and what I witnessed from the resorts, one of the significant events demonstrating resort managers' leadership efficiency is the festivity season, such as the Christmas and New Year festivals. Resorts make advance arrangements to gain the optimum benefit from the season by organising colourful in-house events and activities. By doing so, some managers provide opportunities to employees to exhibit their creativity and innovation in planning and implementing such activities, which can be considered intrapreneurship activities. The resorts that create an entrepreneurial environment and inspire intrapreneurship among their employees find motivation, leading to better results during festive seasons. However, resort managers that follow the repeat prescription of activities and avoid new things blame the employees, circumstances, or something else for failing to achieve expected outcomes.

Having cultivated professional experience by working at different levels at public and private organisations for years and witnessing several occasions of effective and ineffective leadership behaviours and styles led me to think of effective leadership to overcome the failure to encourage employees' intrapreneurship behaviours and elevate organisational performance. Therefore, I was fascinated to apprehend the most effective leadership style for organisational performance and intrapreneurship. Furthermore, I was interested in exploring whether there was any relationship between employees' intrapreneurship and organisational performance.

The insights and experiences I bring to this enquiry are twofold, namely as a person who has several years of experience in management and public policymaking at the government level and as a person who has management experience in the corporate sector, especially in tourism-associated fields and who is familiar with tourism elites and networks. Additionally, I have developed solid professional and personal connections with public and corporate bodies and several key individuals in the industries over the years. This level of connection and fluency in the community helped in discussing the



arrangements for survey distribution and receiving rapid responses from the participants. At the same time, it carried many responsibilities regarding academic and ethical stances in ensuring that the chosen sample was not misrepresentative for interpretation.

The study was approached with this mindful social position and maintained its ethical standards. In identifying the topic and shaping the research methodology, I incorporated my insights and understanding into the research; however, in data collection and data analysis, my personal preferences were eliminated using a web-based survey and the limitation of responses to qualify the study as objectively as possible.

Standing on my experience and personal understanding of the management and hospitality industry, I carried the following assumptions about the leadership styles and intrapreneurship research in the context of the Maldives into this research. With my knowledge and experience, I maintained the conviction that between the transformational and transactional leadership styles, the transformational leadership style is more dominant among the resort managers, and the transformational leadership style is more effective in the resort context of the Maldives when the resorts are on regular operation because of the increased number of well-educated young managers at the executive level of the resorts. However, during the construction phase of the resorts, this could be different because, during that period, the managers, supervisors, and workers' motives would be very different compared to when the resorts were serving guests. Furthermore, I presumed that resorts encourage intrapreneurship among employees, and transformational leadership has appealing characteristics for intrapreneurship behaviours. Therefore, the transformational leadership style is more effective in nurturing intrapreneurship among resort employees.

With the inclination to explore how intrapreneurship could be best encouraged in the resorts, I understood that applying a transformational leadership style is more effective; therefore, this research will help ensure the validity of industry practitioners.

Based on the nature of the problem (body of literature, theories, and variables), my worldview understanding and experience in research, ontologically and epistemologically, I consider that reality is objective, and what has been researched is independent of the researcher.

## **5.15 Summary**

This chapter discussed the research methodology adopted to collect and analyse the data to test the three hypotheses proposed in Chapter 4 in depth, exploring the effective leadership style among transformational and transactional leadership styles for intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the resorts of the Maldives. A descriptive correlational design was used as the research methodology to analyse the data.

## **Chapter 6:**

# **Data Analysis, Results and Discussions**

## **6.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter discussed the research design and methodology employed to collect and analyse the data in answering the research questions presented in the first chapter of this study. This chapter will analyse and present the results obtained from the data collected from different levels of employees working in the 10 resorts that fall into the four- and five-star categories of the Maldives. The data are analysed and organised according to themes to reflect the research objectives. The results are presented in tables and diagrams.

The chapter consists of 12 sections deliberating the analysis, including diagnostic results, descriptive, correlation, and regression results. The first section of the chapter introduces the chapter, after which the second section (Section 6.2) discusses response rate and data preparation. Section 6.3 explains the tests conducted in data screening and cleaning, while Section 6.4 discusses the reliability and validity tests of the variables used in this research. The following section, Section 6.5, delivers descriptive statistics, and Section 6.6 explains the results of the main variables. The deliberations for the main questions and objectives are presented in Sections 6.7 and 6.8, which discusses the study's key results. A summary of the hypotheses is presented in Section 6.9, and finally the chapter presents the revised conceptual framework in Section 6.10.

## **6.2 Response Rate and Data Preparation**

The survey form link was distributed to 500 employees from the chosen ten four- and five-star category resorts, and the researcher received 405 forms, giving an 81% response rate. All the responses were screened for data entry accuracy and missing values. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), missing data is one of the most common issues found in data analysis. During the screening process for missing data, forms absent of any entry were eliminated from the analysis. Therefore, 19 forms were removed due to incompleteness. These forms were eliminated because some were incomplete or from identical email addresses. After cleaning the data, 387 completed forms were used in the analysis. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) suggest that an over 70% response rate is a very good rate for a study, while a response rate above 50% is sufficient for any social science research. Since the response rate was beyond 70%, it is believed to be perfectly suitable for this study.

Table 6.1 shows a representation of forms used in the analysis. Abbreviations have been used for the names of the participating resorts because some resorts do not want their names cited.

Table 6. 1: Representation of Used Forms in the Analysis

	Resort Representing Names	Family/Non	Forms	Percentage
1	AK Island Resort	Non-Family	40	10.9
2	BA Island Resort	Non-Family	42	11.4
3	CD Island Resort	Family	43	11.7
4	KM Island Resort	Non-Family	30	8.2
5	SO Island Resort	Non-Family	31	8.4
6	PI Island Resort	Family	39	10.6
7	RI Island Resort	Family	40	10.9
8	SI Island Resort	Family	43	11.7
9	TA Island Resort	Non-Family	27	7.4
10	SA Island Resort	Non-Family	32	8.7
	Total		367	100

### 6.3. Data Screening and Cleaning

The responses were screened for missing values, and 19 forms were found to have missing data; therefore, these 19 were eliminated from the analysis. The data were inspected for univariate and multivariate outliers, normality, linearity, and multicollinearity. Tabachnick and Fidell's (2001) procedure was followed in screening and cleaning the data. The data were filtered for missing values, and incomplete forms were removed before uploading the data into the SPSS program. Therefore, the data is free from missing values. Z scores have been detected to determine the univariate outliers, and values beyond  $\pm 3.29$  critical values have been identified, leaving 372 responses. Multivariate outliers were tested using Mahalanobis distance values, and five responses were detected as being multivariate outliers. Therefore, a total of 367 forms were utilised for the analysis.

#### 6.3.1 Test for Normality and Linearity

A normality test was carried out to check whether the data for the analysis fit a standard normal distribution for a well model. The study tested for normality based on the skewness and kurtosis of the data. Skewness denotes the symmetry of the distribution of the data. In other words, it identifies the variables that are skewed from the mean, which is not observed at the centre of the distribution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), kurtosis explains the distributions' peakiness, either distributed with a too peaked kurtosis (with short, thick tails) or too flat (long thin tails), where in a normal distribution, the kurtosis and skewness values are zero. The skewness and the kurtoses of the data have been tested for the values of less than or greater than  $\pm 1.96$  (Curran *et al.*, 1996), and the maximum and the minimum values for skewness found from all the variables were .244 and -.160, respectively. The maximum and the minimum levels of kurtosis were -

.304 and -.419, respectively. The data castoff in the analysis shows little skew and kurtosis; however, the result does not differ significantly from normality. Table 6.2 shows the statistics relating to the variables.

Table 6.2: The Statistics of the Variables

		Statistics			
		PERF	TF	TS	INT
N	Valid	367	367	367	367
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.0183	2.7090	2.2159	2.9074
Median		3.0000	2.6500	2.1667	2.8000
Mode		2.91	2.55	2.17	2.80
Std. Deviation		.46852	.63480	.61895	.56144
Variance		.220	.403	.383	.315
Skewness		-.160	-.172	.244	.105
Std. Error of Skewness		.127	.127	.127	.127
Kurtosis		-.398	-.304	-.370	-.419
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.254	.254	.254	.254
Range		2.09	3.00	3.25	2.60
Minimum		1.91	1.00	.75	1.40
Maximum		4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
Percentiles	25	2.7273	2.3000	1.7500	2.5000
	50	3.0000	2.6500	2.1667	2.8000
	75	3.3636	3.1500	2.6667	3.3000

The data were assessed for normality using normal probability plotting. According to Pallant (2011), a reasonably straight line can indicate a normal data distribution.

The inspection of the normal probability plot for the transformational leadership style data never showed a significant deviation from normality. Figures 6.1 to 6.4 show normal P-P Plots of Regression Standardised Residuals of the transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance.

The inspection of the normal probability plot for all the variables (transactional leadership style, transactional leadership style, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance) also indicates that there are no significant deviations from normality. Reasonably straight lines are apparent, as can be seen in Figures 6.1 to 6.4.

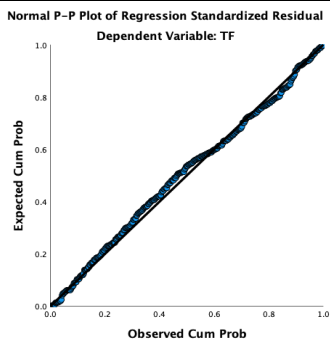


Figure 6.1: Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardised Residual: Transformational Leadership Style

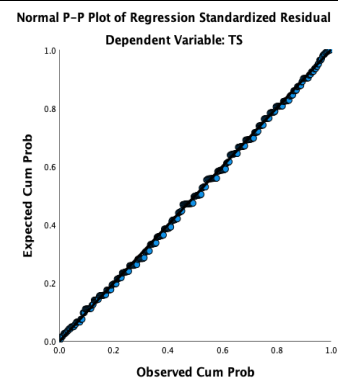


Figure 6.2: Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardised Residual: Transactional Leadership Style

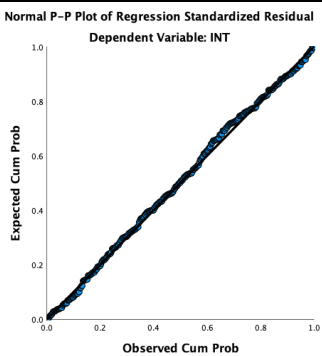


Figure 6.3: Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardised Residual: Intrapreneurship

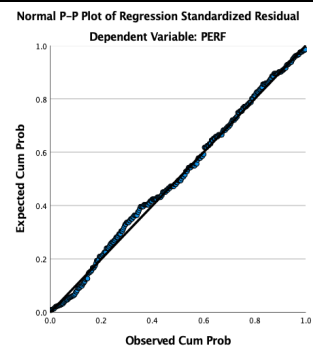


Figure 6.4: Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardised Residual: Organisational Performance

### 6.3.2 Collinearity Tests and Outliers

After the checks for normality and linearity, the data were inspected for multicollinearity. Correlation matrices and collinearity statistics were investigated to confirm the assumptions for multicollinearity. If the independent variables' correlation is significantly higher than  $>.9$ ; Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), this suggests that the assumption of multicollinearity has been violated. In this study, the correlations with the independent variable never exceed  $.9$ ; therefore, there is no issue in this regard. Apart from this, collinearity statistics were also assessed through the VIF and Tolerance level. The examination of the result shows that multicollinearity never poses a severe issue in this study because the maximum VIF was 2.624, which is smaller than 4, and the Tolerance level was less than 0.2 (Fox, 1991). The data were also inspected for outliers by examining the box plots; no extreme cases were distinguished as being outliers.

Table 6.3: The coefficients of the variable.

Table 6.3: The Coefficients of the Variable

Model	Coefficients <sup>a</sup>					Collinearity Statistics	
	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t			
1 (Constant)	.956	.070		13.579	<.001		
TS	-.039	.025	-.051	-1.560	.120	.684	1.461
TF	.154	.033	.208	4.729	<.001	.381	2.624
INT	.596	.033	.714	17.946	<.001	.467	2.140

a. Dependent Variable: PERF

### 6.3.3 Common Method Variance Assessment (CMV)

Common method variance (CMV) is the bias in a dataset due to an external factor other than the measurement itself (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). CMV can lead to an incorrect result regarding the variance proportion accounted for in a criterion variable, and alter conclusions about the discriminant validity of the scale (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2012). According to research (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003, Arham, 2014; Cheung & Wong, 2011), the Harman single-factor technique is the most widely used test to address the issue of common method variance and has been used in past research. According to this technique, all measures in the instrument are loaded into exploratory factor analysis, and if a single factor accounting for most of the variance among measures was found, it could be determined that CMV was present.

This research employed solely a Google online survey to collect the data; therefore, this could lead to a systematic measurement error that would lead to obtaining improper estimates of relationships between variables, leading to inflated or deflated outcomes (Craighead *et al.*, 2011). Testing common method variance, the Harman single-factor technique was applied in this study by loading all the factors into exploratory factor analysis, employing principal component analysis with an unrotated factor solution. The result never shows a single factor that accounts for the majority of the covariance among the measures (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003), and it establishes that common method variance was not an issue in this dataset. The results show that only 27.5% of the variance can be explained by the sums of squared measured items that had been loaded.



## 6.4 Reliability and Validity

Reliability denotes to whether the data collection techniques, processes, and analytic procedures would produce a stable and consistent result when repeated in a similar setting. A reliable measurement produces consistent scores in similar settings or for the same phenomena. One of the most frequently used tests to confirm the reliability of a study is Cronbach's alpha, which estimates the factors or constructs' internal consistencies based on the mean of inter-item correlations. The reliability coefficient in Cronbach's alpha normally ranges from 1 to 0; where the coefficient value is closer to 1, this demonstrates the stronger the consistency of internal items of the factors or the construct in the scale.

The questionnaire for this research measured four variables: transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance. Transformational leadership style was measured employing 20 questions, and the scale had an excellent internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha of 90.8. Transactional leadership was the second variable with 12 items in its scale, with a Cronbach's alpha of 79.6. Intrapreneurship was the third variable and used a 10-item scale. The scale also established a very strong Cronbach's alpha of 83.1. The final variable was the organisational performance with a scale consisting of 11 items, including financial and non-financial measuring items. The scale also had a very strong coefficient with a Cronbach's alpha of 79.1. The findings are presented in Table 6.4 with the Cronbach's alpha values for the factor and construct levels.

*Table 6.4: Cronbach's alpha's Reliability test for the variables of the study*

Item	Total No of items in the constructs	C's Alpha for the whole constructs
Transformational Leadership Style	20	90.8
Transactional Leadership Style	12	79.6
Intrapreneurship	10	83.1
Organisational Performance	11	79.1

The reliability of the variables in the study was determined according to the explanations of George and Mallery (2003), who established that values of Cronbach's alpha higher than 0.7 are acceptable in social science research. In addition, he articulates that a Cronbach's alpha greater than 0.9 is considered excellent; a value of 0.8 is regarded as very good, and 0.7 is rated as good.

According to the Cronbach's alpha value generated for all the items of the variables utilised in this research, transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, intrapreneurship and organisational performance have achieved the threshold level of acceptance in social science research (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, the reliability of the questionnaire utilised for this research was affirmed and accepted.

The research tested both content and construct validity. The validity of a study denotes that the test measures what it is intended to measure (Creswell, 2005), and the constructs' scores for the instrument used to draw a meaningful and sensible conclusion from the sample used to the population. To validate the content, the researcher sought professional help; discussed the instrument items with experts and taking their advice and consultation in terms of clarifications and suggestions in refining the instrument helped establish its validity. Further, the instrument's construct validity was confirmed by ensuring it was compiled with questions in line with the variable chosen to study.

## **6.5 Descriptive Statistics**

This section offers relevant descriptive statistics of the participants, such as the demographic statistics of individuals and organisations in the study. Descriptive statistics are presented according to common statistical measures, such as maximum, minimum, mean, and standard deviation, to offer a preliminary picture of the studied variables. In addition, some key variables of interest are also presented.

Demographic data are primarily collected in studies to allow judgements to be made on the participating representatives of the larger population (Creswell, 2008). Studies investigating the relationships between constructs or variables, demographic data of respondents such as gender, age, level of education, and job level are considered vital elements to understand the phenomena fully. This information is also important because previous studies have revealed that some of the demographic characteristics may influence leadership styles and intrapreneurship of the employees.

Tables 6. 5 and 6. 6 summarise nine demographic characteristics of the study participants. The total number of participants who remained in the study was 367 (N = 367).

### **6.5.1 Gender Distribution of Participants**

The results of Table 6.5 exhibit the demographic profiles of gender. 300 male respondents represented 81.7% of the total respondents, while only 67 females have participated in this research, accounting for 18.3% of the sample population. The ratio of male to female participants in this study is about 9:2.

### **6.5.2 Age Group Classification**

The age group classification in this study was considered on the five predominant generation groups (Dimock, 2019); Gen Z (people born between 1997 to 2012, estimated as under 24 years old), Gen Y (millennials), (people born between 1981 to 1996, estimated as between 25 – 40 years old), Gen X (people born between 1965 to 1980, estimated as 41 to 56 years old), Baby Boomers (people born between 1946 to 1964, estimated 57 to 75 years old) and the Silent Generation (people born between 1928 to 1945, estimated as 76 to 93 years old). The age brackets in this study were decided according to the generation groups because it is believed that “People in this “birth cohort” exhibit similar characteristics, preferences, and values over their lifetimes” (the Centre for Generational Kinetics, 2022).

Table 6.5 reveals that the millennials’ age category (25 to 40 years) dominates the participants’ age profile, with 212 representing 57.8% of the total sample. The second highest group is generation X (41 to 56 years old) age group with 108 participants and 29.4%, followed by generation Z (below 24 years old) age group with 37 participants totalling 10.1%. Only ten respondents fell into the Baby Boomers (57- 75 years old) age category at 2.7%, and there were none from the Silent Generation (above 75 years old) age group. The results are presented in Table 6.5.

### **6.5.3 Respondents’ Classification by Their Qualifications**

The respondents’ educational profiles are shown in Table 6.5, which reveals that the majority of the participants in this study have at least acquired a higher secondary level of education. 104 (28.3 %) respondents have a degree as their highest educational qualification, followed by 97 participants (26.4%) who have a Diploma or a certificate as their highest academic qualification. Ninety-two participants (25.1%) have a higher secondary level of education. Forty participants (10.9%) have a Master’s or higher-level qualifications, and only 34 (9.3%) have identified as having other qualifications.

### 6.5.4 Respondent Classification by Job Ranking

In this study, the positions or jobs were classified into five categories. Out of 367 participants, 106 individuals, representing 28.9%, were middle management-level managers, and an almost equal number respondents, 97, representing 26.4%, were from lower management levels, as supervisors and coordinators. Line staff totalled 99, representing 27%, and 60 of the respondents, representing 16.3%, fell into the executive or senior management rank. Five respondents were from the Chairman or GM or CEO level, representing 1.4% (results are available in full in Table 6.5).

Table 6.5: Gender, Age, Education Level and Job Ranking of Respondents

Characteristics		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female	67	18.3
	Male	300	81.7
Age	Below 24 years	37	10.1
	25 – 40 years	212	57.8
	41 – 56 years	108	29.4
	57- 75 years	10	2.7
	76 years and above	0	0
Highest Education Level	Masters & above	40	10.9
	Degree	104	28.3
	Certificate/Diploma	97	26.4
	Higher Secondary Education	92	25.1
	Other	34	9.3
Job Ranking	Chairman / GM/ CEO	5	1.4
	Executive/Senior Management	60	16.3
	Manager/ Middle Management	106	28.9
	Supervisor / Coordinator	97	26.4
	Line Staff	99	27.0

### 6.5.5 Respondents Classification by Localness vs. Expatriation

Out of 367 respondents, 238 profiles, totalling 64.9%, indicated that their resort GM or CEO are locals. 129 (39.1%) respondents stated that their GM or CEO are expatriates. 220 participants, accounting for 59.9%, are expatriates, while 147, at 40.1%, are locals. Among the participants' immediate supervisors, 188 respondents, accounting for 51.2%, are expatriates, while 179 respondents, accounting for 48.9%, are locals. These results are also available in Table 6.6.

### 6.5.6 Family vs. Non-Family Business

Table 6.6 provides the statistics for family- and non-family-controlled resorts. Results illustrate that 165 (45.0%) of resorts belong to the family business category, and 202 (55.0%) are non-family businesses. The data shows that the family-owned resorts dominate the sample; however, the sample is representative to serve the purpose of the study.

*Table 6.6: Participant, Resort GM, Supervisor, and Resort-Specific Demographics*

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
<b>Resort GM / CEO</b>		
Local	238	64.9
Expatriate	129	35.1
<b>Participant</b>		
Local	147	40.1
Expatriate	220	59.9
<b>Immediate Supervisor</b>		
Local	179	48.8
Expatriate	188	51.2
<b>Resort is</b>		
Family business	165	45.0
Non-Family Business	202	55.0
<b>Length of Resort Operation</b>		
Less than 5 years	32	8.7
5-10 years	70	19.1
10 – 15 years	0	0
15 – 20 years	27	7.4
20 years & above	238	64.9

### 6.5.7 Length of Resort Operation

The study asked the respondents to state the duration of the resort operation. 238 (64.9%) participants stated their resort has been in operation for more than 20 years, while 70 participants (19.1%) mentioned their resort has been in operation for 5 to 10 years. Thirty-two respondents (8.2%) cited that their resort has been in operation for less than five years, and 27 participants (7.4%) stated that their resort has been in operation for 15 to 20 years. These results are available in Table 6.6.

## 6.6 Study of the Main Variables

Table 6.7 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the variables that have been expressed in the conceptual framework. The variables' means, standard deviations, and variances are included. The independent and dependent variables were measured on a five-point Likert scale. In addition, some notable observations about the descriptive statistics are discussed afterwards.

The result indicates that all the participants in this study have the characteristics of the transformational leadership style, at least to a certain degree, ranging from 1 to 4 and, on average, 2.71. Likewise, all the participants exhibit characteristics of the transactional leadership style. However, in this latter case the range is lower than the transformational leadership style, at between 0.75 to 4 with an average of 2.22. This implies that even though both leadership styles coexist as two dimensions (Jansen, 2011), resort managers excel in behaviours such as inspiring and motivating resort employees for a great deal, engaging employees by seeking their perspectives in solving problems, and helping employees to develop their strengths by considering individual preferences. In addition, managers specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose and sometimes go beyond self-interest for the good of their teammates.

Table 6.7: Descriptive Statistics of Variables

Descriptive Statistics					
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Minimum	Maximum
Organisational Performance	3.02	.47	.22	1.91	4.00
Intrapreneurship	2.91	.56	.32	1.40	4.00
Transformational Leadership Style	2.71	.63	.40	1.00	4.00
Transactional Leadership Style	2.22	.62	.38	.75	4.00
Valid N (listwise)	367				

The intrapreneurship result also demonstrates that all the participants, at least to a certain extent, exhibit intrapreneurship behaviour, ranging from 1.40 to a maximum of 4 with an average of 2.91. This suggests that some employees proactively act to get things done rather than waiting for someone else to do it, while others are anticipated to bring innovation and change to the organisation. This illustrates that there are employees who are equally willing to take risks and bold action by venturing into the unknown for the betterment of the organisation. However, the data implies that some employees never anticipate changes and are reluctant to invest time or money in new projects that involve risk and uncertainty.

The organisational performance result shows that almost all the financial factors of most resorts represented in this study are high in achieving their targets, as evidenced by the mean score of 3.02, ranging from 1.91 to 4. Even the majority of participants believe the resorts are achieving their financial and non-financial factors.

## **6.7 Deliberations on the Main Questions and Objectives**

This section is organised to address the research questions, objectives, and hypotheses proposed in Chapters 1 and 4 that guided this research and are discussed in detail.

### **6.7.1 Question 1 and Objectives 1a, 1b and 1c**

*Question 1:* What is the main leadership style used by decision makers to improve the services – transformational or transactional leadership and to what extent has intrapreneurship impacted the employees and managers in the resort hotels of the Maldives? Moreover, which leadership style has a more substantial effect on organisational performance among them?

*Objective (1a):* To examine the most frequently adopted leadership style, be it transformational or transactional, within the context of the island resorts of the Maldives.

To satisfy the first question and objective (1a), the mean scores for the transformational and transactional leadership styles are presented and analysed to determine the prevailing leadership behaviours and uncover which leadership style is most frequently used in the island resorts of the Maldives. As a rule of thumb, the leadership style scores suggest the position of the construct, the higher the mean score, the more substantial the possibility of the existence of that particular leadership approach. According to the mean scores of the leadership styles, it is evident that transformational leadership style is more prevalent among the respondents with the mean score of 2.71, whilst the transactional leadership style had a mean of 2.22.

*Objective (1b):* To determine the extent to which intrapreneurship is encouraged among employees.

Table 6.8 shows the mean and standard deviation values derived for the variables employed in this research. The mean value for total intrapreneurship (2.91) shows the level of entrepreneurship behaviours of the respondents who participated in this research. According to the measurement used in this research, the mid-point of the scale is identified as 2, and thus the mean score for the

respondents' intrapreneurship level is greater than the mid-point. Therefore, it can be assumed that resort employees perform intrapreneurship behaviours beyond the average level.

*Objective (1c):* To explore which leadership style, whether transformational and transactional, has a more substantial effect on organisational performance in the island resorts of the Maldives.

Objective 1(c) is to determine the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance among the island resorts in the Maldives. Therefore, two hypotheses were used to answer the question.

### 6.7.2.1 Correlation Analysis

The correlation results for the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance are presented in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8: Correlation Matrix

		Correlations			
		PERF	TF	TS	INT
PERF	Pearson Correlation	1	.701**	.352**	.845**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	367	367	367	367
TF	Pearson Correlation	.701**	1	.562**	.730**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001		<.001	<.001
	N	367	367	367	367
TS	Pearson Correlation	.352**	.562**	1	.401**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001		<.001
	N	367	367	367	367
INT	Pearson Correlation	.845**	.730**	.401**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	
	N	367	367	367	367

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

The results indicate a strong positive and significant association between the transformational leadership style and the organisational performance of the resorts of the Maldives ( $r = 0.701$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). The result of transactional leadership style and performance of resorts of the Maldives ( $r = 0.352$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ) shows a moderate positive and significant association between those two variables. This indicates that the resort performance changes in the same direction as the managers'



transformational and transactional leadership styles. Further, the correlation coefficient for the transformational leadership style (0.701) indicates a strong association between the transformational leadership style and the organisational performance of the resorts of the Maldives.

### 6.7.2.2 Regression Analysis

Regression analysis is a commonly utilised statistical instrument to examine the associations between variables, primarily when the researcher seeks to establish the causal effect of one variable on another. Regression analysis helps to model, examine, and explore spatial relationships and allows the supporting factors to the observed spatial patterns to be described. This analysis is commonly employed for predictions. The study aspired to confirm the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and performance in the Maldives resorts; therefore, a linear regression model was used. Before conducting the regression analysis, the following analyses were steered: sample size, multicollinearity, outliers, and normality (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), ensuring the basic assumptions for regression analysis were met.

The model summary is shown in Table 6.9. The result depicts that the transformational and transactional leadership styles explain 49.1% ( $f^2 = 0.98$ ) of the total variations in resorts' performance in the Maldives which is considered a large effect. This is supported by an  $R^2$  of 49.3%, known as the coefficient of determination.

Table 6.9: Model Fitness

Model Summary										
Model	R	Adjusted R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Sig. Change	F
				R Squared	R Squared Change	F Change	df1	df2		
1	.702 <sup>a</sup>	.493	.33440	.493	177.229	2	364	<.001		

a. Predictors: (Constant), TS, TF

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) is illustrated in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: Analysis of Variance

ANOVA <sup>a</sup>						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	39.636	2	19.818	177.229	<.001 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	40.703	364	.112		
	Total	80.339	366			

a. Dependent Variable: PERF

b. Predictors: (Constant), TS, TF

The results established the statistical significance of the overall model, and here showed that the model of the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles with the organisational performance of the resorts are statistically significant. The F statistic (177.229), which was greater than the critical value of 1.96, supports this conclusion. The reported p-value of 0.001 further supported this conclusion, which was less than the conventional probability of 0.05.

The result of the regression of coefficients is presented in Table 6.11. The results indicate a positive and significant relationship between the transformational leadership style and organisational performance by a p-value of 0.001 and a beta coefficient of 0.542; however, there was a negative relationship between transactional leadership and the organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives, with an associated p-value of 0.001 and beta coefficient of -.046. This explains that an increase in transformational leadership style by 1 unit would increase the resort's performance by 0.542 units; on the other hand, an increase in transactional leadership style by 1 unit would decrease the resort's performance by .046 units.

Table 6.11: Regression of Coefficients

Model		Coefficients <sup>a</sup>				Collinearity Statistics		
		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		Toleranc	VIF	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	e	
1	(Constant)	1.651	.081		20.490	<.001		
	TF	.542	.033	.735	16.294	<.001	.685	1.461
	TS	-.046	.034	-.061	-1.345	.180	.685	1.461

a. Dependent Variable: PERF

The model for transformational leadership style;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

$$\text{Performance} = 1.651 + 0.542 \text{ transformational leadership style}$$

The model for transactional leadership style;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

$$\text{Performance} = 1.651 + -0.046 \text{ transactional leadership style}$$

### **6.7.2.3 Hypothesis Testing**

The study predicts that managers' transformational leadership style has a more positive and significant effect on organisational performance (H1), and that managers' transactional leadership style has no positive and significant effect on organisational performance. The ordinary least squares regression (Table 6.11) supports these hypotheses. The acceptance/rejection criteria were set on the t statistic result where, if the calculated t-test was more significant than the critical t statistics (1.96), H0 is rejected. However, if it was less than 1.96, H0 would be accepted.

**H0:** *Managers' transformational leadership style has a no positive and significant effect on organisational performance than transactional leadership style does in the Maldives resorts.*

**H1a:** *Managers' transformational leadership style has a more positive and significant effect on organisational performance than the transactional leadership style does in the resorts of the Maldives.*

The null hypothesis was that transformational leadership style does not significantly positively influence the performance of resort hotels in the Maldives. The regression of coefficient results showed that the calculated t statistic (16.294) was more significant than the critical t statistic (1.96). This implied that the null hypothesis could be rejected; hence, the alternative hypothesis was accepted, implying that transformational leadership style has a more significant positive effect on the performance of resort hotels in the Maldives than the transactional leadership style.

**H0:** *Managers' transactional leadership style has no more positive and significant effect on organisational performance than the transformational leadership style does in the resorts of the Maldives.*

**H1b(null):** *Managers' transactional leadership style has a more positive significant effect on organisational performance than the transformational leadership style in the resorts of the Maldives.*

The second null hypothesis was that transactional leadership style does not have a more significant and positive influence on the organisational performance of resort hotels in the Maldives than the transformational leadership style. The regression of coefficient results showed that the calculated t statistic (-1.345) was less than the critical t statistic (1.96), and the p-value was 0.180. This implied that the null hypothesis fails to reject; hence, this suggests that the transactional leadership style has no significant positive effect on the performance of resort hotels in the Maldives.

### **6.7.3 Question 2 and Objectives 2a, 2b and 2c**

*Question 2:* To what extent has intrapreneurship influenced leadership styles and organisational performance in the resort hotels of the Maldives? Does intrapreneurship have a moderating effect on the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance in the resort hotels of the Maldives?

*Objective 2a:* To assess the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and intrapreneurship among the island resorts in the Maldives.

*Objective 2b:* To examine the relationship between intrapreneurship and performance in the resorts of the Maldives.

**H2a:** *The transformational leadership style of managers is significantly and positively related to employees' intrapreneurship in the Maldives resorts.*

**H2b:** *The transactional leadership style of managers is significantly and positively related to employees' intrapreneurship in the Maldives resorts.*

**H3:** *The level of intrapreneurship of employees in the resorts of the Maldives is significantly and positively related to the organisational performance of the resorts.*

### 6.7.3.1 Correlation Analysis

The correlation results of intrapreneurship, and transformational and transactional leadership styles are presented in Table 6.9. The results indicate a strong positive and significant association between intrapreneurship and the transformational leadership style in the resorts of the Maldives ( $r = 0.730$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). The result for intrapreneurship and the transactional leadership style in the resorts of the Maldives ( $r = 0.401$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ) indicates a moderate positive and significant association between those two variables. Further, the correlation coefficient of the transformational leadership style (0.730) indicates a strong association between the transformational leadership style of managers and the intrapreneurship of the employees in the resorts of Maldives. This indicates that the resort employees' intrapreneurship behaviour changes in the same direction with both the managers' transformational and transactional leadership styles.

### 6.7.3.2 Regression Analysis

The investigation sought to verify the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and intrapreneurship in the resorts of the Maldives. A linear regression model was used. The model summary is shown in Table 6.12. The result indicates that the transformational and transactional leadership styles explain 53% of the total variation in resorts' performance in the Maldives. This is supported by the  $R^2$  of 53.3%.

The model summary is shown in Table 6.12. The result depicts that the transformational and transactional leadership styles explain 53.3% ( $f^2 = 1.07$ ) of the total variations in resort managers' transformational and transactional leadership styles with resort employees' intrapreneurship in the resorts of the Maldives which is considered a large effect. This is supported by an  $R^2$  of 53.3%, known as the coefficient of determination.

Table 6.12: Model Fitness

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>									
Model	R	R Squared	Adjusted R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Squared Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	.730 <sup>a</sup>	.533	.530	.38483	.533	207.524	2	364	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), TS, TF

b. Dependent Variable: INT

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) is presented in Table 6.13. The results established the statistical significance of the overall model, indicating that the model of the relationship between managers' transformational and transactional leadership styles with resort employees' intrapreneurship are statistically significant. The F statistic (207.524), which was greater than the critical value of 3.84, supports this conclusion. The reported p-value of 0.001 further supported this conclusion, which was less than the conventional probability of 0.05.

Table 6.13: Analysis of Variance

		ANOVA <sup>a</sup>				
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	61.465	2	30.732	207.524	<.001 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	53.905	364	.148		
	Total	115.370	366			

a. Dependent Variable: INT

b. Predictors: (Constant), TS, TF

The regression of coefficients in Table 6.14 indicates a positive and significant relationship between the transformational leadership style and intrapreneurship with a p-value of 0.001 and a beta coefficient of 0.652. This indicates that an increase in transformational leadership style by 1 unit would increase the intrapreneurship of resort employees by 0.652 units. On the other hand, the result illustrates a negative relationship between transactional leadership and intrapreneurship of the resort employees in the Maldives with a beta coefficient of -.012 and a p-value of 0.762. This denotes that an increase in transactional leadership style by 1 unit would decrease the intrapreneurship of employees by .012 units.

Table 6.14: Regression of Coefficients

		Coefficients <sup>a</sup>					Collinearity Statistics	
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
		B	Std. Error	Beta				
1	(Constant)	1.167	.093		12.589	<.001		
	TF	.652	.038	.737	17.025	<.001	.685	1.461
	TS	-.012	.039	-.013	-.303	.762	.685	1.461

a. Dependent Variable: INT

The model for transformational leadership style with intrapreneurship;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

$$\text{Performance} = 1.167 + 0.652 \text{ transformational leadership style}$$

The model for transactional leadership style;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

$$\text{Performance} = 1.167 + -0.012 \text{ transactional leadership style}$$

### **6.7.3.3 Hypothesis Testing**

The study predicts that *managers' transformational leadership style has a positive effect on the intrapreneurship of employees (H2a)* and *managers' transactional leadership style has no positive effect on intrapreneurship (H2a)*. The ordinary least squares regression (Table 6.14) supports the hypotheses. The acceptance/rejection criteria were set on the t statistic result where, if the calculated t-test was more significant than the critical t statistic (1.96), H<sub>0</sub> would be rejected. However, if it was less than 1.96, then H<sub>0</sub> would be accepted.

**H<sub>0</sub>:** *Managers' transformational leadership style has no positive and significant effect on employees' intrapreneurship in the Maldives resorts.*

**H<sub>2a</sub>:** *Managers' transformational leadership style has a positive and significant effect on employees' intrapreneurship in the Maldives resorts.*

The null hypothesis was that transformational leadership style does not significantly positively influence the intrapreneurship of resort employees in the Maldives. The regression of coefficient results showed that the calculated t statistic (17.025) was more significant than the critical t statistic (1.96), implying that the null hypothesis could be rejected; hence, the transformational leadership style has a positive and significant effect on the intrapreneurship of resort hotel employees in the Maldives.

**H<sub>0</sub>:** *Managers' transactional leadership style has no positive and significant effect on employees' intrapreneurship in the Maldives resorts.*

**H<sub>2b</sub>:** *Managers' transactional leadership style has a positive and significant effect on employees' intrapreneurship in the Maldives resorts.*

The second null hypothesis was that transactional leadership style does not significantly positively influence the intrapreneurship of resort employees in the Maldives. The regression of coefficient results showed that the calculated t statistic (-0.303) was less than the critical t statistic (1.96). This implied that the null hypothesis was accepted; hence, the transactional leadership style has no positive and significant effect on resort employees’ intrapreneurship in the Maldives.

### 6.7.4 Objective 2b

*Objective 2b:* To examine the relationship between intrapreneurship and performance in the resorts of the Maldives.

#### 6.7.4.1. Correlation Analysis

The correlation results for intrapreneurship and resort performance are presented in Table 6.8, which reveal a strong positive and significant association between intrapreneurship and the organisational performance of the resorts of the Maldives ( $r = .845$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). This indicates that the resort employees’ intrapreneurship behaviour changes in the same direction as the performance. Further, the correlation coefficient of organisational performance (0.845) indicates a strong association between the employees’ intrapreneurship and the resorts’ performance in the Maldives.

The model summary is shown in Table 6.15. The result depicts that the transformational and transactional leadership styles explain 71.5% ( $f^2 = 1.58$ ) of the total variations in resort employees’ intrapreneurship and resort performance in the resorts of the Maldives which is considered a large effect. This is supported by an  $R^2$  of 71.5%, known as the coefficient of determination.

#### 6.7.4.2 Regression Analysis

*Table 6.15: Model Fitness*

Model Summary <sup>b</sup>									
Mode	R	Adjusted R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Squared Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change	
1	R	Squared	R Squared	the Estimate	F Change	df1	df2	Change	
1	.845 <sup>a</sup>	.715	.714	.25055	.715	914.794	1	365	<.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), INT

b. Dependent Variable: PERF



The analysis of variance (ANOVA) is presented in Table 6.16. The results established the statistical significance of the overall model, showing that the relationship between employees' intrapreneurship and resort performance is statistically significant. The F statistic (914.794), which was greater than the critical value of 3.84, supports this conclusion. The reported p-value of 0.001 further supported this conclusion, which was less than the conventional probability of 0.05.

Table 6.16: Analysis of Variance

		ANOVA <sup>a</sup>				
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	57.426	1	57.426	914.794	<.001 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	22.913	365	.063		
	Total	80.339	366			

a. Dependent Variable: PERF

b. Predictors: (Constant), INT

The result of the regression of coefficients in Table 6.17 indicates a positive and significant relationship between employees' intrapreneurship and resort performance with a p-value of 0.001 and beta coefficient of 0.706. This explains that an increase in employees' intrapreneurship by 1 unit would increase the resort performance by 0.706 units.

Table 6.17: Regression of Coefficients

		Coefficients <sup>a</sup>						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.967	.069		14.003	<.001		
	INT	.706	.023	.845	30.246	<.001	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: PERF

The model for intrapreneurship with organisational performance;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

$$\text{Performance} = 0.967 + 0.706 \text{ intrapreneurship}$$

### 6.7.4.3 Hypothesis Testing

The study predicts that employees' intrapreneurship has a positive effect on resorts' performance (*H1*) and managers' transactional leadership style has no positive effect on intrapreneurship. The ordinary least squares regression (Table 6.15) supports these hypotheses. The acceptance/rejection criteria were

set on the t statistic result where, if the calculated t-test was more significant than the critical t statistic (1.96), H<sub>0</sub> would be rejected. However, if it was less than 1.96, the H<sub>0</sub> would be accepted.

**H<sub>0</sub>:** *The level of intrapreneurship of employees in the resorts of the Maldives is not significantly and positively related to the organisational performance of the resorts.*

**H<sub>3</sub>:** *The level of intrapreneurship of employees in the resorts of the Maldives is significantly and positively related to the organisational performance of the resorts*

The null hypothesis was that intrapreneurship does not significantly and positively influence resort performance in the Maldives. The regression of coefficient results showed that the calculated t statistic (30.246) was more significant than the critical t statistic (1.96). This implied that the null hypothesis could be rejected; hence, intrapreneurship has a positive and significant effect on the resort performance in the Maldives.

### **6.7.5 Objective 2c**

*Objective 2c:* To examine whether intrapreneurship moderates the relationship between leadership styles and performance in the Maldives resorts.

**H<sub>4a</sub>:** *Employees' intrapreneurship has a moderating effect on the relationship between managers' transformational leadership style and organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.*

**H<sub>4b</sub>:** *Employees' intrapreneurship has a moderating effect on the relationship between managers' transactional leadership style and organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.*

#### **6.7.5.1 Hierarchical Regression Analysis**

The investigation determines the effectiveness of intrapreneurship as a moderator between both leadership styles and the organisational performance of resort hotels in the Maldives. The analysis aspired to establish whether intrapreneurship on the part of resort employees was a moderating factor between the managers' leadership style (transformational leadership and transactional leadership) and the organisational performance of the resorts. To effectively compute the final analysis, hierarchical regressions with intrapreneurship (moderating variable) at one group and transformational leadership style (independent variable) at the second group were regressed on organisational performance (dependent variable). The results are presented in Tables 6.19 - 6.24.

### **6.7.5.2 Model Summary for Hierarchical Regression**

Table 6.18 illustrates the model summary of hierarchical regression with three models of intrapreneurship as model 1, the transformational leadership style as model 2, and the transactional leadership style as model 3. The R score in this model indicates the relationship between the intended variables, and  $R^2$  explains the contribution of the variance by the factor to the dependent variable. The summary of model 1,  $R = 0.845$ , suggests that intrapreneurship with organisational performance is strong and positive; meanwhile,  $R^2 (0.715)$  demonstrates that intrapreneurship contributes 71.5% of the variance in the organisational performance of the Maldives resorts. The score for the F statistic ( $F = 914.794$ ), which is higher than 4, implies that the model is an overall good fit.

The second model on transformational leadership, estimating  $R = 0.854$ , shows a strong linear relationship between transformational leadership and the organisational performance of Maldives resorts. This denotes that the resort performance will be increased when resort managers' transformational leadership attributes are amplified. The  $R^2 (0.730)$  implies that 73% of the variance in organisational performance in the resorts contributes to managers' transformational leadership style, and the F statistic of 20.124 indicates a similar result regarding the model's fitness.

The third model on transactional leadership, estimating  $R = 0.855$ , shows a strong relationship between transactional leadership and the organisational performance of Maldives resorts. The  $R^2$  of 0.732 implies that about 73% of the variance in organisational performance in the resorts contributes to managers' transactional leadership style, and the result indicates that the model is not fit ( $F = 2.433$ ). This indicates no significant evidence that resort performance would increase when resort managers' transformational leadership attributes are amplified.

The hierarchical regression results show that resort managers' transformational leadership behaviours improve the variance explained in the resorts' organisational performance by 1.5% ( $R^2$  change = 0.015,  $p = 0.001$ ). The result demonstrates that managers' transformational leadership approaches with employees' intrapreneurship behaviours elevates resort performance up to 73%. The transactional leadership style results never indicate a variance from that specific leadership behaviour in the resorts' organisational performance ( $R^2$  change = 0.002,  $p = .120$ ).

The positive figures yielded on intrapreneurship and transformational leadership style with organisational performance in both models evidence a positive relationship between managers'

transformational leadership style and employees' intrapreneurship and resort performance in Maldives resorts. Both intrapreneurship and managers' transformational leadership style are significant with regard to organisational performance ( $F = 914.794$ ,  $p = 0.001$ , and  $F = 20.124$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ); however, intrapreneurship and managers' transactional leadership style are insignificant with regard to organisational performance ( $F = 914.794$ ,  $p = 0.001$  and  $F = 2.433$ ,  $p = 0.120$ ), respectively.

### 6.7.5.3 Regression Analysis

Table 6.18: Hierarchical Model Summary

Model Summary <sup>d</sup>									
Model	R	R Squared	Adjusted R Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Squared Change	Change Statistics			
						F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.845 <sup>a</sup>	.715	.714	.25055	.715	914.794	1	365	<.001
2	.854 <sup>b</sup>	.730	.728	.24423	.015	20.124	1	364	<.001
3	.855 <sup>c</sup>	.732	.729	.24375	.002	2.433	1	363	.120

a. Predictors: (Constant), INT

b. Predictors: (Constant), INT, TF

c. Predictors: (Constant), INT, TF, TS

d. Dependent Variable: PERF

Since the preceding table substantiates the fact that intrapreneurship and transformational and transactional leadership styles are positive and significant contributors to organisational performance, the study sought to determine whether intrapreneurship yields the desired organisational performance. The ANOVA table (Table 6.19) and the regression coefficients (Table 6.20) show that intrapreneurship is significantly and positively related to organisational performance.

Table 6.19: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA<sup>a</sup>)

ANOVA <sup>a</sup>						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	57.426	1	57.426	914.794	<.001 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	22.913	365	.063		
	Total	80.339	366			
2	Regression	58.627	2	29.313	491.424	<.001 <sup>c</sup>
	Residual	21.713	364	.060		
	Total	80.339	366			
3	Regression	58.771	3	19.590	329.717	<.001 <sup>d</sup>
	Residual	21.568	363	.059		
	Total	80.339	366			

- a. Dependent Variable: PERF  
 b. Predictors: (Constant), INT  
 c. Predictors: (Constant), INT, TF  
 d. Predictors: (Constant), INT, TF, TS

Table 6.20: Regression Coefficients for the Hierarchical Regression

Model		Coefficients <sup>a</sup>								
		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		t	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta				Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	.967	.069			14.003	<.001			
	INT	.706	.023	.845		30.246	<.001	.845	.845	.845
2	(Constant)	.926	.068			13.633	<.001			
	INT	.597	.033	.715		17.938	<.001	.845	.685	.489
	TF	.132	.029	.179		4.486	<.001	.701	.229	.122
3	(Constant)	.956	.070			13.579	<.001			
	INT	.596	.033	.714		17.946	<.001	.845	.686	.488
	TF	.154	.033	.208		4.729	<.001	.701	.241	.129
	TS	-.039	.025	-.051		-1.560	.120	.352	-.082	-.042

- a. Dependent Variable: PERF

The moderating variable in the study was intrapreneurship. The moderating effect of intrapreneurship on the relationship between the transformation and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance of resort hotels in the Maldives was tested using the following model adopted from Ongore and Kusa (2013).

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1.M} + \beta_2 X_{2.M} + e$$

Where:

M= moderator (intrapreneurship)

X<sub>1.M</sub>=Interaction term 1 (transformational leadership style\*M)

X<sub>2.M</sub>= Interaction term 2 (transactional leadership style \*M)

e = Error term

#### 6.7.5.4. Hypothesis Testing

Therefore, the findings reveal that intrapreneurship has a moderating effect on the relationship between the transformational leadership style and organisational performance in the Maldives resorts. The null hypothesis H4a was rejected and, consequently, the H4a alternative hypothesis was supported by the

study ( $t = 4.486$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). On the other hand, the findings reveal that intrapreneurship has no moderating effect on the relationship between the transactional leadership style and organisational performance in the Maldives resorts. Therefore, the null hypothesis H4b fails to reject ( $t = -1.560$ ,  $p = 0.120$ ).

**H0:** Employees' intrapreneurship has no moderating effect on the relationship between managers' transformational leadership style and the organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.

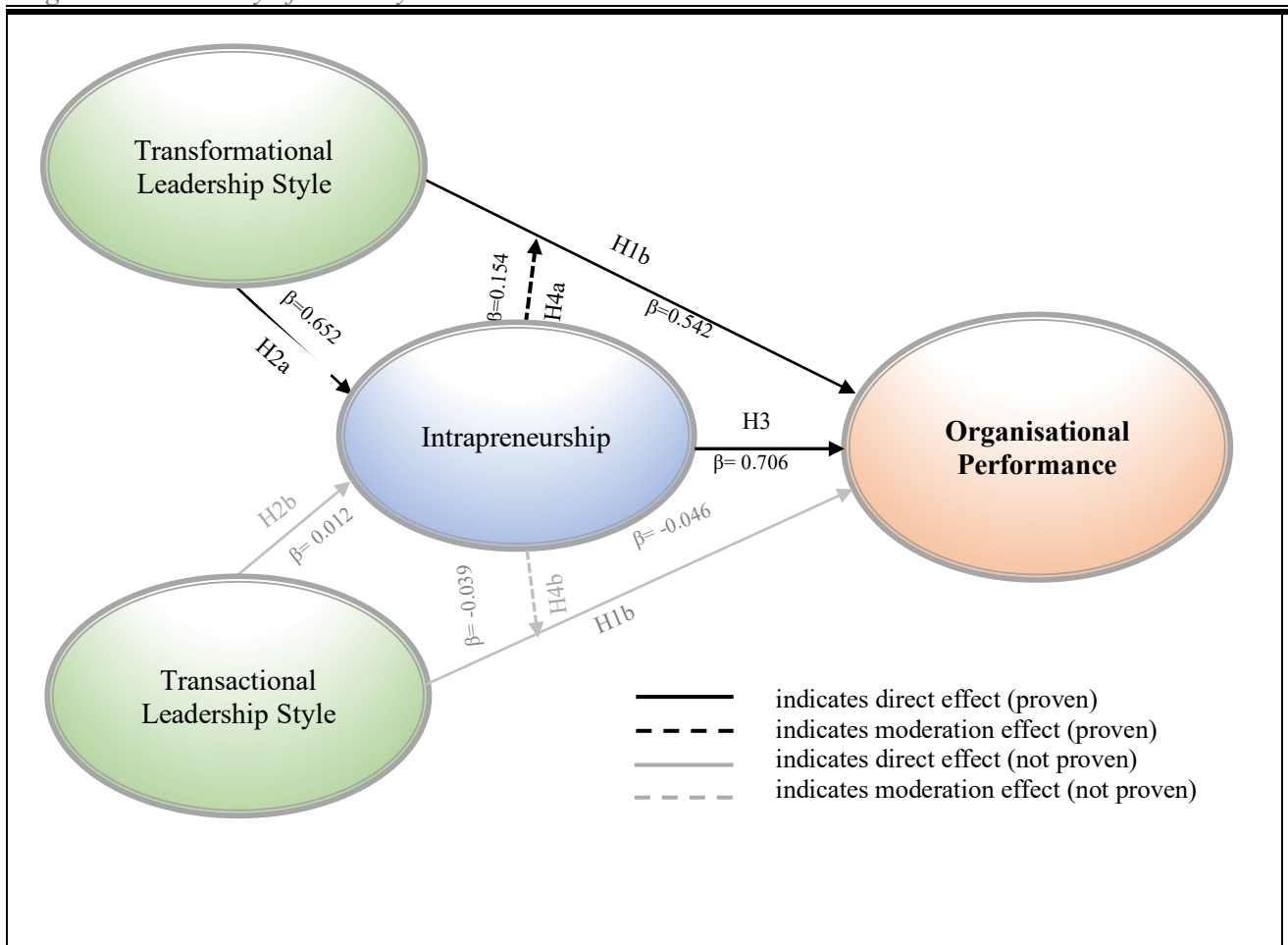
**H4a:** Employees' intrapreneurship has a moderating effect on the relationship between managers' transformational leadership style and the organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.

**H0:** Employees' intrapreneurship has no moderating effect on the relationship between managers' transactional leadership style and the organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.

**H4b:** Employees' intrapreneurship has a moderating effect on the relationship between managers' transactional leadership style and the organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.

The results and summary of the model are illustrated in Figure 6.5 below.

Figure 6.5: Summary of the Study Model



## 6.8 Summary of Hypotheses

This section is comprised of the summary of hypotheses tested in this study. The hypotheses were tested according to the general rule on their rejection and acceptance. If the independent variable had a significant relationship with the dependent variable, the null hypothesis is rejected. The significance level was tested at a critical P value of 0.05. Table 6.21 summarises the testing hypotheses.

Table 6.21: Summary of Hypothesis Testing

Objective	Hypothesis	P Value	Comment
1c. to determine the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership style and organisational performance among island resorts in the Maldives.	<b>H1a:</b> <i>Managers' transformational leadership style has a more significant effect on organisational performance than transactional leadership style does in the resorts of the Maldives.</i>	0.001	Accepted
	<b>H1b:</b> <i>Managers' transactional leadership style has a more significant effect on organisational performance than the transformational leadership style does in the resorts of the Maldives.</i>	0.180	Rejected
2a. to assess the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and intrapreneurship among island resorts in the Maldives.	<b>H2a:</b> <i>The transformational leadership style of the managers is significantly and positively related to employees' intrapreneurship in the resorts of the Maldives.</i>	0.001	Accepted
	<b>H2b:</b> <i>The transactional leadership style of the managers is significantly and positively related to employees' intrapreneurship in the resorts of the Maldives.</i>	0.762	Rejected
2b. to examine the relationship between intrapreneurship and performance in the Maldives resorts.	<b>H3:</b> <i>Level of Intrapreneurship of employees in the resorts of the Maldives is significantly and positively related to the organisational performance of the resorts.</i>	0.001	Accepted
2c. to examine whether intrapreneurship moderates the relationship between leadership styles and performance in the Maldives resorts.	<b>H4a:</b> <i>Employees' intrapreneurship has a moderating effect on the relationship between managers' transformational leadership style and organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.</i>	0.001	Accepted
	<b>H4b:</b> <i>Employees' intrapreneurship has a moderating effect on the relationship between managers' transactional leadership style and the organisational performance of the resorts in the Maldives.</i>	0.120	Rejected

## **6.9 Discussions of Key Results**

Although several studies have concentrated on leadership and its effects on performance, subgroups of entrepreneurship and the effects of these variables with organisational performance, this study provides an original contribution to the literature because there are no recorded studies that have examined this particular aspect of how transformational and transactional leadership styles and intrapreneurship affect organisational performance in the resorts of Maldives. In fact, during the literature review, very little research was found investigating the effects of leadership styles on intrapreneurship globally. Additionally, no research was found that explores the two variables of leadership style and intrapreneurship jointly in the Maldives. Therefore, the results of this study fill certain gaps concerning the effects of the transformational and transactional leadership styles on organisational performance and intrapreneurship, along with how intrapreneurship affects organisations in SIDS.

The demographic profiles of gender indicate an inequality in the gender distribution in this study. When 300 males (81.7%) were represented in this study, only 67 females, accounting for 18.3%, participated in this research. The ratio of males to females is about 9:2, which is quite alarming compared to the gender ratio of the country's population. However, a comparative analysis of employees working in resorts of the Maldives shows a massive difference between male and female workers whereby only 10% are female workers out of 44,954 employees. Out of about 4500 female employees, only 3% were local employees in 2019 (NBoS, 2019).

This reflects the fact that the perceived resort life is not suitable for women in the Maldives in terms of societal norms and stereotypical gender roles, whereby care work and household responsibilities are mainly considered the responsibilities of women (NBoS, 2019). On the other hand, the existing resort environment may not be favourable in terms of appreciating the importance of gender equality, encouraging women to work in resorts as most resorts are situated distinctly from inhabited islands and employees predominantly need to live in these resorts.

This frequency distribution was anticipated because the number of female workers is expected to be comparatively lower in the resort setting than male workers; however, their numbers have increased in recent years (NBoS, 2019). Therefore, this distribution justifies the result.

The age group classification in this study was considered according to the five predominant generation groups (Dimock, 2019): Gen Z (people born between 1997 and 2012, who are estimated to be under



24 years old), Gen Y (millennials), (people born between 1981 to 1996, who are estimated to be between 25 and 40 years old), Gen X (people born between 1965 and 1980, who are estimated to be 41 to 56 years old), Baby Boomers (people born between 1946 and 1964, who are estimated to be 57 to 75 years old) and the Silent Generation (people born between 1928 and 1945, who are estimated to be 76 to 93 years old). The age brackets in this study were decided according to generational group because it is believed that “People in this “birth cohort” exhibit similar characteristics, preferences, and values over their lifetimes” (The Centre for Generational Kinetics, 2022).

The result indicates that the millennials age category (25 to 40 years old) dominates the participants’ age profile, with 212 representing 57.8% of the total sample. The second highest group is the generation X (41 to 56 years) age group with 108 participants at 29.4%, followed by generation Z (below 24 years old) age group with 37 participants, totalling 10.1%. Only ten respondents fell into the Baby Boomers (57- 75 years) age category at 2.7%, and there were none from the Silent Generation (above 75 years old) age group. This demonstrates that resorts are dominated by young and energetic employees who are potentially more potent in terms of displaying participatory roles and intrapreneurship behaviours. Therefore, people falling into these different age categories tend to have significant differences in their characteristics, which could be dominant factors influencing the practice of leadership styles and intrapreneurship attitude in enhancing organisational performance.

The respondents’ educational profile reveals that most of the participants in this study have at least acquired a higher secondary level of education. 104 (28.3 %) respondents have a degree as their highest educational qualification, followed by 97 participants (26.4%) who have a Diploma or a certificate as their highest academic qualification. Ninety-two participants (25.1%) have a higher secondary level of education. Forty participants (10.9%) have a Master’s or higher-level qualifications, and only 34 (9.3%) have identified themselves as having other qualifications. The result demonstrates that most of the participants have the essential academic or technical qualifications to influence the organisational performance of the resorts. It is expected that employees with higher educational or technical qualifications will influence organisational performance to a greater extent than those with lower qualifications. The findings of Yusuf and Dada (2016) support this notion that a significant difference exists in individual performance according to academic qualifications. This ultimately leads to increased organisational performance and perhaps influences managers’ leadership style. In addition, this implies that most participants are in a suitable position to give a fair judgement of their performance and their immediate supervisors’ leadership styles (Yusuf & Dada, 2016).

The job ranking or the level of the employee in the organisation were considered crucial for the study. Several studies disclose that the level of the employee on the management or supervisory ladder is

used to influence leadership approach, employee intrapreneurship behaviour, and organisational performance. In this study, the jobs were classified into five categories. Out of 367 participants, 106, representing 28.9%, were middle management level managers, and an almost equal number of respondents (97), at 26.4%, were from lower management-level supervisors and coordinators. Line staff totalled 99, at 27%, and 60 respondents fell into the executive or senior management rank, at 16.3%. Finally, there were five respondents from the Chairman or GM or CEO level, at 1.4%.

Respondents' cultural backgrounds or where they come from is essential to understand considerations of leadership's attitude and behavioural side. Because, nowadays, many hospitality organisations, especially resorts in the Maldives, represent a good mix of multicultural workplaces (21,332 locals and 23,622 foreigners worked in the resorts in 2019 (NBoS, 2019)), where people view leadership styles and intrapreneurship behaviours differently. Therefore, different levels of managers and supervisors have to learn how to effectively deal with the issues of a multicultural workforce, including their beliefs, customs, values, and behaviours that transfer between generations (Almutairi & McCarthy, 2012). Out of 367 respondents, 238 profiles, totalling 64.9%, indicated that their resort GM or CEO is a local. 129 (39.1%) respondents stated that their GM or CEO is an expatriate. 220 participants, accounting for 59.9%, are expatriates, while 147, at 40.1%, are locals. Among the participants' immediate supervisors, 188 respondents, accounting for 51.2%, are expatriates, while 179 respondents, at 48.9%, are locals.

The research provided statistics of the family- and non-family-controlled resorts. Out of 367 participants, 165 (45.0%) respondents belong to family business resorts, and 202 (55.0%) were from non-family businesses resorts. Out of the 10 resorts that participated in the study, four belonged to the family business category and six to non-family business categories. The data shows that the non-family-owned resorts dominate the sample; however, the sample is sufficiently representative to serve the purposes of the study. One of the significant factors that would infer the resorts' management controls and organisational culture could be how the decision-making process is designed. This question is vital to this research because family-controlled organisations tend to be less risk-taking, and more conservative, in order to grow; as a result, they are less entrepreneurial than non-family businesses (Kraus *et al.*, 2012).

The length of resort operation or organisational service duration was significant in this study because, in most cases, employee's entrepreneurship is affected by the maturity or the experience of the organisation depending on the length of service in an organisation, and managers advance leadership style with experience as they work in organisations leading to performance. The study requested the respondents to state the duration of the resort operation. 238 (64.9%) participants stated their resort

had been in operation for more than 20 years, while 70 participants (19.1%) mentioned their resort had been in operation for 5 to 10 years. 32 respondents (8.2%) cited that their resort had been in operation for less than five years, and 27 participants (7.4%) stated that their resort had been in operation for 15 to 20 years. These results confirm that most resorts in this study have been in service for many years, sufficiently long to develop an organisational culture promoting intrapreneurship among their employees.

This study intended to examine the most effective leadership style, whether transformational or transactional, to improve organisational performance and elevate intrapreneurship among employees of resort hotels in the Maldives. The investigation was guided by six objectives, including determining the most frequently adopted of these leadership styles to determine the extent to which intrapreneurship is encouraged among employees, to determine the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance, and to assess the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and intrapreneurship. Additionally, it aims to examine the relationship between intrapreneurship and performance and determine whether there was any moderating effect on the relationship between leadership style and performance in the resort islands of the Maldives. The results were consistent with the majority hypotheses; therefore, this study recommends six significant conclusions.

First, the results show that most of the managers and supervisors in the resorts of Maldives more frequently encounter transformational leadership-style behaviours compared to transactional leadership-style. The study of Sadiq (2011) shows evidence that the Maldives culture is prone to the transformational leadership style when measured on Hofstede's (1997) cultural dimensions. Leaders who perform transformational leadership are proactive in their behaviour and try to optimise individual and organisational capacity towards development and innovation. Transformational leaders push their followers or subordinates towards utilising and achieving higher levels of potential and foster an environment where higher moral and ethical standards are met. Leaders with transactional leadership styles exhibit deeds related to constructive and corrective interactions. They show their appreciation when goals are met by offering rewards or compensations. However, these leaders constantly monitor their employees for mistakes and take corrective action should they occur (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Previous studies have established that the transformational leadership style was the most effective leadership style for the hospitality industry (Hinkin & Tracey, 1994). According to Weerakit's (2007) research, the GMs in Thai hotels exhibit a more transformational leadership style than transactional leadership style, and they encourage the staff to make decisions in the resorts. These results are similar

to the studies of Ibrahim *et al.* (2014), Nordin (2012), Hsiao and Chang (2011), Kurland (2010), Murphy (2008), and Barker (2007). However, some studies are in contrast to this result, such as the research conducted by Roibu, Nica and Hornoiu (2019), which suggests that the most frequently adopted leadership style in the hotels of Romania is the transactional leadership style.

It is difficult to conclude why a specific leadership style is more prominent among a particular group of people than another because some could be applying the specific behaviour of leadership style purely due to the demographic characteristics of their followers or other critical reasons. For instance, a team leader who has employed a team of under skilled employees and labourers with minimal technical backgrounds and distinguishing the employment merely as a source of salary or income could make it extremely difficult for managers to implement transformational leadership behaviours. However, for a person leading a group of young, committed, energetic, creative individuals who have recently graduated or are presently undertaking study related to the tourism field, behaviours associated with the transformational leadership style are suitable for such an environment. This scenario could be interchangeable because individual attitude and behaviour dramatically vary according to circumstances, as some employees might develop, adapt, or change how things are done once they are promoted to a specific leadership position.

Secondly, the transformational leadership style sets the most favourable managerial circumstances to achieve higher organisational performance in the Maldives resorts. Several research efforts have substantiated the positive and significant relationship between the transformational leadership style and organisational performance. The study carried out by Alzoubi and Jaaffar (2020) on three- to five-star hotels in Jordan and the study of Patiar and Mia (2009) among hotels and resorts in Australia confirms a positive relationship between the transformational leadership style and organisational performance. Several other studies (Arif & Akram, 2018; Razzaq *et al.*, 2019; Jyoti & Bhau, 2015; Hurduzeu, 2015; Khan & Adnan, 2014; Balhara & Bansal, 2019; Ocak & Ozturk, 2018; Mekhum, 2019; Garcia-Morales *et al.*, 2008) have similarly established a positive and significant relationship between the transformational leadership style and organisational performance.

The results of this study emerge to confirm the results established by the previously mentioned scholars, namely that the transformational leadership style is critical for leaders to realise the desired organisational performance and attain their objectives. Managers with transformational leadership styles motivate their employees to become more committed to their job, and organisations encourage them to become efficient and competent, ultimately advancing organisational standards. The literature on the transformational leadership style confirms that these attitudes and behaviours preceded by

transformational leaders are adopted in Western setups or manufacturing organisations and lead to encouraging effects when adopted in non-Western service organisations.

Thirdly, in contrast, the transactional leadership style is found to have a negative effect on organisational performance in the resorts. The research conducted by Alzoubi and Jaaffar (2020) on three- to five-star hotels in Jordan, and indeed other studies (Sofi & Devanadhen, 2015; Iscan, Ersari & Naktiyok, 2014; Pedraja *et al.*, 2006; May-Chiun, 2015), have produced similar results, confirming that there is a significant and negative relationship between the transactional leadership style and organisational performance. However, in contrast, many studies have established a positive and significant correlation between the transactional leadership style and organisational performance (Khan & Adnan, 2014; Mkheimer, 2018; Longe, 2014; Mekhum, 2019).

Fourthly, the transformational leadership style fosters the most favourable environment in which to promote intrapreneurship among employees. This result is in line with several other research efforts that established the characteristics of transformational leadership that nurture creativity and innovation among employees (Hashim *et al.*, 2018; Ocak & Ozturk, 2018; Moriano *et al.*, 2014; Chang *et al.*, 2017; Ling *et al.*, 2008; Shukri, Bakar & Mahmood, 2014; Afsar *et al.*, 2016; Majumdar & Ray, 2011; Reuvers *et al.*, 2008).

Managers with a transformational leadership style facilitate intrapreneurial behaviours among employees by stimulating creativity, innovation, and proactivity (Khalili, 2016; Moriano *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2017). They exhibit traits and behaviours that encourage intrapreneurship among employees, such as stimulating innovative thinking among employees (intellectual stimulation), attaining trust and confidence of employees (i.e., idealised influence), inspiring employees by sharing missions and objectives (inspirational motivation), and offering coaching and mentoring support (individual consideration). Transformational leadership traits are coherent with intrapreneur traits, including visionaries, inspirational, courageous, and adventurous (Alam *et al.*, 2020; Woo, 2018; Hisrich, Peters, & Shepherd 2013; Mahmoud *et al.*, 2020; Marques *et al.*, 2019). It is also advocated that the transformational leadership style is the foundation for instigating intrapreneurship among employees in organisations (Hisrich, Peters, & Shepherd, 2013; Ocak & Ozturk, 2018).

Fifthly, transactional leadership has a negative relationship with employees' intrapreneurship. Managers with a transactional leadership approach motivate employees extrinsically (i.e., contingency rewards and active management-by-exception); therefore, employees are less willing to outperform or go beyond their routine work and job responsibilities when attempting to generate innovative ideas and engaging in creative work that helps organisational development. This is consistent with Moriano

*et al.*'s (2011) and Pieterse *et al.*'s (2010) findings that transactional leadership is negatively correlated with intrapreneurship and is inimical for employees' innovative work behaviour. Transactional leaders naturally favour maintaining the organisational status quo, becoming obstructive when employees make mistakes, and preserving stability in the organisation; therefore, in such a meticulous atmosphere, employees are discouraged with regard to bringing new ideas, engaging in creativity, and exploiting meaningful opportunities for the development of the organisation.

Sixthly, employees' intrapreneurship behaviour is predicted to be a significant factor in increasing organisational performance in the resorts of the Maldives. This is in line with the results of Madzikova and Nani (2020) and Felício, Rodrigues and Caldeirinha (2012), whose studies established a positive relationship between intrapreneurial dispositions with organisational growth. Other, similar works found in the literature concerning the relationship between intrapreneurship and performance outcome have envisaged the influence of intrapreneurship on performance in an idea contest (Zhu *et al.*, 2014), business performance of spin-off entrepreneurs (Bager *et al.*, 2010), and innovation performance in creative companies (Camelo-Ordaz *et al.*, 2012), all of which demonstrated a positive link. Since intrapreneurship and corporate entrepreneurship has been acknowledged as subdivisions of entrepreneurship, there is general agreement in the literature that corporate entrepreneurship has a positive relationship with organisational performance (Bierwerth *et al.*, 2015; Zahra, 1991). It increases organisations' proactiveness and risk-taking in developing and promoting new products, services, and processes (e.g., Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Walter *et al.*, 2006). The capabilities mentioned allow organisations to improve their competitive edge and help penetrate and compete in new markets and industries in the pursuit of growth and profitability of the organisation (Clark *et al.*, 2014, Zahra *et al.*, 2000). Therefore, corporate entrepreneurship or intrapreneurship factors and behaviours could be considered critical in explaining organisational performance (Heavy & Simsek, 2013).

Seventh, employees' intrapreneurship behaviour moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance. Employees' intrapreneurship behaviours are exhibited at higher levels when they are empowered, have the feeling of respect, allowing autonomy, instilling confidence, and making them more competent while working with leaders who display a transformational leadership approach. The more the leaders encourage intrapreneurship among employees, the more the employees are bound to feel the company is desirable and attractive to belong to, which increases their motivation to initiate and implement innovative ideas into profitable projects for the organisations.

Eighth, intrapreneurship is negatively related to transactional leadership style and organisational performance. When employees feel they are constantly under surveillance for their mistakes and errors

and their motivation is constructed merely on extrinsic aspects like paycheques and compensation, it is less likely that the transactional leadership approach will facilitate any desire amongst employees to take risks and initiate innovative actions that would be considered advantageous to organisational development. In such scenarios, managers exhibiting a transactional leadership approach discourage employee behaviour that would serve organisational or group interests. This is because employees in such an environment mainly focus on their objectives and preferences (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003).

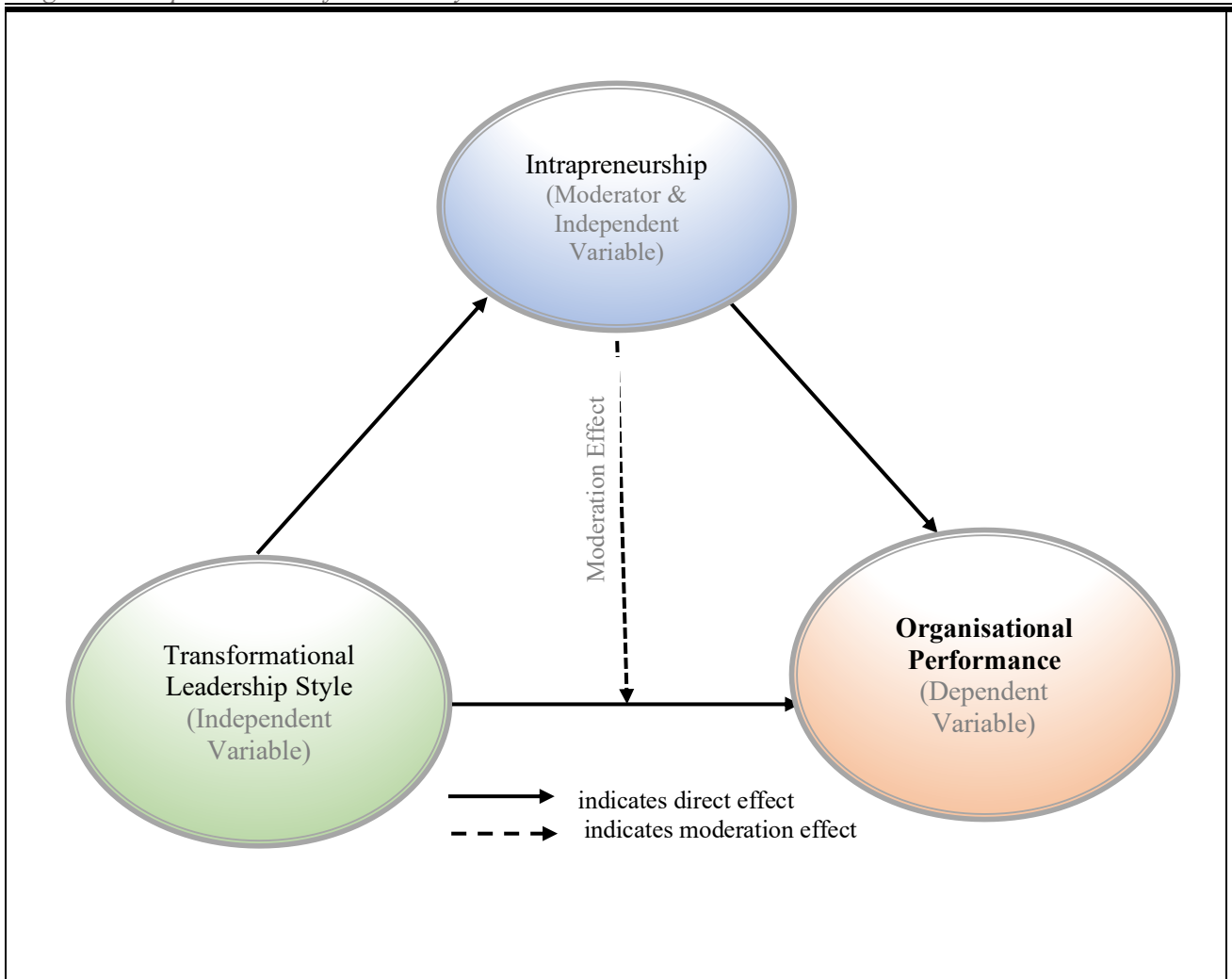
## **6.10 Revisiting the Conceptual Framework and Proposal of Optimal Model**

According to the results of this study, it is evident that managers' transactional leadership style was not significant with regard to the interaction of intrapreneurial behaviours on the part of employees and organisational performance in resorts in the Maldives, as assumed in the conceptual framework. Therefore, the optimal model or the validated structure for the study would be comprised of (as illustrated in Figure 6.6) the transformational leadership style as the independent variable, intrapreneurship as a moderator, and organisational performance as the dependent variable.

Hence, the study concluded that the most effective model to improve resort performance in the Maldives would be with the variables stated in the equation below.

*Predicted Organisational Performance = Transformational Leadership Style X Intrapreneurship.*

Figure 6.6: Optimal Model for the Study





## **Chapter 7:**

# **Conclusions and Recommendations**

## **7.1 Introduction**

This final chapter is to recap the conclusions drawn from the research findings, deliberate the theoretical, methodological, and empirical contributions of this thesis, and propose a framework for improving organisational performance and intrapreneurship behaviours through managers' leadership styles in the resort hotels in the Maldives.

The chapter commences with a brief introduction, followed by Section 7.2, discussing the research overview and findings. It also focuses on the conclusions derived from the research framework and research questions. The section also will highlight the significant findings of this thesis. Section 7.3 discusses the accomplishment of the research aim and objectives. The contributions of this thesis, as constructed on the theoretical and managerial implications, are presented in Section 7.4. This is followed by Section 7.5, discussing the study's limitations, with recommendations for practitioners proposed in Section 7.6. Future research directions are proposed in Section 7.7, and Section 7.8 concludes the thesis with a summary of the chapter.

## **7.2 Accomplishment of Research Aim and Objectives**

This section of the thesis elaborates on the success of the research against the research aim and objectives proposed in Chapter 1. The study aimed to examine the role of intrapreneurship and the most suitable leadership style that influences intrapreneurship and organisational performance within the context of the resorts of the Maldives. The objectives designated to achieve this aim were:

**Objective 1:** To critically review and analyse the available literature on organisational leadership, organisational performance, and intrapreneurship concerning the tourism and hospitality industry, especially in the context of the resorts in the Maldives. This would include investigating the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles, organisational performance, intrapreneurship, and knowledge gaps in the prevailing literature. This was achieved in Chapter 3 (the literature review chapter), which aimed to review the literature in the areas of the critical variables of the research, analyse their relationships, and determine the knowledge gaps in the prevailing literature. Four measurement tools consisting of 54 items were identified after thoroughly reviewing the literature to investigate the relationships between resort managers' leadership styles (transformational and transactional), intrapreneurship, and organisational performance.

This includes critically reviewing and analysing the existing theories and models on leadership style, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance in the Maldives resorts. This was achieved in Chapter 3 (the literature review chapter) and Chapter 4, which examined the theories, concepts, and models related to leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance. After the evaluations, a conceptual framework was proposed to investigate the relationships between the key variables.

To achieve the specific objectives, the researcher adopted quantitative and descriptive correlational design research to collect data through questionnaires, text, and documents, and data was collected using questionnaires (1a) to establish the most frequently adopted leadership style (either transformational or transactional) in the resorts of the Maldives, (b) to determine the extent to which intrapreneurship is encouraged among employees, (c) to determine the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance among resorts in the Maldives.

**Objective 2:** To adopt a quantitative research method and descriptive correlational design research to collect data through questionnaires, text, and documents using case study research. This would enable us to: (a) assess the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and intrapreneurship among the island resorts in the Maldives, (b) examine the relationship between intrapreneurship and performance in the Maldives resorts, and (c) examine whether intrapreneurship has any moderating effect on the relationship between leadership styles and performance in the Maldives resorts.

These objectives were achieved in Chapters 5 and 6. Chapter 5 concentrated on the methodology employed for this research in carrying out the empirical studies. The chapter discussed the research design, the application of the research approach, the population, the sampling technique, and the instruments utilised for data collection and analysis methods. Chapter 6 reports the results of the empirical studies. The results were obtained through descriptive statistics, multiple regression, and hierarchical regression analysis.

The result helped to develop a conceptual framework and presented recommendations to practitioners to ensure effective intrapreneurship leadership and improve organisational performance within the Maldives' resorts. This was achieved in Chapter 6, which illustrates and explains a modified conceptual framework from the analysed data. Recommendations are made in Chapter 7 for managers and practitioners in the industry.

## **7.3 Research Contributions and Implications**

The outcomes of the research have driven theoretical contributions and managerial implications. These implications and contributions are discussed below, drawn from the conclusions of the previous sections.

### **7.3.1 Contribution to Theory and Body of Knowledge**

The result empirically established that the transformational leadership style positively and significantly correlates with organisational performance measures and employee intrapreneurship. The theoretical and hypotheses testing demonstrated that managers in the resorts in the Maldives perform certain behaviours that reflect a more transformational than transactional leadership style and significantly and positively affect organisational performance.

This research also contributed significantly to the entrepreneurship literature, especially intrapreneurship in the context of SIDS. The study results proved that intrapreneurship is a critical factor in the performance of tourist resorts. The quantitative data also provided weighty evidence that resort employees in the Maldives exhibit intrapreneurship behaviours, and their managers encourage these practices in their organisations. Empirical results revealed positive influences of intrapreneurship behaviours on organisational performance. Therefore, encouraging intrapreneurship and practising these strategic behaviours increases organisational performance.

One of the critical findings of this study is the moderating role of intrapreneurship to the existing theoretical models of the direct relationships between transformational and transactional leadership styles with organisational performance. Studies such as Lo *et al.* (2010) and Ling *et al.* (2008) have established direct links between leadership and performance, Wiklund (1999) and Rauch *et al.* (2009) confirmed the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and performance, whilst minimal studies were found that investigated the relationships between leadership, organisational performance, and entrepreneurial orientation (Arham, 2014, Todorovic & Schlosser, 2007; Yang, 2008) at the organisational level. No research has been identified investigating the relationship of intrapreneurship with leadership styles and organisational performance. As a result, a further understanding of intrapreneurship with the variables of transformational and transactional leadership styles with

organisational performance adds new knowledge to the literature on leadership and entrepreneurship in tourist organisations in small developing island states like the Maldives. Examining the independent variables (intrapreneurship and leadership styles) on the individual level in this study contributes to the body of knowledge. Researching tourist resorts has made another significant contribution to the resort- and hotel-specific literature.

The result shows that intrapreneurship has a strong influence in moderating the relationship between the transformational leadership style and organisational performance in the resorts, the optimal theoretical model, further validating the direct link between transformational leadership and organisational performance, and additionally proving that employees' intrapreneurship behaviour has a strong moderating effect on the direct relationships. This influence implies that organisations striving for higher organisational performance, increased profit, and business growth can achieve these not only through the employment of an effective leadership style but also by encouraging intrapreneurship among their employees.

One of the significant contributions of this research is that it is the first empirical test to explore the effectiveness of the transformational and transactional leadership styles on intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the resort islands in the Maldives.

There has been rising interest in entrepreneurship and corporate entrepreneurship over the past few years; however, minimal studies have focused on the intrapreneurship or individual-level entrepreneurship associated with leadership styles and organisational performance. Most have been developed from a theoretical perspective.

### **7.3.2 Managerial Implications**

The study is intended to present outcomes that could be valuable and practical to the tourism industry, especially to the resort hotels in the Maldives, to allow resort owners, managers, and practitioners to consider the most critical elements of effective management properly and to become innovative in order to cope with challenging environments, such as during the COVID pandemic. The study's findings show that the leadership styles of managers and supervisors in the resorts and the intrapreneurship behaviours of employees are crucial elements in the increased performance of resorts. Though the Maldives' resort managers display transformational and transactional leadership styles in dealing with their employees, the result confirms that only the transformational leadership approach significantly influences organisational performance. This is because transformational leadership

inspires and motivates employees to achieve organisational objectives, influences the cultivation of innovation and creativity among employees, and helps improve intrapreneurship behaviours among them. This result demands increased understanding amongst resort managers about the complex interactions of the transformational and transactional leadership styles and intrapreneurship behaviours since these factors are critical for higher organisational performance and are worth highlighting.

Although the study affirms that resort managers commonly practise both transformational and transactional leadership styles, the data established that transactional leadership practices negatively influence the resorts' performance, and managers using a transactional leadership approach will reduce organisational performance. More interestingly, the result confirms that resort managers are more practising transformational leadership qualities and behaviours, which help motivate employees and elevate their performance, leading to higher organisational performance. This research and several other studies on organisational performance have established that managers using a transformational leadership style achieve higher organisational performance across various industries. This is because transformational leaders effectively share their vision and objectives with their employees and empower them; as a result, they are inspired and motivated to exert their efforts beyond the mandatory limits in achieving shared objectives.

The study suggests a critical direction in achieving organisational success by transforming the organisation's approach into one of creativity and innovation. Intrapreneurship is one of how organisations can become innovative, be proactive in their strategies, and increase their ability to take a certain level of risk to acquire a competitive advantage over their rivals. The result suggests that resort employees perform intrapreneurship behaviours, and managers encourage those effective behaviours. Additionally, the study confirms that intrapreneurship increases organisational performance. Therefore, employees must be encouraged and rewarded for intrapreneurial behaviours and an environment nurtured to allow for such. This includes aligning organisational strategies, policies, and guidelines supporting innovations and creativity in developing new products or services, enhancing existing processes, and facilitating resources for innovation. It also includes becoming proactive in developing and implementing strategies to combat external forces and allowing employees to take certain risks for the organisation's good. These critical controls must not only be assumed for managers and supervisors; they must also be rolled out at all levels of the organisation to maximise the success of any intrapreneurship to allow for increased organisational performance.

The study further substantiates the idea that intrapreneurship moderates the relationship between the transformational leadership style and organisational performance. This implies that resorts pursuing

higher organisational performance can attain it through effective leadership styles like the transformational leadership approach and that employees' intrapreneurial behaviours could also significantly contribute to such.

Another significant implication the study provided for resort management is the clear insight into the perceptions of resort leaders, managers, and even employees working in resorts; they have similar feelings and perceptions regarding leadership effectiveness and intrapreneurship as most of their counterparts in Western societies. This could be because many executives and management-level employees in most resorts are educated, and many have acquired competencies and experience working with international managers, department heads, and GMs. Even in the Maldives, several international resort chains are competing with local brands and have successfully operated for years; as a result, many local employees have benefited from them. The comparison between locals' and expatriate managers' leadership effectiveness is a contemporary subject among practitioners regardless of the resort brands. Since there is no evidence confirming a significant difference in management approaches and perceptions of locals and foreign managers, it could be an eye-opener for local managers and practitioners to consider that even locals can compete with international brands and management and exploit significant results. The study outcome is consistent with the previous studies in Western societies, including that (a) the effectiveness of the transformational leadership style is higher than the transactional leadership style, and (b) intrapreneurship is an essential factor in becoming an entrepreneurial organisation. Therefore, resort owners and management should consider offering management opportunities to competent locals in governing their organisations and allow more training and development opportunities for managers and employees, both internally and externally.

The managerial implications signify establishing guidelines for resort leadership on shaping up the internal environment favourable in fostering intrapreneurship among employees. For example, managers or supervisors require to know that the decision they make and the support they offer is vital to foster intrapreneurial intentions among employees. Following that, they should be aware of the importance of aligning their leadership style to encourage employees' initiatives and the innovativeness of creative individuals. This could be better facilitated if managers implement an organic organisational design to support intrapreneurship due to the nature of communication makes employees feel free to express themselves and initiate the change (Nielsen *et al.*, 2019).

The result of this study implies the importance of successfully integrating entrepreneurial and structural attributes to improve the resorts' ability to grow and create wealth. Resort managers

increasingly accept the prominence of innovation, risk-taking, and the proactive search for opportunities as crucial drivers of organisational growth and value creation (Jogaratnam & Tse, 2006). Furthermore, the internal mechanisms established within the company, organisational configurations, and work done influence success.

Another implication of this research is the importance of procuring and enhancing intrapreneurial mindsets and attitudes among resort managers and employees. The management of the resorts should take positive steps to ensure that employees have personality traits that significantly impact intrapreneurial behaviour. Perhaps, managers could prefer recruiting candidates with higher levels of extroversion, openness to experience and emotional stability. This would help facilitate more intrapreneurial behaviour, ultimately improving organisational performance (Farrukh, Ying & Mansori, 2016).

When it comes to improving employees' intrapreneurship in the resorts, the heterogeneity of employees is vital. The study shows an ideal mix of locals and expatriates working in all the resorts that participated in this study. Since the customers of the resorts are global and boundaryless, it is essential to have heterogeneity in the executive team. The heterogeneity in the top management team facilitates the resorts' ability to act upon internal recommendations by merging diverse perspectives and developing new products and services that most customers can accept (Alexiev *et al.*, 2010).

The Table 7.1 summarises the research contributions of this study.

*Table 7.1: Summary of the Research Contributions (Theory and Practice)*

<b>Research area</b>	<b>Existing research</b>	<b>Contribution to this research</b>
Use and effectiveness of transformational leadership style for organisational performance and intrapreneurship of the resort islands.	Use and effectiveness of transformational leadership for organisational performance in tourism. (General) (No research on the resort islands of SIDS, especially intrapreneurship).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Investigating the application of transformational leadership style by resort managers and the effectiveness of transformational leadership style for the resort islands' performance in the Maldives. The theoretical and hypotheses testing demonstrated that managers in the Maldives resorts perform behaviours that reflect a more transformational than transactional leadership style and significantly positively affect the resort islands' performance. This result is expected to be the same in SIDS, where contextual similarities are apparent.</li> <li>▪ Examining the effectiveness of transformational leadership style for</li> </ul>



		<p>intrapreneurship in the resort islands of the Maldives. This is the first empirical test to explore the effectiveness of transformational leadership styles on intrapreneurship and organisational performance of the resort islands in SIDS, especially in the Maldives.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Both these findings are novel contributions to theory and the body of knowledge on the transformational leadership style and intrapreneurship in the context of tourist resorts.</li> </ul>
<p>Use and effectiveness of the transactional leadership style for organisational performance and intrapreneurship of the resort islands.</p>	<p>Use and effectiveness of transactional leadership for organisational performance in tourism. (General) (No research on the resort islands of SIDS, especially intrapreneurship).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Investigating the use and the effectiveness of the transactional leadership style for the resort islands' performance in the Maldives. The result demonstrated that managers in the Maldives resorts generally perform the transactional leadership style; however, they have no significant positive effects on the resort islands' performance. Previous research also shows various results (positive and negative influences of transactional leadership on organisational performance); therefore, this study has also added to the discussion.</li> <li>▪ Transactional leadership never positively affected intrapreneurship in the resorts of SIDS, especially in the Maldives. This is a novel contribution since no research has been identified that examines the influence of the transactional leadership style on the intrapreneurship behaviour in resort islands in the context of SIDS and the Maldives.</li> </ul>
<p>Use and effectiveness of intrapreneurship in terms of the organisational performance of the resort islands.</p>	<p>Use and effectiveness of corporate entrepreneurship/entrepreneurial orientation for organisational performance in tourism. (No research on intrapreneurship in the resort islands of SIDS, especially in the Maldives).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Study the use and effectiveness of intrapreneurship in terms of the performance of the resort islands of the Maldives. This is the first empirical test to explore the effectiveness of intrapreneurship on the organisational performance of resort islands in SIDS, especially the Maldives.</li> <li>▪ The result shows that resort employees in the Maldives exhibit intrapreneurship behaviours, and their managers encourage these practices in their organisations.</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ The study proved that intrapreneurship is a critical factor in the performance of tourist resorts in SIDS, where this represents a novel contribution to the body of knowledge in the intrapreneurship and resort performance literature.</li> </ul>
<p>Intrapreneurship's moderating role in the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and the organisational performance of the resort islands.</p>	<p>No study was found examining the moderation of intrapreneurship on the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance in the resort islands.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Study of the moderating role of intrapreneurship in the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance in the resort islands.</li> <li>▪ No research has been identified investigating the relationship between intrapreneurship and leadership styles and organisational performance. The result of the moderating role of intrapreneurship on the existing theoretical models of the direct relationships between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance has contributed new insights into these constructs. As a result, a further understanding of intrapreneurship with the variables of transformational and transactional leadership styles with organisational performance adds new knowledge to the literature on leadership and entrepreneurship in tourist organisations in SIDS like the Maldives.</li> <li>▪ Examining the independent variables (intrapreneurship and leadership style) on the individual level in this study contributes to the body of knowledge.</li> <li>▪ Researching tourist resorts in the context of SIDS has contributed significantly to resorts and hotel-specific literature.</li> <li>▪ The result shows that intrapreneurship strongly influences the relationship between the transformational leadership style and organisational performance in the resort islands. The optimal theoretical model further validates the direct link between transformational leadership and organisational performance, and also proves that employees' intrapreneurship behaviour strongly moderates the direct relationship between the</li> </ul>

		transformational leadership style and organisational performance. However, there is no significant moderating role of intrapreneurship on the relationship between the transactional leadership style and the organisational performance of the resort islands in the Maldives.
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## 7.4 Limitations of the Study

The study result suggests a strong association between the transformational leadership style, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance in the resorts of Maldives. The current study has certain limitations, however, that may have affected the results. Consideration should thus be given when generalising the results to other sectors of the hospitality industry and cultures due to the stated limitations.

The study's main weakness is the limited sample size in participating resorts and the inclusion of only four- and five-star-level resorts in the Maldives. Including resorts and hotels falling into other lower categories would have assisted in further verifying the results. Furthermore, it is also worth highlighting that the data for the study was collected during the time of the Covid-19 pandemic, which caused severe disruptions to the tourism industry of the Maldives due to prolonged lockdowns and travel restrictions across the globe. The slowed down of economic activities and business dynamics of the travel and tourism industry during the period might have affected the data validity to some extent, which might also have affected the study's outcome.

Since the resorts in the Maldives are isolated islands with all the services being self-managed (as described in Chapter 3), the management circumstances of resorts elsewhere could have very different features compared to the resorts of the Maldives; therefore, the generalisability of the result to all resorts may not be appropriate.

The third limitation is related to the instrument used to evaluate the organisational performance of the resorts. Resort performance was measured with an instrument that combined two established measurements based on a literature review. Given the limited studies that utilised this instrument, additional research is required to establish whether this instrument is suitably reliable and extend the contemporary understanding of this variable in organisational practices.

The other limitation concerns the survey method; for example, a caveat related to the method of a survey implies that the data collected relies on respondents' perceptions; therefore, this reliance may lead to measurement error. Abernethy *et al.* (2004, p. 563) suggest as 'measurement error affects the consistency of the parameter estimation of the structural model and its standard errors'. However, all the variables in the research, such as leadership styles, intrapreneurship and organisational performance, were related to participants' beliefs, opinions, and attitudes over time. To secure the anonymity of the participants, the study never identified the individual participants and which organisational climate each participant explicitly represented in the study to confirm the truthfulness or accuracy of the self-described data. Therefore, the study presumed that the answers from the respondents measured the attributes of the surveyed organisations accurately.

Another major drawback of the study is the misrepresentation of most high-end or explicit resorts. Those resorts are international brands and pay service charges to employees at a significantly higher level than the majority of resorts. This is one of the common factors that the general audience of the Maldives ranks the resort's performance in that specific month or period. Therefore, it is expected that the leadership of managers and the intrapreneurship of the employees could have a significant effect.

Another limitation was the time period given to data collection, which fell into the busiest period of the year in the Maldives, with high-stress levels prevalent among employees and managers working in the industry. Almost all the resorts were fully booked; as a result, all the staff were entirely engaged in their routine work; therefore, if the research were conducted at a lower occupancy time, there would be a greater chance of getting more reliable data and broader participation from resort employees.

Another limitation of the research is the nature of the cross-sectional study, which takes measurements during a particular moment. However, a longitudinal study, in contrast, would measure the intended variables over time. For example, employees' perceptions of managers' leadership styles or behaviours at a given time may differ from their perceptions over a more extended period. Therefore, longitudinal research could be the next step in evaluating leadership style in the resorts.

Furthermore, the study would have been more comprehensive if Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) techniques had been employed, as SEM is a combination of techniques that allows the researchers to analyse the underlying factorial structure of the latent variables under investigation in addition to path and mediator effect analysis (Fan *et al.*, 2016). Especially given that the instruments used in the study were translated versions of their original, exploring the structural relationship of the latent variable would have added further merit to the study.

Lastly, the study has not analysed the mediator effects of independent variables on the dependent variable. Similar to moderating effect of intrapreneurship on leadership styles and organisational performance, there could also be a mediating effect of intrapreneurship on leadership styles and organisational performance. Therefore, it is deliberated as yet another research limitation.

## **7.5 Recommendations for Practitioners**

Though the Maldives resort managers display transformational and transactional leadership styles in dealing with their employees, the study result confirms that only the transformational leadership approach has a statistically significant influence in improving organisational performance and intrapreneurial behaviours amongst the employees of the resorts. Additionally, the transactional leadership style harms organisational performance and intrapreneurship. Therefore, owners and managers at different levels in the resorts should exhibit more transformational leadership behaviours and maintain a transformational leadership approach in empowering and motivating their subordinates to accomplish their individual and organisational goals effectively. Luxury tourist hotels and resorts have a higher demand for empowered and motivated staff because their products and services are intangible in nature, including the short production, delivery, and consumption cycle (Sparrowe, 1994; Tracey & Hinkin, 1996). In complying with this demand, resort owners and top management must inspire transformational leadership qualities and behaviours and facilitate training on different leadership approaches, their effectiveness and the implications for different circumstances. This will allow the organisation to cultivate a culture that helps navigate the most effective leadership style under challenging circumstances like the COVID pandemic and achieve a higher market share, profitability, and business growth through higher organisational performance achievements. Additionally, managers should eliminate or minimise transactional leadership behaviours since these negatively affect organisational performance and employees' intrapreneurship behaviours.

It is a common phenomenon that if resort managers observe an increase in competitiveness in their business environment, a high level of uncertainty will result, leading to reduced performance (Patiar, 2005). Therefore, senior resort managers are recommended to implement a suitable strategy to foster an intrapreneurial culture and allow employees to display more intrapreneurial behaviour to change threats to the organisation into opportunities and become more proactive in dealing with competitive environments. In such intense competitiveness and vulnerable circumstances, a transformational leadership approach will help to upscale the subordinates' performance and intrapreneurship behaviours. The transformational leadership approach creates a favourable environment for the

professionals working with them in the resorts; it supports reshaping the hotel's image and advancing its sales force capabilities (Chukwuba, 2015). To develop an intrapreneurial environment within the organisation and positively shape employees' intrapreneurship behaviour to contribute to a resort's long-term success, managers must implement a strategy exhibiting management appreciation. For example, management can acknowledge and reward new and valuable ideas and initiatives of employees that improve organisational service delivery, a better understanding of customers' needs and satisfaction, explore new markets and opportunities, organisational marketing efforts in different platforms, and improve employees' ability to think outside the box. In contributing to these different activities, management can organise training sessions, brainstorming sessions, and focus group discussions on generating new ideas and market opportunities to create resort employees' orientation as intrapreneurs.

Furthermore, management could support the financial backing of employees or offer them rewards with appreciation certificates for bringing workable ideas or initiatives. This will also stimulate their colleagues to leave their comfort zone and exhibit extra-role behaviours. Empowering employees and authorising them to pursue their leadership potential would also boost their intrapreneurial intentions and behaviours.

Leadership developments by resort managers exhibiting transformational leadership style behaviours are vital for the sustainability of a motivated workforce in the industry. The industry requires skilled managers and marketers who can recognise the demands and meet the needs of both international and local tourists. This will ensure a competitive advantage for resorts and broadly for the industry. In facilitating the development of better-equipped leaders capable of acting as successful change agents in the industry, it is highly recommended that the owners and top leadership of the resorts and industry ensure that policies and procedures on leadership encourage department heads, managers, and supervisors to assume active leadership styles. Detailed guidelines in the form of continuing leadership education and on-the-job training courses will ensure this. The training should involve various skills, including management, marketing, and information technology.

Developing strategies to identify potential leaders and help their career development will be critical to cultivating influential leaders who can cope with future challenges. Resorts cannot develop sufficiently effective managers and supervisors without adopting efficient well-developed selection criteria in hiring individuals for leadership roles and managing recruitment practices. This also allows an effective succession plan to be developed and implemented that ensures a better future for the individuals in management positions through mentoring, developing leadership competencies, and

exposure to relevant experiences. In transforming the resort into a profit-making venture, the management should also consider opening management opportunities to competent locals with the same authority and packages to govern the organisation and allow more training and development opportunities for managers and employees, both internally and externally. Furthermore, as the customers of the resorts are global and boundaryless, it is essential to have heterogeneity in the resort's executive team. The heterogeneity in the top management team facilitates the resorts' ability to act upon internal recommendations by merging diverse perspectives and developing new products and services that are acceptable to most customers (Alexiev *et al.*, 2010).

Since the growth of tourist resorts and establishments in the Maldives has been dominated by foreign-controlled organisations (Giampiccoli, Abdul Muhsin & Mtapuri, 2020), the benefits of tourism growth have not been perceived fairly distributed by many. Strong demand from the public emphasises that tourism should facilitate more opportunities for disadvantaged communities, open more doors for community development, and allow more entrepreneurship opportunities for the majority. It is assumed that resorts employ more locals from nearby islands; as a result, a benevolence bond is built between the resort management and the nearby islanders, and thus support from resort management is anticipated for community-based projects on those islands. The resorts may not be able to realise all the requests from nearby islands. However, resort management could have second thoughts regarding focusing on the most critical public sentiments by integrating community-based projects (CBP) into some of the resort's initiatives and perhaps partnering with the island communities in their supply chain, delivering some services or products regularly, which will help the development of enterprise in the islands. This will allow better leadership from managers and exhibit resort employee intrapreneurship by exploring new ways of gaining efficiency in the service process, especially when staff are from the islands. Finally, there could be an improved chance of increased employee satisfaction and the building of better relationships with neighbouring islands.

Readiness for crisis management is a topic of concern at the current time. Preparedness for crisis management is essential for any organisation, especially service organisations like tourist resorts. The effectiveness and efficiency of leadership and employees' proactive and innovative behaviours are essential for managing crises like the COVID pandemic. Maldives tourism has been badly affected by the crises such as the Indian Ocean tsunami in 2004, the devastating earthquake in Haiti in 2010, the Japan tsunami in 2011, etc. Each crisis has brought a tremendous loss and a very diverse experience to the tourism of the Maldives, which made the industry realise the importance of preparedness for such circumstances. Indeed, COVID-19 is another episode in the series of vulnerability incidents in the recent history of tourism, which affected all walks of life, forcing all the resorts and services to be

closed for several months. When there was an opportunity to open up some of the services, a lack of preparedness for response and recovery operations was found in many resorts. When COVID cases emerged in the resorts, employees at all levels were forced to accept the risk of infection, concentrate on customers' safety, and run the show as generally as possible. In such a situation, managers must employ their best leadership skills and empathetic behaviours in motivating employees, while the employees are expected to demonstrate their motivation, proactiveness, and creativity in dealing with the situation. Therefore, tourist resorts and hotels must have a crisis risk management plan with specific plans to address the security and safety of clients with reserve funds for operations. The core element of this plan is establishing and maintaining a trained core response and welfare team at each resort and constantly providing appropriate training to all employees.

## **7.6 Future Research Directions**

Future studies must expand upon the limitations observed in the current research, supplementing further inputs to leadership and intrapreneurial literature as well as practitioners in the tourism and hospitality industry to enhance the generalisability of the results and findings.

First, this study was carried out for four- and five-star-rated resorts; therefore, future studies could be replicated in other sectors of the tourism industry, including other levels of resorts and hotels, restaurants, travel agencies, and guesthouses, to verify further and strengthen the study results. This can be done in different industries, such as health, education, and transport. The inclusion of different industries and business sectors would increase access to knowledge and offer a broader understanding of the subject if the research outcomes were due to a specific industry's nature.

Second, the tourism and hospitality industry is global; therefore, cross-cultural studies are paramount to understanding differences and allowing multicultural comparisons. This could be enhanced by incorporating the Asian Pacific, African, or Middle Eastern countries, offering exciting outcomes to draw conclusions.

Third, future studies can be more attractive when additional independent and dependent variables are incorporated into the research model, which might help to discretely improve the unit or department performance or overall organisational performance. The independent variables, such as organisational culture, dispositions of managers or supervisors, HR policies, other leadership styles, and strategic planning, are just a few variables that might lead to understanding some very different aspects of the



phenomena. On the other hand, organisational commitment and customer and employee satisfaction are a few dependent variables that could be useful.

Fourthly, since the business environment in an industry is volatile due to fierce competition and natural and economic crises, future research should employ a longitudinal approach to confine causality and the delayed effects of their-way interaction on the unit or departmental performance. Longitudinal research is expected to advance the overall understanding of the influence of leadership styles and employees' intrapreneurship behaviours on departmental performance and offers substantial input to the literature.

Adopting a qualitative design such as interviews, focus groups, or observational techniques could help to identify the variables in depth; a detailed view of managers' leadership styles and employees' intrapreneurship behaviours that may influence individual perceptions in resorts will help to derive a more comprehensive conclusion. Future research could include the difference between the employees' and managers' rankings of leadership behaviours to determine gaps between employees' and the hotel's leadership.

Leadership research, especially tourism leadership and related subjects in the Maldives, need to be encouraged and supported by policymakers, industry-specific organisations, and tourism companies, explicitly focusing on barriers to careers in the tourism sector, especially locals succeeding in gaining top-level jobs in the resorts.

Further, the Maldives employs a sizeable multicultural workforce, mainly a considerable level of expatriates in top-level positions in specific hotel chains; it is vital to consider attitudes based on cultural and demographic factors and leadership training available in the home country as part of future study. Another crucial area of the study could be an investigation of the impact of the transformational leadership style on organisational culture because transformational leadership is assumed to transform the organisational culture that encourages creativity and innovation within the organisation and inspires the teams and groups on learning and knowledge seeking.

Since this study sought to determine the most effective leadership style for best organisational performance and enhanced intrapreneurship in the resorts, it could be worth exploring the effectiveness of other contemporary leadership styles, such as the servant, participatory, entrepreneurial, or charismatic leadership styles, in the context of the resort in the Maldives. Besides, since this study

applied subjective measures of organisational performance, the subsequent research could use objective measures, which could give a more realistic conclusion as to the outcome of the result.

The literature has established a positive relationship between transactional leadership style and organisational performance, and future studies could focus on finding the relationships between different factors of transactional leadership style and organisational performance. This is because scholars have suggested that money is the motivating factor of employees working in the resorts of Maldives (Najeeb, 2014); therefore, employees may exhibit some transactional leadership style factors, which could be associated with performance. Additionally, the study by Sadiq (2011) on the impact of the national culture of the Maldives on transformational leadership practices shows moderate short- and long-term objectives, implying that leaders are more prone to satisfying Maldivian employees with short-term goals and rewards. Therefore, this could help identify a better mix of transformational and transactional leadership factors that would produce a more realistic leadership style in the resort context.

## **7.7 Summary and Study Conclusions**

Identifying an effective leadership style and practising that approach is vital to organisational success. Selecting the appropriate leadership styles for the organisational circumstances helps sustainability in turbulent and challenging environments. Therefore, this study explored the most effective leadership style for managers working in resorts in the Maldives to elevate organisational performance and enhance intrapreneurship behaviours among resort employees. The researcher anticipated generating insights of benefit to resort owners, top management teams, department and unit heads, educators, and policymakers to help them deal with the encounters they face.

This study presented a new and original contribution to leadership within the tourism industry in SIDS by evaluating the substantial aspects of leadership styles among the managers in the resort hotels of the Maldives. The study is expected to fill the gap found in the literature concerning tourism managers' application of leadership styles. As the resort sector is the biggest service provider in the tourism industry in the Maldives, it can be considered one of the approaches to determining how the remaining sectors in the industry are performing.

Related studies have been carried out worldwide in terms of leadership, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance; however, this research is unique to the Maldives and has provided greater insight into the management or leadership styles of tourism leaders, resort performance, and employee

behaviour. The literature review discovered that this is the first attempt to study resort managers' and employees' perceptions of their managers' leadership styles, employees' intrapreneurship behaviour, and the link between resort performance and these two attributes of the resort hotels in the Maldives.

This quantitative correlational research was intended to explore the most effective leadership style, whether transformational or transactional, of Bass and Avolio's (1992) leadership theory for intrapreneurship and organisational performance in the resort hotels of the Maldives. It was also designed to explore the moderating role of intrapreneurship of Covin and Slevin (1989) on the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles and organisational performance. Knowledge of these aspects is essential, as they indicate the profession's current state and help assess suitable leadership for the resort settings in the Maldives.

The researcher used Bass and Avolio's (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to measure leadership styles, and Bolton and Lane (2012) for intrapreneurship measures. Additionally, the researcher combined items from the instrument of Chen, Tsou and Huang (2009) and Avci, Madanoglu, and Okumus (2011), which were adopted to measure the organisational performance of the resorts. The research was carried out in ten four- and five-star-rated resorts and was a cross-sectional study in which samples were taken through stratified random sampling.

Although abundant literature is accessible on leadership styles, entrepreneurship, and organisational performance, no research was found that combined transformational and transactional leadership styles, intrapreneurship, and organisational performance in the tourism industry, especially in the context of the resort hotels of the Maldives. The study investigated which of the transformational or transactional leadership styles was more effective regarding resort performance and improving intrapreneurship among resort employees. Transformational leadership behaviours were more common among the managers and were predicted to be the most effective leadership style in the resorts. The study also predicted that the transformational leadership style would positively correlate with intrapreneurship, and intrapreneurship would strongly and positively correlate with organisational performance. Additionally, the result established that intrapreneurship moderates the relationship between the transformational leadership style and organisational performance in the resorts. The result failed to establish a positive relationship between the transactional leadership style and organisational performance, and also failed to confirm intrapreneurship could act as a moderator between transactional leadership and organisational performance.

Additionally, the research helped the resort managers recognise their leadership styles, and it will help them reflect on how they can improve their choice of leadership style. The study recommends

implementing a suitable on-the-job leadership training programme to develop the managers' and supervisors' competencies and overall leadership skills. Additionally, the study recommends nurturing organisational culture, promoting and supporting intrapreneurship among employees, developing intrapreneurship training for employees, and adjusting organisational policies to encourage employee innovation and creativity. Supporting resort managers and different levels of employees with further education could represent a sustainable approach to developing a succession plan for management. This should help enhance the uptake of future business directions and assist employees working towards higher performance.

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## Appendices

### Appendix A: Ethical Approval

Wednesday, December 21, 2022 at 07:34:49 Greenwich Mean Time

**Subject:** EC757 PG2 Ethics form Approved - IBRAHIM, AMEEN 1812442  
**Date:** Monday, 11 January 2021 at 10:23:36 Greenwich Mean Time  
**From:** Postgrad Research  
**To:** Ameen Ibrahim (1812442), ameenibrahim70@gmail.com  
**CC:** Mushfiqur Rahman, Olusoyi Ashaye, Jill Venus, John-Paul Okeke, London Student Services  
**Attachments:** image001.png

Dear Ameen Ibrahim,

I am pleased to confirm that the submission of the Ethical Approval on your research 'Exploring the Effective Leadership on Intrapreneurship and Performance: The Case of Island Resorts in the Maldives' has been APPROVED by the University's Ethics Committee.

Please ensure that you are aware of, and use, the University's Research Data Management Policy and the extensive resources on the University's Research Data Management web pages (<http://uwtsd.ac.uk/library/research-data-management/>).

Please do not hesitate to contact the office should you require any further information on this matter.

Kind regards

**Steve Davies**



**Swyddfa Academaidd** (Graddau Ymchwil Ôl-raddedig) / Academic Office (Postgraduate Research)

**Campws Caerfyrddin** / Carmarthen Campus

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**Appendix E: Invitation to the Resorts to Participate in the Research Project**

Ameen Ibrahim

**The General Manager,**

November, 2021

.....  
Maldives

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a research student at the University of Wales Trinity Saint David (UWTSD), United Kingdom, researching my doctorate program. The research project is titled '*Exploring the Most Effective Leadership Style on Intrapreneurship and Organisational Performance in the Resort Islands of the Maldives*'.

The study aims to explore the most suitable leadership style that promotes intrapreneurship among the employees and upsurges organisational performance in the resorts of the Maldives. This topic is vital to the Maldives since minimal research has been available on resort leadership of the Maldives, especially employees' intrapreneurship. Accordingly, many scholars and researchers have advocated leadership and intrapreneurship's critical role in succeeding in turbulent and challenging times. Therefore, the subject matter is of great importance not only for researchers or academics but also for any resort owner, resort leader/manager or practitioner in the Maldives. The research intends to take samples from 10 resorts that have been randomly selected. Each resort is expected to fill out 45 to 50 survey forms, including managers and employees. The research will maintain the participants' privacy and confidentiality. You will not be evaluated separately in such a manner that you are distinguished in the thesis or any publication. To complete a survey form, participants will take about 10 to 15 minutes.

Universities and training institutions and any tourism-related organisation may use this inquiry's results to develop hospitality leaders and improve their performance. The results of this project will be available to you in summary or complete form.

Therefore, I would like to inquire about your permission to undertake the mentioned survey in your resort and request your kind support in facilitating the survey link among the employees and returning. I would be grateful if you could provide a contact point from your resort for further communications. If you have any queries concerning this research, don't hesitate to contact me on WhatsApp at +960..... or email me at .....@gmail.com.

Thank you in advance for your time and consideration in this matter.

Yours sincerely,

Ameen Ibrahim  
Doctoral Research Student  
University of Wales Trinity Saint David  
Winchester House (Oval), 11 Cranmer Road, London, SW9 6EJ

**Appendix G: English Version of the Questionnaire**

**Questionnaire**

**Exploring the most Effective Leadership Style on Intrapreneurship and Organisational Performance: The Case of Island Resorts in the Maldives**

You are invited to participate in a research project as part of my Doctorate Program at University of Wales Trinity Saint David (UWTSD), United Kingdom. The study aims to investigate the most suitable leadership style to improve intrapreneurship among the employees and upsurge organisational performance in the resorts of the Maldives. The research will propose a model that will help Maldivian hoteliers and industry leaders to manage their business more effectively and efficiently.

The study is of great importance not only for researchers or academics but also for industry leaders, resort managers, trainers, and employees in the hotel industry to improve their organisations' performance. Therefore, your assistance and involvement in completing the survey is precious and will contribute towards the development of leadership and intrapreneurship in the tourism industry of the Maldives.

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and you can skip questions or may withdraw at any time without consequence. The questionnaire is anonymous; thus, researcher will not collect any identifiable information of you. The information you provide will be used for research purposes only. Confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained throughout the research. UWTSD Research Ethics Committee has approved the ethical aspects of this study. If you have any further questions about this research, you may contact me at .....com or WhatsApp at +960.....

The completion and return of the form confirm your understanding about the nature, risks and confidentiality of the study and your consent to voluntarily participation in this study.

This questionnaire comprises four (4) sections. Please answer ALL the questions by **clicking** the number in the box that BEST suits your situation. It will take **about 15** minutes to complete.

Thank you for your participation in advance with honesty and as best as you can! Ameen Ibrahim

**SECTION 1: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS**

This section is to describe your managers'/ supervisors' leadership style as you perceive it. Thirty-two descriptive statements are listed below. Judge how frequently each statement fits your perception.

Not At All	Once In a While	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently, If Not Always
0	1	2	3	4

**My immediate Supervisor or Manager....**

1.	0	1	2	3	4
2.	0	1	2	3	4
3.	0	1	2	3	4
4.	0	1	2	3	4
5.	0	1	2	3	4
6.	0	1	2	3	4
7.	0	1	2	3	4
8.	0	1	2	3	4
9.	0	1	2	3	4
10.	0	1	2	3	4
11.	0	1	2	3	4
12.	0	1	2	3	4
13. Talks optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3	4
14.	0	1	2	3	4
15.	0	1	2	3	4

Questionnaire- Exploring the effective leadership Style / Ameen 2021

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16.	0	1	2	3	4
17.	0	1	2	3	4
18.	0	1	2	3	4
19.	0	1	2	3	4
20.	0	1	2	3	4
21. <i>Spends time teaching and coaching</i>	0	1	2	3	4
22.	0	1	2	3	4
23.	0	1	2	3	4
24.	0	1	2	3	4
25.	0	1	2	3	4
26.	0	1	2	3	4
27.	0	1	2	3	4
28.	0	1	2	3	4
29.	0	1	2	3	4
30.	0	1	2	3	4
31.	0	1	2	3	4
32.	0	1	2	3	4

**SECTION 2: INTRAPRENEURSHIP**

There are Ten (10) descriptive statements listed in this section to describe your intrapreneurship. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree in regard to your company situations, based on the following rating scale:  
 In order to ensure that all participants have the same understanding of intrapreneurship, the following description has been provided. *Intrapreneurship* can be described as the employees' autonomous initiatives exploring and implementing new and innovative ideas to solve the existing problems or develop new products or services to transform the organisation into an innovative, effective and efficient company.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
0	1	2	3	4

1. I like to take bold action by venturing into the unknown	0	1	2	3	4
2. I am willing to invest a lot of time and/or money on something that might yield a high return	0	1	2	3	4
3. I tend to act "boldly" in situations where risk is involved	0	1	2	3	4
4. I often like to try new and unusual activities that are not typical but not necessarily risky	0	1	2	3	4
5. In general, I prefer a strong emphasis in projects on unique, one-of-a-kind approaches rather than revisiting tried and true approaches used before	0	1	2	3	4
6. I prefer to try my own unique way when learning new things rather than doing it like everyone else does	0	1	2	3	4
7. I favour experimentation and original approaches to problem solving rather than using methods others generally use for solving their problems	0	1	2	3	4
8. I usually act in anticipation of future problems, needs or changes	0	1	2	3	4
9. I tend to plan ahead on projects	0	1	2	3	4
10. I prefer to "step-up" and get things going on projects rather than sit and wait for someone else to do it	0	1	2	3	4

**SECTION 3: ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE**

There are eleven (11) descriptive statements in this section to describe your organisational performance. Please evaluate the following performance of your resort based on the following rating scale.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
0	1	2	3	4

1. We have been profitable	0	1	2	3	4
2. We have achieved profit objectives	0	1	2	3	4
3. We have achieved sales objectives	0	1	2	3	4
4. We have achieved market share objectives	0	1	2	3	4
5. We have decreased our costs in recent years	0	1	2	3	4
6. We have improved the loyalty of existing customers	0	1	2	3	4
7. We have attracted a significant number of new customers	0	1	2	3	4
8. We have had a well perceived image	0	1	2	3	4
9. We have had a good reputation	0	1	2	3	4
10. Employee satisfaction in our organisation has increased	0	1	2	3	4
11. Employee turnover in our organisation has decreased	0	1	2	3	4

**SECTION 4: BACKGROUND OF BUSINESS / PARTICIPANT**  
 There are Ten (10) questions in this section about you and your organisation. Please select the most appropriate number that BEST describe your situation.

1. Name of the resort .....

2. Gender  
 Female  1 Male  2

3. Age  
 Below 24 years  1    25 – 40 years  2    41 – 56 years  3    57- 75 years  4    76 years and above  5

4. Highest Education Level  
 Masters & above  1    Degree  2    Certificate/ Diploma  3    Higher Secondary Education  4    Other  5

5. Job Ranking  
 Chairman / GM/ CEO  1    Executive/Senior Management  2    Manager/ Middle Management  3    Supervisor / Coordinator  4    Line Staff  5

6. Is your resort GM/ CEO a local or an expatriate?  
 Local  1    Expatriate  2

7. Are you a local or an expatriate?  
 Local  1    Expatriate  2

8. Is your supervisor/ manager a local or an expatriate?  
 Local  1    Expatriate  2

9. Is your resort a family or non-family business?  
 Family business  1    Non-family business  2

10. How long has the resort been operating?  
 Less than 5 years  1    5-10 years  2    10 – 15 years  3    15 – 20 years  4    20 years & above  5

End of Questionnaire  
 Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this questionnaire  
 Questionnaire- Exploring the effective leadership Style / Ameen 2021  
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0	1	2	3	4	1. ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.
0	1	2	3	4	2. ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް (ފަތުރުވެރިންނަށް ބޭނުންވާ ގޮތެއް) ހުންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.
0	1	2	3	4	3. ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް (ސަލާމަތް ބޭނުންވާ ގޮތެއް) ހުންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.
0	1	2	3	4	4. ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް (މާއްދާ ބޭނުންވާ ގޮތެއް) ހުންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.
0	1	2	3	4	5. ފަދަ ގޮތެއް ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.
0	1	2	3	4	6. ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް (މާއްދާ) ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.
0	1	2	3	4	7. ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.
0	1	2	3	4	8. ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.
0	1	2	3	4	9. ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.
0	1	2	3	4	10. ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.
0	1	2	3	4	11. ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.

ސަލާމަތް - 4: ސަލާމަތް ބޭނުންވާ ގޮތެއް ހުންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.  
 ސަލާމަތް ބޭނުންވާ ގޮތެއް ހުންނަ ގޮތެއް (10) ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން ވަނަވަން ފެންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.

1. ސަލާމަތް ބޭނުންވާ ގޮތެއް ހުންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.

2 ވަނަވަން

1	2
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3 ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން

1	2	3	4	5
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4 ހަދަންޖެހޭ ގޮތުން

1	2	3	4	5
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5 ބޭނުންވާ ގޮތެއް

1	2	3	4	5
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6 ސަލާމަތް ބޭނުންވާ ގޮތެއް ހުންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.

1	2
---	---

7 ސަލާމަތް ބޭނުންވާ ގޮތެއް ހުންނަ ގޮތެއް ވާނެއެވެ.

1	2
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8 ޖެޔްލަލު ސަޔްރަވަޔިޖް/ ޔުޅެޖްކަޔ ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް

ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް	1	ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް	2
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9 ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް

ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް	1	ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް	2
------------	---	------------	---

10 ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް

5 ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް	1	5 ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް 10 ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް	2	10 ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް 15 ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް	3	15 ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް 20 ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް	4	20 ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް	5
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ސަޔްރަވަޔިޖް

ޖެޔްލަލު ސަޔްރަވަޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް ޕްރޮސެޔިޖް